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B L E A C H I N G.

INTRODUCTION.

(1.) BLEACHING may be defined, the art of whitening linen and cotton cloths, yarns, &c. It is a process of considerable importance to manufacturers, and in which some very valuable improvements have been lately introduced. The practice of wetting cloths on the field is not now followed; and the use of sulphuric acid (oil of vitriol) for souring, in place of butter-milk and bran, is now universal.

(2.) We shall first describe the methods, which, with some few variations, were formerly practised; and, after taking notice of the chemical improvements of the old method, give an account of the *new process*, for which we are chiefly indebted to the French chemists, and particularly to M. BERTHOLLET.

PART I.

OF THE OLD METHOD OF BLEACHING.

SECT. I. *Of* BLEACHING *in* GENERAL.

(3.) THE process of bleaching is for the most part conducted in the following manner, by those bleachers who have not availed themselves of the late discoveries.

(4.) As soon as the cloth, which is intended to be bleached, has been sorted into parcels of an equal fineness, each parcel is latched, linked, and then steeped. I. STEEPING is the first operation which the cloth undergoes, and is thus performed: the cloths are folded up distinctly, and laid in a large wooden vessel; into which is thrown, blood-warm, a sufficient quantity of water, or equal parts of water and ley, which has been used to white cloth only, or water with rye-meal or bran mixed with it, till the whole is thoroughly wet, and the liquor rises over all. A cover of wood is then laid over the cloth, and secured with a post between the boards and the joisting, to prevent the cloth from rising, during the fermentation which ensues.

(5.) About six hours after the cloth has been steeped in warm water, and about twelve in cold, bubbles of air arise; a pellicle is formed on the surface of the liquor, and the cloth swells when it is not pressed down. This effect continues from 36 to 48 hours, according to the warmth of the weather; about which time the pellicle or scum begins to fall to the bottom. But before this precipitation happens, the cloth must be taken out, and the proper time for taking it out is when no more air-bubbles arise. The cloth must now be well rinsed, disposed regularly by the selvage, and washed in the put-mill to carry off the loose dust. After this it is to be spread on the field to dry; and when thoroughly dried, it is then ready for bucking.

(6.) II. The 2d operation, BUCKING, or the application of salts, is thus performed: The first, or mother ley, is made in a copper, which we shall suppose, when full, holds 680 gallons of water. The copper is filled three fourths full of water, which is brought to boil: just when it begins, the following proportion of ashes is put into it, viz. 30 lb. of blue, and as much white pearl ashes; 200 lb. of Marcoft ashes (or, if these cannot be got, about 300 lb. of Cashub); 300 lb. of Muscovy, or blanch ashes: the three last ought to be well pounded.

(7.) This liquor is allowed to boil for a quarter of an hour, stirring the ashes from the bottom very often; after which the fire is taken away. The liquor must stand till it has settled, which takes at least six hours, and then it is fit for the operation.

(8.) Out of the first, or mother ley, the second, or that used in bucking, is made in this manner. Into another copper, holding 160 gallons, are put 150 gallons of water, 2 lb. of soft soap, and 8 gallons of mother ley; or, for cheapness, in place of the soap, when they have ley which has been used to white linen, called *white linen ley*, they take 56 gallons of it, leaving out an equal quantity of water. This is called BUCKING LEY.

(9.) The linens, after being taken up from the field to dry, are set in the *vat* or *cave* in rows, endwise, that they may be equally wetted by the ley; which, made blood-warm, is now thrown on them, and the cloth is afterwards trodden down by a man with wooden shoes. Each row undergoes the same operation, until the vessel is full, or all the cloth in it. At first the ley is put on milk-warm, and, after standing a little time on the cloth,

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it is again let off by a cock into the bucking-copper, heated to a greater degree, and then put on the cloth again. This courſe is repeated for 6 or 7 hours, and the degree of heat gradually increaſed, till, at the laſt turn or two, it is thrown on boiling hot. The cloth remains after this 3 or 4 hours in the ley; after which the ley is let off, thrown away, or uſed in the firſt buckings, and the cloth undergoes another kind of proceſs.

(10.) III. The cloth is carried out, generally early in the morning, ſpread on the graſs, pinned down, expoſed to the ſun and air, and watered for the firſt ſix hours, ſo often, that it never is allowed to dry. Afterwards it is allowed to lie till dry ſpots appear before it is watered. After 7 at night it gets no more water, unleſs it be a very drying night. Next day, in the morning and forenoon, it is watered twice or thrice if the day be very dry; but if the weather be not drying, it gets no water; after which it is taken up dry if the green be clean; if not, it is rinſed, mill-waſhed, and laid out to dry again, to become fit for bucking.

(11.) This alternate courſe of bucking and watering is performed for the moſt part from 6 to 7 times, or more, before the linen is fit for ſouring; gradually increaſing the ſtrength of the ley from the firſt to the middle bucking, and from that gradually decreaſing it till the ſouring begins. The leys in the middle buckings are generally about a third ſtronger than the firſt and laſt.

(12.) IV. The 4th operation is SOURING, or the application of acids to cloth. It is not eaſy to ſay when this operation ſhould commence, as it depends moſtly on the experience of the bleacher. When the cloth has an equal colour, and is moſtly freed from the outer bark of the lint, it is though fit for ſouring; which is performed in the following manner.

(13.) Into a large vat is poured ſuch a quantity of butter-milk, or ſour milk, as will ſufficiently wet the firſt row of cloth; which is tied up in looſe folds, and preſſed down by two or three men barefooted. If the milk be thick, about an eighth of water is added to it; if thin, no water. Sours made with bran, or rye-meal and water, are often uſed inſtead of milk, and uſed milk-warm. Over the firſt row of cloth a quantity of milk and water is thrown, to be imbibed by the ſecond; and ſo it is continued till the linen to be ſoured is ſufficiently wet, and the liquor riſes over the whole. The cloth is then kept down by covers filled with holes, and ſecured with a poſt fixed to the joiſt, that it may not riſe.

(14.) Some hours after the cloth has been in the ſour, air-bubbles ariſe, a white ſcum is formed on the ſurface, and an inteſtine motion goes on in the liquor. In warm weather it appears ſooner, is ſtronger, and ends ſooner, than in cold weather. Juſt before this fermentation, which laſts 5 or 6 days, is finiſhed, (at which time the ſcum falls down,) the cloth ſhould be taken out, rinſed, mill-waſhed, and delivered to the women to be waſhed in ſoap ſuds.

(15.) V. The 5th operation is WASHING with ſoap and water. It is performed by two women, each placed oppoſite at a tub, made of very thick ſtaves, ſo that the edges, which ſlope inwards, are about 3 inches in thickneſs. A ſmall veſſel full of warm water is placed in each tub. The cloth is folded ſo that the ſelvage may be firſt rubbed with ſoap and warm water lengthwiſe, till it is ſufficiently impregnated with it. In this manner all the parcel is rubbed with ſoap, and afterwards carried to be bucked.

(16.) The ley now uſed has no ſoap in it, except what it gets from the cloth; and is equal in ſtrength to the ſtrongeſt formerly uſed, or rather ſtronger, becauſe the cloth is now put in wet. From the former operation theſe leys are gradually made ſtronger, till the cloth ſeems of an uniform white. After this the ley is more ſpeedily weakened than it was increaſed; ſo that the laſt which the cloth gets is weaker than any it got before. But the management of ſours is different; for they are uſed ſtrongeſt at firſt, and decreaſed ſo in ſtrength, that the laſt ſour, conſidering the cloth is then always taken up wet, may be reckoned to contain three fourths of water.

(17.) The cloth, after bucking, goes to the watering, as formerly; then it returns to the ſour, milling, waſhing, bucking, and watering again. Theſe operations ſucceed one another alternately till the cloth is whitened; at which time it is blued, ſtarched, and dried. This is the method uſed in the whitening FINE cloths.

(18.) The following is the method uſed in the whitening of COARSE cloths. Having ſorted the cloths according to their quality, they are ſteeped in the ſame manner as the fine, rinſed, waſhed in the mill, and dried before boiling. In this proceſs boiling ſupplies the place of bucking, as it takes leſs time, and conſequently is cheapeſt.

(19.) It is thus performed: 200 lb. of Caſhub-aſhes, 100 lb. of white Muſcovy, and 30 lb. of pearl aſhes, boiled in 500 gallons of water for a quarter of an hour, make the mother or firſt ley. The cloth boiler is then to be filled two thirds full with water and mother ley, about 9 parts of the former to one of the latter; ſo that the ley uſed for boiling the coarſe cloth is about one third weaker than that uſed in bucking the fine. Such a quantity of cloth is put into the foregoing quantity of ley, when cold, as can be well covered by it. The ley is brought gradually to the boil, and kept boiling for two hours; the cloth being fixed down all the time, that it may not riſe above the liquor. The cloth is then taken out, ſpread on the field, and watered, like the fine cloth.

(20.) As this boiling does not exhauſt the ſalts of the ley, the ſame liquor is continued to be uſed all that day, adding, at each boiling, ſo much of the mother ley as will bring it to the ſame ſtrength as at firſt. The ley by boiling loſes in quantity ſomewhat betwixt a 3d and a 4th; and it is ſuppoſed, that in ſtrength it loſes about a half, becauſe, in practice, it is found that adding to it half its former ſtrength in freſh ley, has the ſame effect on cloth. Therefore ſome freſh ley, containing a 4th part of the water, and the half of the ſtrength of the firſt ley, makes the 2d boiler equal in ſtrength to the firſt. To the 3d boiler they add ſomewhat more than the former proportion, and go on ſtill increaſing gradually to the 4th and 5th, which

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which is as much as can be done in a day. The boiler is then cleaned, and next day they begin with fresh ley.

(21.) These additions of fresh ley ought always to be made by the master bleacher, as it requires judgment to bring succeeding leys to the same strength as the first. When the cloth comes to get the second boiling, the ley should be stronger by about a sixth part, and the deficiencies made up in the same proportion. For 6 or 7 boilings, or fewer, if the cloth be thin, the ley is increased in this way, and then gradually diminished till the cloth is fit for souring.

(22.) The whitest cloth ought always to be boiled first, that it may not be hurt by what goes before. In this process, if the cloth cannot be got dry for boiling, business does not stop as in the first; for after the coarse has been drained, on racks made for that purpose, it is boiled, making the ley strong in proportion to the water in the cloth.

(23.) The common method of souring linen is, to mix some warm water and bran in the vat; then put a layer of cloth; than more bran, water, and cloth; and so on, till the cave is full. The whole is trampled with men's feet, and fixed as in the former process. A thousand yards of cloth, yard-wide, require betwixt 4 and 6 pecks of bran. The cloth generally lies about 3 nights and two days in the sour. Others prepare their sour 24 hours before, by mixing the bran with warm water in a separate vessel; and before pouring it on the cloth, they dilute it with a sufficient quantity of water.

(24.) After the cloth is taken from the sour, it ought to be well washed and rinsed again. It is given to men to be well soaped on a table, and afterwards rubbed betwixt the rubbing-boards. When it comes from them, it should be well milled, and warm water poured on it all the time, if convenience will allow of it. Two or three of these rubbings are sufficient, and the cloth seldom requires more. After the souring begins, the ley is diminished in strength by degrees; and 3 boilings after that are commonly sufficient to finish the work.

(25.) VI. The last operation is to starch, blue, dry, and bittle it, in a machine made for that purpose, which supplies the place of a calender, and is preferred by many. This method of bleaching coarse cloths is that practised in Ireland for both fine and coarse. The only material difference is, that there the bleachers use seldom other ashes but kelp or cashub. A ley is drawn from the former by cold water, which dissolves the salts, and not the sulphureous particles of the kelp-ashes. This ley is used till the cloth is half whitened, and then they lay aside the kelp ley for one made of cashub-ashes.

(26.) Agreeably to the preceding account, bleaching is naturally divided into, 1. Steeping and milling: 2. Bucking and boiling: 3. Alternate watering and drying: 4. Souring: 5. Rubbing with soap and warm water: and, 6. Starching and blueing. We shall treat of these different parts in their order, more particularly.

SECT. II. *Of* STEEPING *and* MILLING.

(27.) LINEN, in the different changes which it undergoes, before it arrives at the state of what is called *Green linen*, contracts a great degree of foulness. This is chiefly communicated to it by the matters used in the dressing, which should be effectually cleared off.

(28.) The first thing, therefore, that is to be done in bleaching, is to take off all the filth that is foreign to the flax, and might, in unskilful hands, be fixed in the cloth. This is the object of steeping; and to accomplish this end, the cloth is laid in a blood-warm water. A smaller degree of heat than that would not dissolve the dressing so soon; and a greater might coagulate and fix, in the body of the linen, those particles which should be carried off. In a few hours the dressing made use of in weaving is dissolved, and mixed with the water; and as it had acquired some degree of acidity before application, it becomes a species of ferment.

(29.) Each ferment promotes its own particular species of intestine motion; the putrid ferment sets in motion the putrefactive fermentation; the vinous ferment gives rise to the vinous fermentation; and the acid ferment to the acetous fermentation. That there is a real fermentation going on in steeping is evident from the air bubbles which arise, from the scum which gathers on the surface, and from the intestine motion of the whole liquor. That it must be the acetous fermentation, appears from this, that the vegetable particles, already soured, must first undergo this process. The consequence of this operation on the whole is, that the cloth comes out freed in a great measure from its superficial dirt, and more pliant and soft than it was before.

(30.) When this intestine motion is pretty much abated, and before the scum subsides, bleachers take out their cloth. The scum, when no more air-bubbles rise to support it, separates and falls down; and would again communicate to the cloth great part of the filth. But a longer stay would be attended with a much greater disadvantage. The putrid follows close upon the acetous fermentation; when the latter ends, the former begins, and were this to take place in any considerable degree, it would render the cloth black and tender; so that this should be carefully prevented.

(31.) On these principles, the first question to be considered, is, What is the most proper liquor for steeping cloth? The bleachers use plain water; white linen ley and water, equal parts; and rye-meal or bran mixed with water; but they always make use of ley when they have it.

(32.) After steeping, the cloth is carried to the putstock mill, to be freed of all its loose foulnesses. There can be nothing contrived to answer the purpose so effectually as this mill. Its motion is easy, regular, and safe. While it presses gently, it turns the cloth; which is continually washed with a stream of water. Care must be taken, however, that no water be detained in the folds of the linen, otherwise that part may be injured.

SECT. III. *Of* BUCKING *and* BOILING.

(33.) THE subject of this section is the most important part of the whole process, and deserves a very nice examination. Its design is to loosen, and carry off, by the help of alkaline lixivia, that particular substance in cloth, which is the cause

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of its brown colour. All aſhes uſed in ley, pearl aſhes excepted, ought to be well pounded, before they are put into the copper; for the marcoſt and caſhub are very hard, and with ſome difficulty yield their ſalt. As theſe two laſt contain a very conſiderable proportion of a matter, which will in ſome degree tinge white cloth; and as this is diſſolved much more by boiling than by the inferior degrees of heat, while the ſalts may be as well extracted by the latter; the water ſhould never be brought to boil, and ſhould be continued for ſome time longer under that degree of heat. The pearl aſhes ſhould never be put in till near the end, as they are very ſoluble in water. If theſe ſalts were always of an equal ſtrength, the ſame quantities would always make a ley equally ſtrong; but they are not. Salts of the ſame name differ very much from each other.

(34.) The Muſcovy aſhes become weaker every day, as every bleacher muſt have obſerved, till at laſt they turn quite effete. A decoction from them when new, muſt differ very much from one when they have been long kept. Hence a neceſſity of ſome exact criterion to diſcover when leys are of an equal ſtrength. The taſte cannot ſerve, as that is ſo variable, cannot be deſcribed to another, and is blunted by repeated trials. The proof-ball will ſerve the purpoſe of the bleachfied ſufficiently; and, by diſcovering the ſpecific gravity, will ſhow the quantity of alkaline ſalts diſſolved. But it cannot ſhow the dangerous qualities of theſe ſalts; for the leſs cauſtic and leſs heavy this liquor is, the more dangerous and corroſive it may be for the cloth. The third ley, which they draw from theſe materials by an infuſion of cold water, in which the taſte of lime is diſcoverable, appears plainly to be more dangerous than the firſt. The ſecond ley, which they extract from the ſame aſhes, and which is reckoned about a third in ſtrength, when compared with firſt, muſt be of the ſame nature; nor ſhould it be uſed without an addition of pearl-aſhes, which will correct it.

(35.) One general rule is, That the ſolution of any body in its menſtruum is equally diffuſed through the whole liquor. The bleachers, depending on this, uſe equal quantities of the top and bottom of their ley, when once clear and ſettled; taking it for granted, that there is an equal quantity of ſalts in equal quantities of the ley. But it is a fact, that the ley will be in ſome places much ſtronger than the cloth can with ſafety bear; and hence there is a neceſſity for uſing a degree of caution to avoid miſchief. That general law of ſolution muſt have taken its riſe from particular experiments, and not from reaſoning.

(36.) Whether a ſufficient number of experiments have been tried to aſcertain this point, and to eſtabliſh an undoubted general rule, may very reaſonably indeed be called in queſtion. Dr Home ſays, "When I had diſcovered that lime makes part of the diſſolved ſubſtance, and reflected how long its groſſer parts will continue ſuſpended in water, there appeared ſtronger reaſons for ſuſpecting that this rule, though it may be pretty general, does not take place here; at leaſt it is worth the purſuit of experiment. I weighed at the bleachfield a piece of glaſs in ſome cold ley, after it had been boiled, ſtood for two days, and about the fourth part of it had been uſed. The glaſs weighed 3 drams 4½ grains in the ley, and 3 drams 7½ grains in river water. The ſame glaſs weighed in the ſame ley, when almoſt all uſed, 4 grains leſs than it had done before. This ſhows, that the laſt of the ley contained a third more of the diſſolved body; and, conſequently, was a third ſtronger than the firſt of the ley.

(37.) "As this might, perhaps, be owing to a continuation of the ſolution of the ſalts, I repeated the experiment in a different way. I took from the ſurface ſome of the ley, after the ſalts were diſſolved, and the liquor was become clear. At the ſame time I immerſed a bottle, fixed to a long ſtick, ſo near the bottom, as not to raiſe the aſhes there; and, by pulling out the cork by a ſtring, filled the bottle full of the ley near the bottom. The glaſs weighed in river-water 3 drams 38½ grains; in the ley taken from the ſurface 3 drams 34½ grains; and in the ley taken from the bottom 3 drams 31½ grains. This experiment ſhows, that the ley at the bottom was, in this caſe, ⅛ths ſtronger than the ley at the ſurface.

(38.) "At other times when I tried the ſame experiment, I found no difference in the ſpecific gravity; and therefore, I leave it as a queſtion yet doubtful, though deſerving to be aſcertained by thoſe who have an opportunity of doing it. As the ley ſtands continually on the aſhes, there can be no doubt but what is uſed laſt muſt be ſtronger than the firſt. I would therefore recommend, to general practice, the method uſed by Mr John Chriſtie, who draws off the ley, after it has ſettled into a ſecond receptacle, and leaves the aſhes behind. By this means it never can turn ſtronger; and he has it in his power to mix the top and bottom, which cannot be done ſo long as it ſtands on the aſhes."

(39.) Let us inquire how the ley acts. On this inquiry depends almoſt the whole theory of bleaching, as its action on cloth is, at leaſt in this country, abſolutely neceſſary. It is found by experiment, that one effect leys have on cloth is the diminiſhing of its weight; and that their whitening power is generally in proportion to their weakening power. Hence ariſes a probability, that theſe leys act by removing ſomewhat from the cloth, and that the loſs of this ſubſtance is the cauſe of whiteneſs. This appears ſtill plainer, when the bucking, which laſts from Saturday night to Monday morning, is attended to.

(40.) Chemiſts differ greatly with regard to the operations of theſe ſalts; whether they act by altering the external texture of the cloth, or by ſeparating the mucilaginous parts from the reſt, or by extracting the oil which is laid up in the cells of the plant. The laſt is the general opinion, or rather conjecture, for none of them deſerves any better name; but we may venture to affirm, that it is ſo, without any better title to pre-eminence than the others have. Alkaline ſalts diſſolve oils, therefore that theſe ſalts diſſolve the oil of the cloth, is all the foundation which this theory has to reſt on; too ſlight when unſupported by experiment, to be relied on.

(41.) Dr Home endeavours to ſettle this queſtion by the following experiments and obſervations.—"Wax (ſays he) is whitened by being expoſed to the

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the influence of the ſun, air, and moiſture. A diſcovery of the change made on it by bleaching, may throw a light upon the queſtion. Six drams of wax were ſliced down, expoſed on a S. window, Sept. 10, and watered. That day being clear and warm, bleached the wax more than all the following. It ſeemed to me to whiten quicker, when it had no water thrown on it than when it had. Sept. 15, it was very white, and 1 dram 3 grains lighter. 3½ drams of this bleached wax, and as much of unbleached, taken from the ſame piece, were made into two candles of the ſame length and thickneſs, having cotton wicks of the ſame kind. The bleached candle burnt 1 hour 33 minutes; the unbleached 3 minutes longer. The former ran down 4 times, the latter never. The former had an obſcure light and dull flame; the latter had a clear pleaſant one, of a blue colour at the bottom. The former, when burning, ſeemed to have its wick thicker, and its flame nearer the wax, than the latter. The former was brittle, the latter not.

(42.) "It plainly appears from theſe facts, that the unbleached wax was more inflammable than the bleached; and that the latter had loſt ſo much of an inflammable ſubſtance as it had loſt in weight; and conſequently the ſubſtance loſt in bleaching of wax is the oily part. As I had not an opportunity of repeating the former experiment, I do not look on it as entirely concluſive; for it is poſſible that ſome of the duſt, flying about in the air, might have mixed with the bleached wax, and ſo have rendered it leſs inflammable. Nor do I think the analogical reaſoning from wax to linen without objections. Let us try then if we cannot procure the ſubſtance extracted from the cloth, ſhow it to the eye, and examine its different properties. The proper place to find it, is in a ley already uſed, and fully impregnated with theſe colouring particles.

(43.) "I got in the bleachfield ſome ley, which had been uſed all that day for boiling coarſe linen, which was tolerably white, and had been twice boiled before. There could be no dreſſing remaining in theſe webs. No ſoap had ever touched that parcel; nor do they mix ſoap with the ley uſed for coarſe cloth. Some of this impregnated ley was evaporated, and left a dark-coloured matter behind. This ſubſtance felt oily betwixt the fingers, but would not lather in water as ſoap does. It deflagrated with nitre in fuſion, and afforded a tincture to ſpirit of wine. By this experiment the ſalts ſeem to have an oily inflammable ſubſtance joined with them.

(44.) "Could we ſeparate this colouring ſubſtance from theſe ſalts, and exhibit it by itſelf, ſo that it might become the object of experiment, the queſtion would be ſoon decided. Here chemiſtry lends us its aſſiſtance. Whatever has a ſtronger affinity or attraction to the ſalts with which it is joined, than this ſubſtance has, muſt ſet it at liberty, and make it viſible. Acids attract alkaline ſalt from all other bodies; and therefore will ſerve our purpoſe.

(45.) "Into a quantity of the impregnated ley mentioned in the former experiment, I poured in oil of vitriol. Some bubles of oil aroſe, an inteſtine motion was to be perceived, and the liquor changed its colour from a dark to a turbid white. It curdled like a ſolution of ſoap, and a ſcum ſoon gathered on the ſurface, about half an inch in thickneſs, the deepneſs of the liquor not being above 6 inches. What was below was now pretty clear. A great deal of the ſame matter lay in the bottom; and I obſerved that the ſubſtance on the ſurface was precipitated, and ſhowed itſelf heavier than water, when the particles of air, attached to it in great plenty, were diſpelled by heat. This ſubſtance was in colour darker than the cloth which had been boiled in it.

(46.) "I procured a conſiderable quantity of it by ſkimming it off. When I tried to mix it with water, it always fell to the bottom. When dried by the air, it diminiſhed very much in its ſize, and turned as black as a coal. In this ſtate it deflagrated ſtrongly with nitre in fuſion; gave a ſtrong tincture to ſpirit of wine; and, when put on a red hot iron, burnt very ſlowly, as if it contained a heavy ponderous oil; and left ſome earth behind.

(47.) "From the inflammability of this ſubſtance, its rejecting of water, and diſſolving in ſpirit of wine, we diſcover its oleaginous nature; but from its great ſpecific gravity we ſee that it differs very much from the expreſſed or cellular oil of vegetables; and yet more from their mucilage. That it diſſolves in ſpirit of wine, is not a certain argument of its differing from expreſſed oils; becauſe theſe when joined to alkaline ſalts, and recovered again by acids, become ſoluble in ſpirit of wine. The quantity of earthy powder left behind after burning, ſhows that it contains many of the ſolid particles of the flax. The ſubſtance extracted from cloth by alkaline leys appears then to be a compoſition of a heavy oil, and the ſolid earthy particles of the flax.—In what manner theſe ſalts act, ſo as to diſſolve the oils, and detach the ſolid particles, is uncertain; but we ſee evidently how much cloth muſt be weakened by an improper uſe of them, as we find the ſolid particles themſelves are ſeparated."

(48.) That the ſalts may enter into the body of the cloth along with the water, it is abſolutely neceſſary that the cloth be dry before bucking; for they will not enter in ſuch quantity if it be wet, and, by acting too powerfully on the external threads, may endanger them. The degree of heat is a very material circumſtance in this operation. As the action of the ſalts is always in proportion to the heat, it would appear more proper to begin with a boiling heat, by which a great deal of time and labour might be ſaved. The reaſon why this method is not followed appears to be this: If any vegetable, or vegetable ſubſtance, is to be ſoftened, and to have its juices extracted, it is found more proper to give it gentle degrees of heat at firſt, and to advance gradually, than to plunge it all at once in boiling water. This laſt degree of heat is ſo ſtrong, that, when applied at once to a vegetable, it hardens inſtead of ſoftening its texture. Dried vegetables are immediately put into boiling water by cooks, that theſe ſubſtances may preſerve their green colour, which is only to be done by hindering them from turning too ſoft. Boiling water has the ſame effect on animal ſubſtances; for, if ſalt beef is put into

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into it, the water is kept from getting at the ſalts from the outſide of the beef being hardened.

(49.) If we conſider how much of an oily ſubſtance there is in the cloth, eſpecially at firſt, which will for ſome time keep off the water, and how the twiſting of the threads, and cloſeneſs of the texture, hinders the water from penetrating, we ſhall find that, if boiling water were put on it at once, the cloth might be liable in ſeveral parts, to a dry heat, which would be much worſe than a wet one. That the leys have not acceſs to all parts of the cloth at firſt, appears plainly from this, that when it has lain after the firſt bucking, till all the leys are waſhed out, it is as black, in ſome parts, as when it was ſteeped. This muſt be owing to the diſcharge of the colouring particles, from thoſe places to which the ley has acceſs, and to their remaining where it has not. It ſeems adviſeable, then, in the firſt bucking or two, when the cloth is foul, to uſe the ley conſiderably below the boiling point; that by this ſoaking or maceration, the foulneſs may be entirely diſcharged, and the cloth quite opened for the ſpeedy reception of the boiling ley in the buckings which ſucceed. The leys ſhould likewiſe be weakeſt in the firſt buckings, becauſe then they act only on the more external parts; whereas, when the cloth is more opened, and the field of action is increaſed, the active powers ought to be ſo too. For this reaſon they are at the ſtrongeſt after ſome ſourings.

(50.) As to the management of the coarſe cloth, where *boiling* is ſubſtituted in place of *bucking*, this ſpecies of linen cannot afford the time and labour neceſſary for the latter operation; and therefore they muſt undergo a ſhorter and more active method. As the heat continues longer at the degree of boiling, the leys uſed to the coarſe cloth muſt be weaker, than thoſe uſed to the fine. There is not ſo much danger from heat in the coarſe as in the fine cloth, becauſe the former is of a more open texture, and will allow the ley to penetrate more ſpeedily. In the cloſer kinds, however, the firſt application of the ſalts ſhould be made without a boiling heat being uſed.

SECT. IV. *Of* ALTERNATE WATERING *and* DRYING.

(51.) WHEN the cloth has been bucked, it is carried out to the field, and frequently watered for the firſt ſix hours. For if, during that time, when it is ſtrongly impregnated with ſalts, it is allowed to dry, the ſalts approaching cloſer together, and aſſiſted by a greater degree of heat, increaſing always in proportion to the dryneſs of the cloth, act with greater force, and deſtroy its very texture. After this, dry ſpots are allowed to appear before it gets any water. In this ſtate it profits moſt, as the latter part of the evaporation comes from the more internal parts of the cloth, and will carry away moſt from thoſe parts. The bleaching of the wax, in Dr Home's experiment (§ 41,) confirms this; for it ſeemed to whiten moſt when the laſt particles of water were going off.

(52.) This continual evaporation from the ſurface of the cloth ſhows, that the operation carries off ſomewhat remaining after the former proceſs of bucking. This appears likewiſe from a fact known to all bleachers, that the upper ſide of cloth, where the evaporation is ſtrongeſt, attains to a greater degree of whiteneſs than the under ſide. But it is placed beyond all doubt by the fact, that cloth turns much lighter by being expoſed to the influence of the ſun, air, and winds, even though the ſalts have been waſhed out of it.

(53.) What is the nature then of this ſubſtance? As it appears (§ 40,) that the whitening, in the operation of bucking, depends on the extracting the heavy oil, and ſolid particles of the flax; it is highly probable, that the effects of watering, and expoſure to the ſun, air, and winds, are produced by the evaporation of the ſame ſubſtance, joined to the ſalts, with which compoſite body the cloth is impregnated, when expoſed on the field. That theſe ſalts are in a great meaſure carried off or deſtroyed, appears from the cloth being allowed to dry without any danger, after the evaporation has gone on for ſome time. "If we can ſhow (ſays Dr Home) that oils and ſalts, when joined together, are capable of being exhaled, in this manner by the heat of the atmoſphere, we ſhall reduce this queſtion to a very great degree of certainty. Sept. 10, I expoſed in a SW. window half an oz. of Caſtile ſoap, ſliced down and watered. Sept. 14, when well dried, it weighed about 3 dr. 6 gr. Sept. 22, it weighed 2 dr. 2 gr. Sept. 24, it weighed 1 dr. 50 gr. It then ſeemed a very little whiter; but was much more mucilaginous in its taſte, and had no degree of ſaltneſs which it had before.

(54.) "It appears from this experiment, that ſoap is ſo volatile, when watered, and expoſed to air not very warm, that it loſes above half its weight in 14 days. The ſame muſt happen to the ſaponaceous ſubſtance, formed from the conjunction of the alkaline ſalts, heavy oil, and earthy particles of the flax. The whole deſign, then, of this operation, which by way of pre-eminence gets the name of BLEACHING, is to carry off, by the evaporation of water, whatever has been looſened by the former proceſs of bucking.

(55.) Againſt this doctrine there may be brought two objections, ſeemingly of great weight. It is a general opinion amongſt bleachers, that linen whitens quicker in March and April than in any other months: but as the evaporation cannot be ſo great at that time as when the ſun has a greater heat; hence the whitening of cloth is not in proportion to the degree of evaporation; and therefore the former cannot be owing to the latter. This objection vaniſhes, when we conſider, that the cloth that comes firſt into the bleachfield, in the ſpring, is cloſely attended, having no other to interfere with it for ſome time; and as it is the whiteſt, gets, in the after buckings, the firſt of the ley; while the ſecond parcel is often bucked with what has been uſed to the firſt. Were the fact true, on which the objection is founded, this would be a ſufficient anſwer to the objection.—But it appears not to be true, from an obſervation of Mr John Chriſtie, That cloth laid down in the beginning of June, and finiſhed in September, takes generally leſs work, and undergoes fewer operations, than what is laid down in March and finiſhed in June.

(56.) "The

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(56.) "The other objection is, That cloth dries much faſter in windy weather than in calm ſunſhine; but it does not bleach ſo faſt. This would ſeem to ſhow, that the ſun has ſome particular influence independent on evaporation. In anſwer to this objection, let it be conſidered, that it is not the evaporation from the ſurface, but from the more internal parts, that is of benefit to the cloth. Now, this latter evaporation muſt be much ſtronger in ſunſhine than in windy weather, on account of the heat of the ſun, which will make the cloth more open; while the coldneſs of windy weather muſt ſhut it up, ſo that the evaporation will all be from the ſurface. Clear ſunſhine, with a very little wind, is obſerved to be the beſt weather for bleaching; a convincing proof that this reaſoning is juſt.

(57.) "It would ſeem to follow as a corollary from this reaſoning, that the number of waterings ſhould in general be in proportion to the ſtrength of the ley; for the ſtronger the ley is, the more there is to be evaporated; and the greater the danger, in caſe the cloth ſhould be allowed to dry. But there is an exception to this general rule, ariſing from the conſideration of another circumſtance. It is obſerved, that cloth when brown dries ſooner than when it becomes whiter, ariſing from the cloſeneſs and oilineſs which it then has, not allowing the water a free paſſage. Perhaps that colour may retain a greater degree of heat, and in that way aſſiſt a very little. Cloth, therefore, after the firſt buckings, muſt be more carefully watered than after the laſt.

(58.) "It follows likewiſe from this reaſoning, that the ſoil of the bleach-field ſhould be gravelly or ſandy, that the water may paſs quickly through it, and that the heat may be increaſed by the reflection of the ſoil, for the ſucceſs of this operation depends on the mutual action of heat and evaporation. It is likewiſe neceſſary that the water ſhould be light, ſoft, and free from mud or dirt, which not being able to riſe along with the water, muſt remain behind. When there is much of this, it becomes neceſſary to rinſe the cloth in water, and then give it a milling, to take out the dirt elſe it would be fixed in the cloth by the following bucking, as it is not ſoluble by the ley.

(59.) "This operation has more attributed to it by the bleachers than it can juſtly claim. The cloth appears, to the eye, to whiten under theſe alternate waterings and dryings; and theſe naturally get the honour of it, when it more properly belongs to the former operation. Here lies the fallacy. Alkaline ſalts give a very high colour to the decoctions or infuſion of vegetables. This is probably owing to the ſolution of the oleaginous colouring particles of the plant; which particles, being opened and ſeparated by the ſalts, occupy a greater ſpace, and give a deep colour to the liquor. The cloth participates of the liquor and colour. Hence bleachers always judge of the goodneſs of the bucking by the deepneſs of its colour. This rule, in general, is good. I obſerve that in thoſe buckings which continue from the Saturday night to the Monday morning, the cloth has always the deepeſt colour. When that cloth has been expoſed ſome hours to the influence of the air, theſe colouring particles, which are but looſely attached to it, are evaporated, and the linen appears of a brighter colour. This operation does no more than complete what the former had almoſt finiſhed. If its own merit were thoroughly known, there would be no occaſion to attribute that of another operation to it. Thread, and open cloaths, ſuch as diaper, may be reduced to a great degree of whiteneſs, after one bucking by it alone. No cloth, as would appear, can attain to a bright whiteneſs without it.

(60.) "Since the only advantage of watering is the removal of the ſalts, and what they have diſſolved, might we not effectuate this by ſome cheaper and more certain method? for it occupies many hands; and muſt depend altogether on the uncertainty of the weather; ſo that in the beginning of the ſeaſon, the bleacher is often obliged to repeat his buckings without bleaching. We might take out the alkaline ſalts by acids; but then the other ſubſtance would be left alone in the cloth, nor would any waſhing be able to remove it. Mill-waſhing appears a more probable method of taking out both ſalts and oils; and it would ſeem that this might in a great meaſure ſupply the place of watering; but upon trial it does not ſucceed. Two parcels of linen were managed equally in every other reſpect, except in this, that one was watered, and expoſed to the influence of the air, and the other was only mill-waſhed. This method was followed until they were fit for ſouring. The cloth which had been mill-waſhed had a remarkable green colour, and did not recover the bright colour of the pieces managed in the common way, until it had been treated like them for a fortnight. The green colour was certainly owing to a precipitation of the ſulphureous particles, with which the ley is impregnated, upon the ſurface of the cloth; owing to the ſalts being waſhed off more ſpeedily than the ſulphur, to which they are united in the ley. The attachment betwixt theſe two bodies we know is very looſe, and the ſeparation eaſily made. Evaporation then alone is ſufficient to carry off theſe ſulphureous particles."

SECT. V. *Of* SOURING.

(61.) THAT alkaline ſalts are convertible, by different methods, into abſorbent earths, is a fact well known in chemiſtry. Frequent ſolution in water and evaporation of it again, is one of theſe. The tranſmutation then of theſe ſalts, which are not volatiliſed or waſhed away, muſt be continually going on in the cloth under theſe alternate waterings and dryings of the former proceſs: not much indeed after the firſt two or three buckings; becauſe the ſalts, not having entered deep into the cloth, are eaſily waſhed off, or evaporated. But when they penetrate into the very compoſition of the cloth and minuteſt fibres, of which the firſt veſſels are made, they have great difficulty of eſcaping again, and muſt be more ſubject to this tranſmutation. But if we conſider the bleaching aſhes as a compoſition of lime and alkaline ſalts, we muſt diſcover a freſh fund for the depoſition of this abſorbent earth. The common cauſtic, a compoſition of this very kind, is ſoon converted if expoſed to the open air, into a harmleſs earthy kind of powder.

(62.) Fre-

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(62.) Frequent buckings and bleachings load cloth with this ſubſtance. It becomes then neceſſary to take it out. No waſhing can do that, becauſe earth is not ſoluble in water. Nothing but acids can remove it. Theſe are attracted by the abſorbent earth, join themſelves to it, and compoſe a kind of neutral imperfect ſalt, which is ſoluble in water, and therefore eaſily waſhed out of the cloth. The acid liquors commonly uſed, are butter-milk, which is reckoned the beſt, ſour milk, infuſion of bran, rye-meal, &c. kept for ſome days till they ſour. Sour whey is thought to give the cloth a yellow tinge.

(63.) Before the linen is put in the ſour, it ſhould be dried, that the acid particles may penetrate along with the watery, through the whole. A few hours after it has been there, air-bubbles ariſe, the liquor ſwells, and a thick ſcum is formed; manifeſt ſigns of a fermentation. The following experiment, ſays Dr Home, ſhows the degree of heat which attends it. "May 25, I put a thermometer of Fahrenheit's into ſome butter milk, of which the bleachers were compoſing their ſours, and which ſtood at a vat adjoining to another, where the milk was the ſame, and the ſouring proceſs had gone on for two days. After the thermometer had been 20 minutes in the butter milk, the mercury ſtood at 64 degrees. In the louring vat it roſe to 68 degrees. An increaſe of four degrees ſhows a pretty briſk inteſtine motion.

(64.) "To what are all theſe effects owing? To the acetous fermentation going on in thoſe vegetable liquors, whoſe acids, extricating themſelves, produce heat, inteſtine motion, and air-bubbles. As the change is ſlow, the proceſs takes five or ſix days before it is finiſhed. During this time the acid particles are continually uniting themſelves to the abſorbent earth in the cloth. That this fermentation goes on in the liquor alone, appears from this conſideration, that the ſame effects, *viz.* air-bubbles, and ſcum, are to be ſeen in the butter milk alone. The only effect then it has is, by the ſmall degree of heat, and inteſtine motion, which attend it, to aſſiſt the junction of the acid and abſorbent particles. We ſhall preſently ſee that this proceſs may be carried on to as great advantage, without any fermentation; and therefore it appears not abſolutely neceſſary.

(65.) "When theſe abſorbent particles are fully ſaturated, the remaining acids may unite with, and have ſome ſmall effect in extracting the colouring particles. This appears from the two following experiments. Sept. 30, a piece of cloth which had been ſteeped, weighing 41½ gr. was put into a half pound of butter milk, whigged, and well ſoured, by a mixture of water, and by boiling. Dec. 24, when taken out, and waſhed in water, it appeared a very little whiter. The mineral acids, as will appear afterwards, whiten cloth, even though they are very much diluted.

(66.) "Juſt before the acetous fermentation is finiſhed, the cloth ſhould be taken out; otherwiſe the ſcum will fall down and lodge in the cloth, and the putrefaction which then begins will weaken it. This appears from the following experiment. Sept. 16, a piece of cloth weighing 42 gr. was laid in butter milk unwhigged. Novem. 15, the milk had a putrefied ſmell. The cloth was a little whiter, but very tender; and weighed, when well waſhed in warm water, and dried, 40 gr."

(67.) Sours made of bran, rye-meal, &c. ought to be prepared before uſe to ſave time. Beſides, when the water is poured upon the cloth, the linen is not in a better ſituation than if it had been taken up wet from the field; and thus the acid particles cannot penetrate ſo deep. Again, this method of mixing the bran with the cloth, may be attended with ſtill worſe conſequences. All vegetable ſubſtances, when much preſſed, fall into the putreſcent, and not the acetous fermentation. This often happens to the bran preſſed betwixt the different layers of the linen, which muſt weaken the cloth. Hence, all ſours ſhould be prepared before the cloth is ſteeped in them; and none of the bran or meal ſhould be mixed with the cloth.

(68.) The ſours are uſed ſtrongeſt at firſt, and gradually weakened till the cloth hath attained to its whiteneſs. In the firſt ſourings, there is more of the earthy matter in the cloth, from the many buckings it has undergone, than there can be afterwards. As the quantity of this matter decreaſes, ſo ſhould the ſtrength of the ſour. There is not, however, the leaſt danger, at any time, from too ſtrong a ſour. What is moſt wanted in this operation is a more expeditious and cheap method of obtaining the ſame end. As it takes five or ſix days, it retards the whitening of the cloth conſiderably; and as bleachers are obliged to ſend for milk to a great diſtance, it becomes very dear. This laſt conſideration makes them keep it ſo long, that, when uſed, it can have no good effect; perhaps it may have a bad one.

(69.) One conſideration may lead us to ſhorten the time. The ſouring proceſs is ſooner finiſhed in warm than in cold weather. Heat quickens the fermentation, by aiding the inteſtine motion. The vats therefore ſhould not be buried in the ground, as they always are, and which keeps them cold: there ſhould be pipes along the wall of the room, to give it that degree of heat which, on trial, anſwers beſt. There are few days in ſummer ſo hot as is neceſſary; and the beginning and end of the ſeaſon are by much too cold. That this is no ideal ſcheme, the following fact proves. There are two vats in Salton bleachfield, adjoining to a partition wall, at the back of which there is a kitchen fire. In theſe vats the ſouring proceſs is finiſhed in three days, whereas it laſts five or ſix days in thoſe that are placed round the ſame room.

(70.) This improvement, though it ſhortens the time of ſouring a very little, yet is no remedy againſt the ſcarcity and dearneſs of milk ſours. Such a liquor as would ſerve our purpoſe, muſt be found either among the vegetable acids, which have no farther fermentation to undergo, or among the mineral acids. The former are a large claſs, and contain within themſelves many different ſpecies; ſuch as the acid juice of ſeveral plants, vinegars made of fermented liquors, and acid ſalts, called *tartars*. But there is one objection againſt theſe vegetable acids: they all contain, along with the acid, a great quantity of oily matter,

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ter, which would not fail to diſcolour the cloth. Beſides, the demand of the bleachfields would raiſe their price too high. But the mineral acids have neither of theſe objections. They are exceedingly cheap, and contain no oil.

(71.) "I will freely own (ſays Dr Home,) that at firſt I had no great opinion of ſucceſs from the mineral acids, from two reaſons; their want of all fermentation, which I then looked on as neceſſary; and their extreme corroſiveneſs. But the experience of two different ſummers, in two different bleachfields, has convinced me that they will anſwer all the purpoſes of the milk and bran ſours; nay, in ſome reſpects be much preferable to them. I have ſeen many pieces of fine cloth, which had no other ſours but thoſe of vitriol, and were as white and ſtrong as thoſe bleached in the common way. I have cut ſeveral webs through the middle, and bleached one half with milk and the other with vitriol; gave both the ſame number of operations, and the latter were as white and ſtrong as the former."

(72.) The following is the method in which it has been hitherto uſed: The proportion of the oil of vitriol to the water with which it is diluted, is half an ounce, or at moſt three quarters, to a gallon of water. As the milk ſours are diminiſhed in ſtrength, ſo ought the vitriol ſours. The whole quantity of the oil of vitriol to be uſed, may be firſt mixed with a ſmall quantity of water, then added to the whole quantity of water, and well mixed together. The water ſhould be milk warm, by which means the acid particles will penetrate farther, and operate ſooner. The cloth ſhould then be put dry into the liquor; as this ſour performs its taſk much ſooner than that compoſed of milk and bran, ſome, in making the trial, have been uſed to lay the milk ſours 24 hours before the vitriol. Five hours will do as much with this ſour as five hours with the common ſort. But the cloth can receive no harm by allowing it to remain for ſome days in the ſour; but rather an advantage. The cloth is then taken out, well rinſed, and mill-waſhed in the ordinary way.

(73.) While the cloth lies in this ſour, the liquor is leſs acid the ſecond day than the firſt, leſs the third than the ſecond, and ſo diminiſhes by degrees. At firſt it is clear, but by degrees a mucilaginous ſubſtance is obſerved to float in it when put into a glaſs. This foulneſs increaſes every day. This ſubſtance extracted by the acid is the ſame with what is extracted by the alkaline ſalts; and blunts the acidity of the former, as it does the alkaleſcency of the latter. Hence the liquor loſes by degrees its acidity. But as the acid ſalts do not unite ſo equally with oily ſubſtances as the alkaline, the liquor is not ſo uniformly tinged in the former as in the latter caſe, and the mucous ſubſtance preſents itſelf floating in it.

(74.) In the firſt ſouring, which is the ſtrongeſt, the liquor, which was a pretty ſtrong acid before the cloth was put in, immediately afterwards becomes quite vapid; a proof how very ſoon it performs its taſk. But in the following operations, as the linen advances in whiteneſs, the acidity continues much longer; ſo that in the laſt operations the liquor loſes very little of its acidity. This happens although the firſt buckings after the firſt ſourings are increaſed in ſtrength, while the ſours are diminiſhed. There are two cauſes for this. The texture of the cloth is now ſo opened, that although the leys are ſtrong, the alkaline ſalts and abſorbent earth are eaſily waſhed out; and the oily particles are in a great meaſure removed which help to blunt the acidity of the liquor.

(75.) There are two objections, however, againſt the uſe of vitriolic ſours. One is, that the proceſs of touring with milk is performed by a fermentation; and as there is no fermentation in the vitriol ſours, they cannot ſerve the purpoſe ſo well: the other, that they may hurt the texture of the cloth. The anſwer to the former objection is very ſhort; that the vitriol ſours operate ſucceſsfully without a fermentation, as experience ſhews; and therefore in them a fermentation is unneceſſary. As to the latter objection, that oil of vitriol being a very corroſive body, will hurt the cloth; that will vaniſh likewiſe, when it is conſidered how much the vitriol is diluted with water, that the liquor is not ſtronger than vinegar, and that it may be ſafely taken into the human body. Indeed that it may be ſafely uſed much ſtronger than what is neceſſary in the bleachfield, appears from the following experiment with regard to the ſtamping of linen.

(76.) After the linen is boiled in a ley of aſhes, it is bleached for ſome time; after which, to make it receive the colour, it is ſteeped in a ſour of water and oil of vitriol, about 15 times ſtronger than that made uſe of in the bleachfield; for to 100 gallons water are added 2½ of oil of vitriol. Into this quantity of liquor, made ſo warm as the hand can juſt be held in it, is put 7 pieces, of 28 yards each. The linen remains in it about two hours, and comes out remarkably whiter. The fine cloth often undergoes this operation twice; nor is there any danger if the oil of vitriol is well mixed with the water. But if the two are not well mixed together, and the vitriolic acid remains in ſome parts undiluted, the cloth will be corroded.

(77.) The vitriolic ſours have various advantages over thoſe of milk. The latter is full of oily particles, ſome of which muſt remain in the cloth; but the caſe is worſe when the ſcum is allowed to precipitate upon the cloth. The former is liable to neither of theſe objections. The common ſours haſten very faſt to corruption; and if, for want of proper care, they ever arrive at that ſtate, muſt damage the cloth very much. As the milk is kept very long, it is often putrid before it is uſed; and, without acting as a ſour, has conſiderable bad effects, while the vitriol ſours are not ſubject to putrefaction at all. Milk ſours are very dear, and often difficult to be got; thoſe of vitriol are cheap, and may be eaſily procured at any time. The milk takes 5 days to perform its taſk: but the vitriol ſours do it in as many hours; nay, perhaps in as many minutes. Their junction with the abſorbent particles in the cloth muſt be immediate, whenever theſe acid particles enter with the water.

(78.) An unanſwerable proof, that the fact is ſo, ariſes from the circumſtances which happen when the cloth is firſt ſteeped in the vitriol ſour; the cloth has no ſooner imbibed the acid liquor, than it loſes all acidity, and becomes immediately vapid. This

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effect of vitriol four muſt be of great advantage in the bleachfield, as the bleachers are at preſent hindered from enjoying the ſeaſon by the tedioufneſs of the fouring proceſs. The whole round of operations takes 7 days, to anſwer which they muſt have 7 parcels, which are often mixing together, and cauſing miſtakes. As 3 days at moſt will be ſufficient for all the operations when vitriol fours are uſed, there needs be no more than 2 parcels. The cloth will be kept a ſhorter time in the bleaching, and arrive ſooner at market.

(79.) Vitriol has alſo another advantage in its power of whitening cloth. Even in this diluted ſtate, its whitening power is very conſiderable. We have already ſeen, that it removes the ſame colouring particles which the alkaline leys do. What then remains of it, after the alkaline and abſorbent particles are neutralized in the cloth, muſt act on theſe colouring particles, and help to whiten the cloth. That this is really the caſe, appears from the following fact. A bleacher being obliged to chooſe 20 of the whiteſt pieces out of 100, he took 20 of the pieces which were bleached with vitriolic acid. On the whole, from both reaſon and experience it appears, that it muſt be for the advantage of our linen manufacturers to uſe vitriolic inſtead of milk fours.

SECT. VI. *Of* WASHING, HAND-RUBBING, RUBBING BOARDS, STARCHING, *&c.*

(80.) As ſoon as the cloth comes from the fouring, it ſhould be well waſhed in the waſhing-mill, to take off all the acid particles which adhere to its ſurface. All acids decompoſe ſoap, by ſeparating alkaline ſalts and oily parts from each other. Were this to happen on the ſurface of the cloth, the oil would remain; nor would the waſhing-mill afterwards be able to diveſt it of the oily ſubſtance. As the liquors, which are generally employed for fouring, are impregnated with oily particles, many of theſe muſt lodge in the cloth, and remain, notwithſtanding the preceding milling. It is probable that all the heavy oils are not evaporated by bleaching. Hence it is neceſſary to apply ſoap and warm water, which unite with, diſſolve, and carry them off. It is obſerved, that if the cloth, when it is pretty white, gets too much ſoap, the following bleaching is apt to make it yellow; on that account the ſoap ſhould be wrung out.

(81.) It has been doubted, whether it be better to uſe hard or ſoft ſoap for the cloth. Moſt bleachers agree, that hard ſoap is apt to leave a yellowneſs in the cloth, and it is ſaid, that it is diſuſed in Holland on that account. As there muſt be a conſiderable quantity of ſea-ſalt in the hard, which is not in the ſoft ſoap, and as this ſalt appears prejudicial to cloth, the ſoft ſoap ought certainly to be preferred.

(82.) In this operation, the management of the COARSE cloth is very different from that of the FINE. Inſtead of being rubbed with hands, which would be too expenſive, it is laid on a table, run over with ſoap, and then put between two rubbing boards, which have ridges or grooves from one ſide to another, like teeth. Theſe boards have ſmall edges to keep in the ſoap and water, which ſaves the cloth. They are moved either by hand or by a water-wheel, which is more equal and cheap. The cloth is either drawn by degrees through the boards, by men; or, which is better, the ſame wheel moves two rollers, with ridge and groove, ſo that the former enters the latter, and by a gentle motion round their own axis, the cloth is gradually pulled through the boards. This mill was invented in Ireland above 40 years ago. The Iriſh bleachers uſe it for their fine as well as coarſe cloths. Theſe rubbing boards were diſcharged ſome years ago in Ireland, by the truſtees for the manufactures of that country, being convinced from long experience of their bad effects. But as proper care was not taken to inſtruct the bleachers by degrees in a ſafer method, they continued in the old, made a party, and kept poſſeſſion of the rubbing boards. There were conſiderable improvements made in them in this country; ſuch as the addition of the ledges, to keep the cloth moiſt; and of the rollers, which pull the cloth more gradually than men's hands. Theſe improvements were firſt made in SALTON bleachfield.

(83.) Conſiderable objections have been urged, however, againſt theſe rubbing boards. By rubbing on ſo unequal a ſurface, the fibrous part of the cloth is worn, by which it is much weakened. Theſe boards alſo give the cloth a cottony ſurface, ſo that it does not long keep clean. They alſo flatten the threads, and take away all that roundneſs and firmneſs, which is the diſtinguiſhing property of cloth bleached in the Dutch method. For theſe reaſons they muſt be very prejudicial to *fine* cloth, and ſhould never be uſed in bleaching it. As they ſeem to be in ſome meaſure neceſſary to leſſen the expence of bleaching *coarſe* linen, they ought never to be uſed above twice, or thrice at moſt. They might be rendered much more ſafe, by lining their inſides with ſome ſoft claſtic ſubſtance, that will not wear the cloth ſo much as the wooden teeth do. Short hair has been tried in one inſtance, and is found to anſwer very well.

(84.) When the coarſe cloth has undergone a rubbing, it ſhould be immediately milled for an hour, and warm water poured now and then on it to make it lather. This milling has very good effects; for it clears away all the dirt which the rubbing boards have looſened, and which, at the next boiling, would have diſcoloured the cloth; and beſides, it makes the cloth leſs cottony, and more firm, than when whitened by rubbing only.

(85.) Of the laſt operation, STARCHING and BLUEING, we need ſay nothing in this place, as there is nothing peculiarly different in the proceſs, from that to which landry women are accuſtomed. It often happens that the cloth, when expoſed to the weather to be dried after this operation, gets rain, which undoes all again, and puts the bleacher to a new expence. To remedy this inconvenience, ſome bleachers very properly employ a dry-houſe, where the cloth may be dried after this operation, in any kind of weather.

SECT. VII. *Of* BLEACHING *with* LIME.

(86.) THE proceſs of bleaching, it is believed, may be very ſafely undertaken with the aſſiſtance of LIME. Dr Home has found, by repeated trials, that

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that alkaline salts added to lime, diminish its power of weakening and corroding cloth, in proportion to the quantity of the salts. The composition, as it is not so dangerous as lime alone, so it is not so expeditious in whitening. When equal parts of each are used, the whitening power is strong, and the weakening power not very considerable; so that they might be used with safety to bleach cloth, in the proportion of one part of lime to four of pure alkaline salts. This is agreeable to an observation made by all bleachers, That the bleaching salts, when mixed together, operate safer and better, than when used separately. For the corrosive power of the Muscovy, Marcost, and Cashub ashes, is corrected by the pearl ashes, and the whitening quality of the latter is increased by that of the former.

(87.) No substance is more caustic when applied to animal bodies, than alkaline salts and lime joined together, especially when fused in the fire. But lime alone, or lime-water will preserve animal matter in a sound state. It appears then surprising, that salts and lime should be found so little destructive of linen cloth, when lime, or lime-water alone destroys it so remarkably. But chemistry affords many facts equally unaccountable; and that this is a fact, is evident from many experiments. It has been practised with success and safety, by a bleacher, who gives the following account of his method of employing lime.

(88.) "First, (says he) I steep the cloth in warm water for 24 hours; then clean it in a washing mill, of all the dressing, or *sowen*, as the vulgar term it. Afterwards I buck cloth with cow-dung and water, and bleach it with this for 3 days; then clean it again, and boil it with a ley made of Cashub ashes. A pound to each piece of 18 or 20 yards is sufficient. This I do twice, as no lime ought to be given to cloth before it is a full third whitened; as it by no means advances the whitening of the cloth, but, on the contrary, protracts it: for, instead of loosening the oil and dirt in the cloth, when brown, it rather fixes them; just as when fine cloth is bucked with over-warm leys in the first buckings. Lime is by no means fit for discharging the oil in the cloth, but for cleaning it of the dead part, commonly called *sprat*.

(89.) "The cloth, being cleaned, is laid upon a dreeper. It must not be drier before bucking with lime, otherwise it will take in more than can be got out again before the next application: for as I have observed already, that lime is only fit for discharging the dead part, bucking thus wet makes it rest on the outside of the cloth. I take a lippy of the finest and richest powdered lime that can be got, of the brightest white colour, as poor lime does more hurt than good, to 30 pieces of the above length; and make a cold ley of it, by stirring and pouring water off the lime, until all be dissolved but the dross, which is thrown away: then I add a little soap, which makes the ley have the nearest resemblance to milk that breaks in boiling, of any thing I can think of: for this soap blunts the hotness of the lime. Then I take the cloth and dip it in the lime-ley, and that moment out again, and lay it on a dreeper until it be bucked: then put it on the field, watering it carefully; for if allowed to dry, it is much damaged. This is done always in the morning; as it cannot be done at night, in regard of the hot quality of the lime, which soon heats the cloth and tenders it. If a hot sun shine follows, it has great effect; for lime is just like all other materials for bleaching, that have more or less effect, according as the weather is good or bad.

(90.) "I take it up the 2d day after bucking, and give it a little milling, or hand-rubbing, or bittling, commonly called *knocking*; and lay it on the field again, watering it carefully as before. The effect is more visible the 2d than the first day. As all cloth when limed should have a great deal of work, otherwise more than half the effect is lost; and not only that, but a great deal of labour and pains is requisite to take the lime out of the cloth again; it must never be exposed on the Sabbath day, but carefully kept wet always while used in this way. Thus bucking for 3 or 4 times at most, is sufficient for any cloth except that made of flax pulled either over green, or which grows in a droughty season, or perhaps not so well heckled as it should be. This sort occasions great trouble and expence to the bleacher. But the most effectual and expeditious way I ever found for this kind was, after boiling, to take a little of the warm ley, and mix a very small quantity of lime with it, and draw the cloth through that as hot as possible, and put it on the field directly, watering it carefully. This will clean it of the sprat surprisingly. Then I boil it with pearl ashes, and give it the last boil with soap.

(91.) "There are innumerable mistakes in the use of lime committed by the vulgar, who are ignorant of its quality and effects. They know only this in general, that it is a thing which whitens cloth cheap, and is easy purchased; therefore they will use it. Some of them begin whitening of their cloth with it, which I have already observed to be wrong, and given reasons for it, and continue it until the cloth is bleached; give it a boil or two at most, and then wash it up while the gross body of the lime is in the substance of the cloth. This makes limed cloth easily distinguishable from unlimed, as the former has a yellowish colour, and is full of a powder. Besides, as lime is of a very hot corroding nature, it must by degrees weaken the cloth. The bad effects of this substance do not end here. When the cloth is put on board, it contracts a dampness, which not only makes it yellow, and lose any thing of colour it has, but directly rots it. And although it should escape this, which it is possible it may, by a quick and speedy passage; yet whenever it is put in any warehouse, it will meet with moisture there, especially if the winter season should come on before it is disposed or made use of. These I take to be the principal reasons for so much complaint in bleaching with this material."

(92.) It is evident, the whole art and safety in using lime, according to this method, depends on the junction of the alkaline salts, during the bucking, to the particles of lime which were on the surface of the cloth. As bleaching depends on the extraction of a certain quantity of phlogistic matter from the cloth, it is natural to suppose that it might be accelerated by rendering the alkali very caustic. Thus the salt would be entirely

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freed from the fixed air, with which in the usual experiments of chemistry it appears to have a greater affinity than with oil; for soap may be partially decomposed by fixed air, nor can it be prepared without an exceedingly caustic alkaline ley.

(93.) In this light the matter has appeared to some very eminent chemists; and Dr BLACK thought it of importance sufficient to publish printed directions to the practical bleachers how to render their alkali sufficiently caustic with lime, and at the same time recover it from the chalky residuum with as little loss as possible. This method has accordingly been tried; but does not altogether answer the sanguine expectations at first raised by the proposal. In the large way of operating, fixed alkali quits the fixed air to unite with the oily or other matter to be extracted from the cloth. The only advantage therefore to be gained by Dr Black's improvement is, that the action of the alkali is thus quickened, and some quantity of fuel saved; but this is not, by the bleachers, reckoned an equivalent to the trouble of rendering the alkali caustic, unless in places where fuel is very scarce.

PART II.

OF THE NEW METHOD OF BLEACHING.

INTRODUCTION.

(94.) THE use of ACIDS, in bleaching, was formerly in a great measure unaccounted for; but from the late discoveries concerning the use of dephlogisticated spirit of salt in this art, it appears probable that they act by means of the dephlogisticated air they contain. This, however, is not always the case; for silk is rendered yellow by the action of dephlogisticated air, though rendered white by the action of the volatile sulphureous acid, which undoubtedly contains a portion of this kind of air, though much less than the concentrated vitriolic acid. The nitrous acid, which contains a great quantity of dephlogisticated air, likewise communicates a yellow colour to silk; and indeed seems very much inclined to produce this colour upon all the substances it touches. At any rate, its price would be a sufficient objection against its use in bleaching.

(95.) The marine acid, more generally known by the name of *spirit of salt*, in its common state, is said by M. Berthollet to be used with success by some bleachers in France, instead of the vitriolic; but such experiments as have been made upon it in this country have not answered the purpose. This new method of bleaching is founded upon the remarkable property, which that acid when dephlogisticated possesses, of destroying vegetable colours; and various attempts have been made to introduce it into practice, though in this country the difficulties or disadvantages attending it have prevented it from coming into general use, so that many of our bleachers obstinately persevere in the old method. M. Scheele was the inventor of this kind of acid; but M. Barthollet seems to have been the first who attempted to apply it to the operation of bleaching.—From a treatise on the new method of bleaching, which has been lately published in Edinburgh, we have collected the following particulars.

SECT. I. ACCOUNT *of* M. BERTHOLLET'S METHOD *of* BLEACHING.

(96.) M. BERTHOLLET having procured the dephlogisticated marine acid, in as strong and concentrated a state as he could, immersed into it thread and cloth; which by that means were considerably whitened. In a short time the liquor seemed to lose its strength; upon which it was poured off, and more put in its place; and so on until the substance immersed became perfectly white. Thus, however, the process was not only very expensive, but the stuff was considerably injured; sometimes even losing its cohesion altogether, so that there was a necessity for trying some other method.

(97.) II. Using a diluted spirit, he succeeded perfectly in rendering the cloths completely white; but by keeping them for some time, or exposing them for a little to the action of an alkaline ley, they became again brown or yellow.

(98.) III. On considering the process of bleaching in the common method, he found that the action of the sun and air are subservient to bleaching only as they prepare the colouring particles for being dissolved and separated by alkaline lixivia. To investigate this subject, he examined the nature of the dews, both such as are precipitated from the atmosphere and those which transpire from vegetables. Both these were found so strongly impregnated with dephlogisticated air, that they destroyed the colour of paper when faintly tinged with turnsole. Hence he observes, that it is by no means improbable, that the ancient prejudices concerning May-dews might have arisen from some observations analogous to this; more especially as in that month the transpiration of plants is extremely copious.

(99.) IV. By imitating with the dephlogisticated marine acid and alkaline ley the common process of bleaching, he succeeded in making a perfect and permanent white. For this purpose an alkaline lixivium was employed alternately with the dephlogisticated marine acid; the latter being no longer used in a concentrated state. Thus he avoided both the inconvenience arising from the suffocating smell of the liquid, and that of its destroying the texture of the stuff immersed in it.

(100.) V. The cloth is prepared for bleaching in this manner; by steeping it 24 hours in water, to extract the dressing it receives from the weaver: a little old ley, which has already lost the greatest part of its strength in other processes, may be used with advantage. It is next to be exposed once or twice to the action of some good fresh alkaline ley; to separate, by means of this cheaper liquid, all the colouring matter which it can extract, and thereby save the dephlogisticated acid.

(101.) VI. The stuff must next be carefully washed with water, to separate any remains of the ley which might adhere to it, and weaken the action of the liquor. It is then to be disposed of in wooden troughs, so that the dephlogisticated acid may pass freely through every part of it; to allow which, it must lie quite loose, without being tightened or stretched in any part. All these troughs

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Fig. 1.

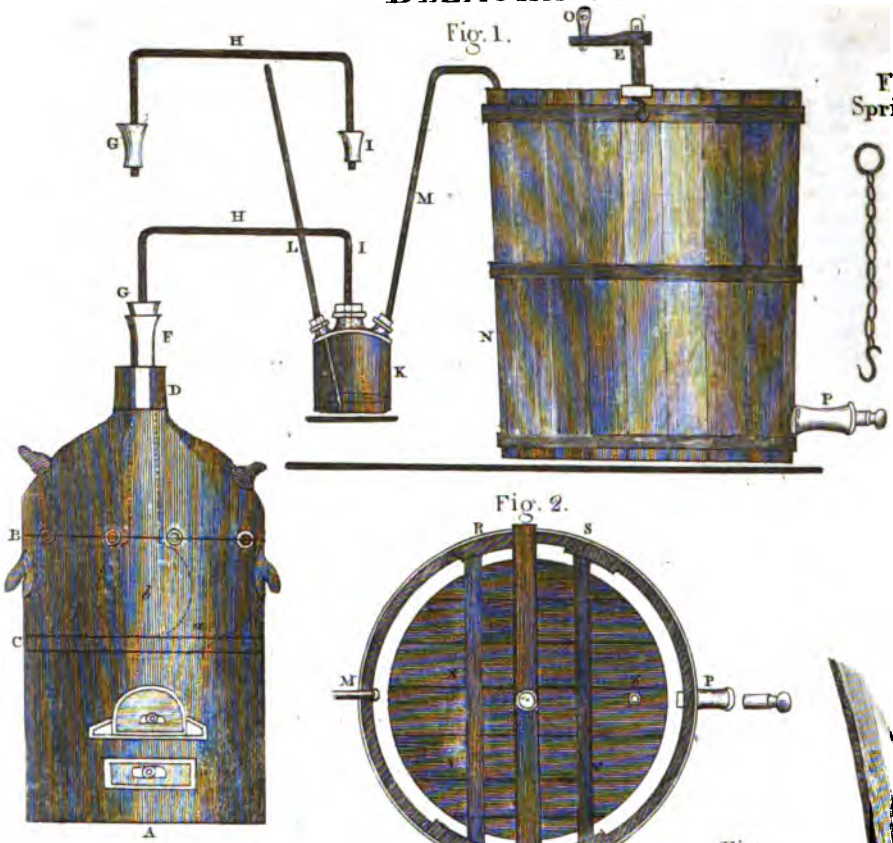


Fig. 5.
Spring Block.

Fig. 2.

Fig.

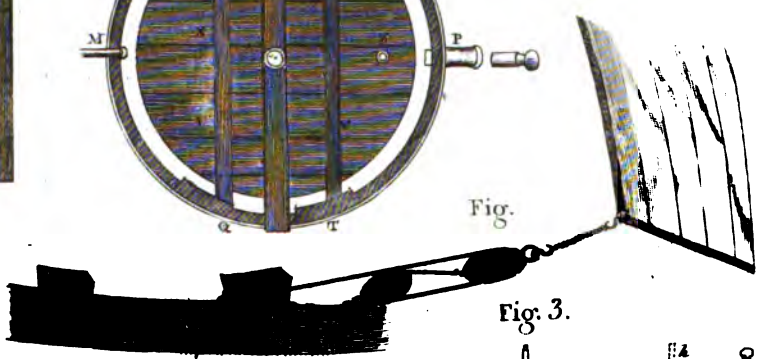
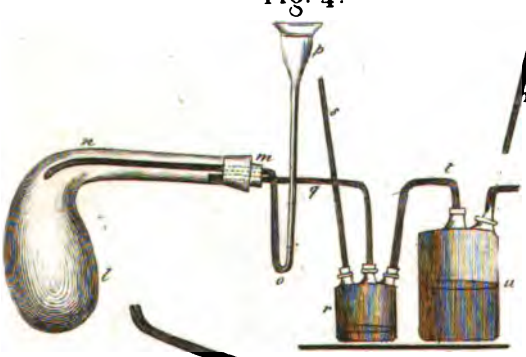


Fig. 3.

Fig. 4.



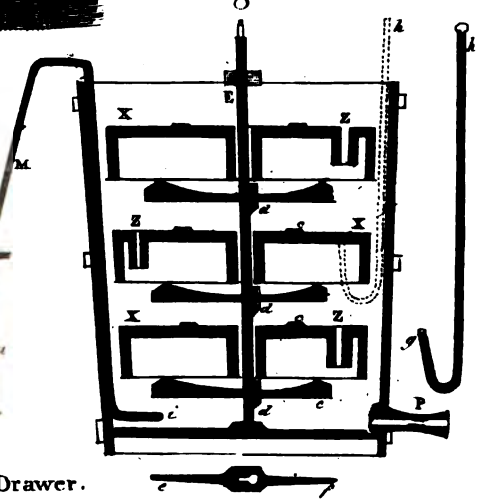


Fig.
Boil Drawer.

Engraved for Rees's Cyclopaedia Philadelphia.

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troughs ought to be conſtructed entirely of wood without any iron, as that would eaſily be corroded and ſtain the cloth.

(102.) VII. The firſt immerſion in the dephlogiſticated acid is to continue 3 hours; after which the cloth is to be removed, and the liquor wrung out of it. It muſt then be waſhed a ſecond time with alkaline ley; which being alſo waſhed out, it is to be again immerſed in dephlogiſticated acid.

(103.) VIII. The ſecond immerſion in the acid is to continue only about half an hour; after which it is to be taken out and wrung as before. The ſame liquor may ſerve for ſeveral immerſions; only when it appears to be much exhauſted, it is to be reſtored by an addition of freſh liquor.

(104.) IX. After the cloth ſeems to be ſufficiently whitened, excepting only ſome few black threads and the ſelvages, it is to be filled with black ſoap, and ſtrongly rubbed for ſome time: after which it is to be again waſhed in alkaline ley, and receive another immerſion in the acid liquor.

(105.) X. It has not yet been determined what number of immerſions in the acid are neceſſary to whiten linen cloth, though our author ſuppoſes from 6 to 8 to be ſufficient for the purpoſe.

SECT. II. METHOD *of* PREPARING *the* DEPHLOGISTICATED MARINE ACID; *with a* DESCRIPTION *of the* APPARATUS.

(106.) FOR preparing the dephlogiſticated acid, M. Berthollet recommends ſix ounces of black manganeſe finely powdered, 16 ounces of ſea-ſalt likewiſe in powder, and 12 ounces of concentrated vitriolic acid to be diluted with 8 ounces of water: but the quantity of this laſt muſt be varied according to the ſtrength of the acid and the dryneſs of the ſalt. If the manganeſe is impure, its quantity is to be augmented in proportion to the ſuppoſed impurity; and it is known whether a ſufficient quantity has been employed, by a portion remaining behind and retaining its black colour. When the materials are prepared, the manganeſe and common ſalt, both reduced to fine powder, muſt be mixed accurately together, and put into the diſtilling veſſel placed in a ſand-bath; the vitriolic acid, diluted with water, and allowed to cool, is then to be poured upon them, and the junctures exactly luted. The receiver may be of wood covered in the inſide with wax, and of a very large ſize; for the gas is abſorbed in proportion to the ſurface of the water it acts upon.

(107.) M. BERTHOLLET deſcribes an apparatus, rather complicated, but of which we have given a repreſentation in *Plate* XXXIX. *Fig.* 1. is an elevation of the apparatus, in which is repreſented a reverberatory furnace A B C D, having, on a line with B, many ſmall openings in its circumference, to ſerve as chimneys; within which, upon a ſand-bath *a*, is placed a matraſs *b*, the neck of which ſtands out above the furnace, running through the opening D, which is to be cloſed with clay. The mouth F, of the neck of the matraſs, is cloſed by a cork G, through the middle of which paſſes a tube H, which forms a communication between the inſide of the matraſs *b*, and the intermediate veſſel K, where it alſo paſſes through a cork I, which cloſes one of the three openings of that veſſel. The corks G and I ought to be prepared before-hand, and well fitted to each end of the tube of communication H, which is to be ſo diſpoſed that it may be fitted in immediately after the mixture is made in the matraſs.

(108.) The intermediate veſſel K is about ⅓ part full of water; into it is plunged the *tube of ſafety* L, to prevent danger from regurgitation. This tube ought to be ſo high, that the weight of the water which enters into it, by the preſſure of the gas, may be great enough to cauſe the gas to paſs into the pneumatic tub N O P, by the tube of communication N, which is plunged therein, and reaches to the bottom, where it is bent horizontally, ſo that the gas may be emitted under the firſt of the three wooden, or (if they can be procured) ſtone ware cavities, or receivers, which are placed in the inſide of the tub, one above the other. O is a handle which ſerves to turn the agitator E, the movement of which facilitates the combination of the gas with the water. P is a ſpigot and faucet to draw off the liquor.

(109.) *Fig.* 2. UPPER PART *of the* PNEUMATIC TUB. In this Q R S T are four ſtaves which are thicker than the others, and which project within the tub, where they are hollowed ſo as to receive the ends of two wooden bars U V, which ſerve to keep in their places the cavities or receivers X.

(110.) *Fig.* 3. SECTION *of the* TUB. Each cavity X is ſo conſtructed that it may receive the gas which is emitted at *i* from the tube of communication M. The gas, as it comes out, is collected under the loweſt cavity, and increaſes in quantity until it paſſes by the funnel Z to that in the middle, and afterwards to the upper one.—The opening through which the agitator E paſſes, in the centre of each cavity, is in the ſhape of a funnel, and is ſo formed as to hinder the gas from eſcaping along the agitator, which is furniſhed with three tranſverſe arms, *c*, *c*, *c*, each being faſtened by a wedge *d*, *d*, *d*,—*e f* repreſents one of theſe arms in a horizontal direction. The bent tube *g h* ſerves to draw off the atmoſpheric air which is contained under the cavities, after the tube has been filled with water. To make uſe of this tube, the bent part is ſucceſſively introduced under each cavity, as is ſhewn at *g*; we muſt then blow into it, at the end *h*, till the water in it is forced out; after which the air contained under the cavity will immediately make its eſcape.

(111.) *Fig.* 4. APPARATUS *for the* DISTILLATION *of* MURIATIC ACID. In this, *l* repreſents a retort, which is to be placed in a reverbatory furnace; the mouth of the retort is to be cloſed by a cork *m*, having two holes, through one of which paſſes the tube *n*, bent at *o*, and terminating at the top in the form of a funnel *p*, by means of which the vitriolic acid is to be introduced into the retort. The other hole of the cork *m* receives the end of a tube *q*, which forms a communication between the retort and a veſſel *r*; which veſſel has three openings, and is to be about ⅓ part full of water, into which is to be plunged the *tube of ſafety s*, to prevent danger from regurgitation: the veſſel *r* has a communication with a ſecond veſſel *u*, by means of the tube *t*: the ſecond veſſel is to be half full of water, and is to have a communi-

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communication with a 3d ſimilar veſſel: this 3d veſſel ſhould alſo be provided with a tube of ſafety, and ſhould communicate with a 4th.

(112.) In the conſtruction of an apparatus for this purpoſe, it is evident the requiſites are, that the receiver ſhould not only be capacious but broad, that the gas, which is very volatile, may meet with a large ſurface of water to abſorb as much of it as poſſible. It is very improbable, however that all the gas can be abſorbed by a ſingle receiver, let us make it as large as we will; for which reaſon it will be proper to have ſeveral of them connected with each other by glaſs tubes, ſo that what eſcapes from one may be abſorbed by another. Thus we are ſure of having the water fully impregnated with the gas; though we cannot by any means concentrate this liquid like the mineral acids.

(113.) By means of condenſing engines, indeed, a greater quantity of it might be forced into the water than it can naturally contain: but this could anſwer no uſeful purpoſe; for the moment that a bottle containing ſuch liquor was opened, the ſuperfluous gas would fly off, with violence and danger to the perſon who opened it. The bottles themſelves would alſo be liable to burſt on every ſlight alteration of temperature in the atmoſphere. It is proper, therefore, not to attempt the preparation of the liquor, in any great degree of ſtrength; though this is indeed attended with a very conſiderable inconvenience, viz. the difficulty of tranſporting it from the place where it is prepared to the bleachfield, on account of the great bulk and weight of it. M. Berthollet propoſes to have it made at the place where the cloth is to be bleached; and ſo near that the dephlogiſticated ſpirit of ſalt might be conveyed by ſpouts to the troughs which contain the cloth. This, however, muſt in many caſes be impracticable, unleſs we ſuppoſe the generality of bleachers to be poſſeſſed of a ſkill in managing chemical operations, which at preſent they are not. When great quantities of liquor are to be brought from diſtant places, however, it muſt undoubtedly be a great diſcouragement, eſpecially if the beſt methods, and the cheapeſt alſo, have not been uſed in the preparation of the acid.

SECT. III. *Advantages of the* New method *of* Bleaching.

(114.) It would add much to the importance of this new method of bleaching, if a comparative eſtimate of the expence of that and of the old mode were fairly laid before the public, and the preference in this reſpect appeared juſtly due to the former. This, however, has not yet been done; nor even the firſt and moſt eſſential ſtep towards it taken, viz. the determining how much ſtuff a certain quantity of dephlogiſticated ſpirit of ſalt will whiten. From ſuch experiments as have been made on the ſubject, it is probable, that the acid drawn from one pound of ſalt will whiten 4 of linen cloth without any addition.—This may ſeem a ſmall expence; but if we conſider the vitriolic acid to be made uſe of, and that the reſiduum is uſeleſs, it would ſoon be found very conſiderable. Glauber's ſalt may indeed be prepared from the reſiduum of the diſtillation; but ſo much of that article is prepared otherwiſe, that at preſent the making of it is no object. M. Berthollet mentions the ſeparation of the mineral alkali from the reſiduum; and ſays he has received ſome inſtructions on this head from M. Morveau and others, but conceals them on account of their being communicated as ſecrets.

(115.) To enable the reader to judge for himſelf of the expence of M. Berthollet's method we inſert the latter part of his memoir, in which this part of the ſubject is more particularly conſidered.

(116.) "If (ſays he) at preſent, when the oxygenated muriatic acid coſts nearly three *deniers* (about half an Engliſh farthing a quart,) in the provinces which are not ſubject to the GABELLE, (a tax no longer exiſting in France,) the new method of bleaching, when properly conducted, is frequently advantageous notwithſtanding this expence; it is not to be doubted but that it may become much more ſo, by means of theſe œconomical practices which I have juſt mentioned. But, ſo long as the preparation of the bleaching liquor is at all expenſive, there will always be a great advantage in favour of fine cloths; becauſe, in equal quantities of ſurface, they preſent a leſs quantity of matter, and are bleached much eaſier; ſo that an ell, or a pound of fine cloath, requires much leſs liquor than an ell, or a pound of coarſer cloth.

(117.) "But, that the advantages of this proceſs may be fully enjoyed, it is neceſſary to exabliſh it in a country which is not ſubject to the tax on ſalt, called the *gabelle*; for, where ſalt is not at a low price, the oxygenated muriatic acid becomes too expenſive.

(118.) "Nevertheleſs, it is not by the expence of the new proceſs, rigorouſly compared with that of the ordinary method of bleaching, that we muſt judge of its advantages, as it is attended with ſome particular ones which would compenſate a ſuperior price. Cloths and thread, which in ſome places require many months, may be eaſily bleached in five or ſix days, even in a large manufactory; and the bleaching of a few pieces only, may, without difficulty, be terminated in two or three days. Beſides, the new method of bleaching may be executed in the winter as well as in the ſummer, only the drying requires more time.

(119.) "An induſtrious countryman, whoſe family employ their intervals of leiſure in ſpinning, is obliged to wait for favourable weather, and perhaps to ſend his thread and cloths to a great diſtance, where they remain a long time in bleaching; or, if his neceſſities are preſſing, he is obliged to ſell them, at a loſs, to ſome intermediate factor, who lays a tax upon his poverty. But, if the manufactories for making oxygenated muriatic acid increaſe in number ſufficiently, thoſe who weave a piece of cloth will be able to bleach it themſelves, and to enjoy the whole fruit of their labour, as ſoon as it is out of their hands.

(120.) "The warehouſeman, in a ſeaſon which is unfavourable to the ordinary method of bleaching, is not able to fulfil his engagements without great difficulty: he is obliged to employ a conſiderable capital to fill his warehouſe, in the ſeaſon in which the bleaching is executed; he is unable

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able to enter upon ſpeculations which might lead to profit (by his taking advantage of opportunities which unexpectedly offer themſelves), becauſe it would require too much time to bleach the quantity of cloths which he may want.

(121.) "The conſumer will alſo find his advantage, as there will not only, in the end, reſult ſome diminution in the price of cloths and thread, but the new bleaching, when properly executed, diminiſhes the original ſtrength of flax and hemp much leſs than the long and often repeated operations of common bleaching. It even appears, by the experiments of M. DECROISILLE, that the oxygenated muriatic acid, by contracting the pores of cotton, gives it more ſolidity, and alſo communicates to it the property of taking more brilliant colours.

(122.) "As the cloths are leſs worn, an apparent diſadvantage ariſes, in the eyes of ſome dealers, from the new method; which is, that they do not appear ſo fine as cloths of the ſame quality bleached in the common manner. M. BONJOUR has even been obliged to contrive methods of wearing the cloths, which have been bleached in the manufactory which he directs. It is evident that ſuch methods are not difficult to be found; but thoſe who are willing to give up this apparent fineneſs, will, of courſe, have their cloths of greater ſtrength.

(123.) "Beſides, may not thoſe vaſt meadows, which in very fertile countries are taken up with cloths (which it is neceſſary to keep ſpread over them all the fine weather), be gained for the purpoſes of agriculture, to which they are now almoſt loſt?

(124.) "If I do not deceive myſelf, the proceſs which I have deſcribed ought to be diſtinguiſhed from thoſe which merely contribute to the progreſs of the arts; it deſerves to be warmly patronized by thoſe whoſe duty it is to watch over the public proſperity, as, beſides its advantage to commerce, it may directly contribute to improve the country, which, being the primary ſource of our riches, has the ſtrongeſt claim to our attention.

(125.) "I ſhall now proceed to deſcribe ſome other uſes, in which the oxygenated muriatic acid may be employed. It appears that it may be ſucceſsfully made uſe of to deſtroy the madder ground of printed cloths. When theſe cloths are printed with different corroſives, they are paſſed through the madder bath, where the deſigns take different ſhades, according to the nature of the corroſives, but at the ſame time the ground of theſe cloths takes the colour of the madder: this colour, which is much leſs permanent than that which has been fixed by the corroſives, it is neceſſary to deſtroy by means of cow-dung and bran, and by long expoſure in the fields. When I firſt tried, inſtead of theſe means, to uſe the oxygenated muriatic acid, I found that the colours, which ought to be preſerved, were themſelves much injured.

(126.) "But Mr HENRY, of Mancheſter, an able chemiſt, found that mild alkalis, either vegetable or mineral, prevented this bad effect of the liquor, and he has ſince that time uſed it with ſucceſs; I am not acquainted with the particulars of the method which he follows. M. Decroiſille wrote to me, nearly about the ſame time, that he had made the ſame obſervation, and I ſoon after was convinced of the truth of it, by making uſe of the proceſs which I deſcribed when ſpeaking of the Javelle ley, namely, by weakening, with a great deal of water, the liquor thereby obtained. M. Oberkampf, to whom I communicated this proceſs, and who neglects nothing which may contribute to the perfection of his excellent manufactory at Jouy, immediately began to make ſome trials, which he has lately continued with M. ROYER, and which promiſe to be ſucceſsful, except with reſpect to colours in which iron has been employed; for, thoſe are weakened; the reds, on the contrary, become brighter than by the ordinary proceſs; but my knowledge of this art is not yet ſufficiently perfect to enable me to be more particular.

(127.) M. Berthollet adds, in a note, "It appears from what I have juſt learnt from Mr TAYLOR, a celebrated manufacturer at Mancheſter, where they begin to make uſe of the new method, that there is not always a neceſſity for adding alkali to the oxygenated muriatic acid; and that the colours which contain iron are not always weakened. Theſe different effects probably depend upon the various methods uſed in printing the cloths."

(128.) "In the trials made at Jouy, the expence has been greater than that of the ordinary proceſs, on account of the price of ſalt; this is a great diſadvantage to manufactories of printed cloths eſtabliſhed in countries ſubject to a tax on ſalt."

(129.) As to the preparation of mineral alkali, ſome celebrated chemiſts have aſſerted that the calces of lead, or lead itſelf, will decompoſe ſea-ſalt, and thus afford an eaſy method of procuring it. On this principle indeed attempts have been made to procure it, but hitherto without ſucceſs; and from ſuch experiments as we have made, it ſeems to be totally impracticable. The method of decompoſing Glauber's ſalt and other vitriolic ſalts by means of charcoal, is perhaps the only one that ſeems to promiſe ſucceſs. The difficulty here is, that the ſalt is converted into an *hepar ſulphuris*, which cannot be decompounded but by means of an acid.

(130.) A trial has been lately made of applying *ſorrel* for this purpoſe, and not without a proſpect of ſucceſs. The particulars hitherto diſcovered concerning this method are, 1. Sea-ſalt yields one half its weight of pure alkali. 2. From 20 to 25 pounds of freſh ſorrel leaves are to be uſed for every pound of ſea-ſalt. 3. The plant is eaſily cultivated, yields three crops annually if properly managed, and is ſuperior in acidity in its cultivated ſtate to the wild ſorrel. The above calculation was made with wild ſorrel. 4. An acre of ground will produce as much ſorrel as is ſufficient for making from a ton to a ton and a half of alkali. It will not thrive except in moiſt ground.

(131.) From theſe particulars it is probable, that by combining the proceſs of making dephlogiſticated ſpirit of ſalt with that of preparing the mineral alkali, bleaching might be performed at an eaſier and cheaper rate than has yet been done; though even here there is ſome doubt, that without an encouragement from government, by taking off the duties from ſalt and ſulphur uſed in the

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the different operations, a project of this kind might miscarry, to the great detriment of the individual who should attempt it.

(132.) On the whole, the principal objections to the new method of bleaching are, that little or none of the alkali commonly used can be saved. The air also and light of the sun, which in the common way is had for nothing, must in the new way be bought at a certain price. The only advantage therefore is, that in the new method, a considerable portion of time is saved. Hence it is impossible to make an exact comparative calculation of the expence of both methods, without estimating how much labour is saved in the new way. If the price of the labour saved exceeds that of the dephlogisticated spirit of salt, there is no doubt that the use of it will be attended with profit, but not otherwise. It is asserted by M. Bertholiet, that in the new way of bleaching, the texture of the cloth is less hurt than in the old one: this too must be reckoned an advantage: though by the bleachers, and indeed by the public in general, it will probably be overlooked, unless they are induced by the *cheapness* to prefer the new to the old process.

(133.) The following important particulars have been published by M. Berthollet in the *Annales de Chimie*, in addition to what he had before advanced.

(134.) "It was always my intention (says he), when I published the description of the method of bleaching by means of the muriatic acid, to communicate to the public every useful remark I could add to it, whether they arise from my own observations, or from those of my correspondents, provided the latter were not made known to me under the tie of secrecy; for, it is natural that those who devote themselves to the practice of any particular art, should wish to keep secret those improvements which they may succeed in making; and there is no kind of property which ought to be more respected, than those discoveries which arise from industry.

(135.) "M. Welter has found it of advantage to finish the process of bleaching, by exposing the cloths and thread on the field for 3 or 4 days, during which they should be sometimes wetted, and afterwards washed in pure water. He thinks that this exposition is absolutely necessary, in order to take away a yellow tinge, which they are apt to retain, but he observes that cotton does not want this operation.

(136.) "Others, however, have bleached to the entire satisfaction of the dealers, without this exposition, and I have convinced myself, by many experiments, that linen may be brought to the most perfect whiteness without it; nevertheless, when thread or cloth is pressed together in any parts, during the process (which, when a large quantity is bleached at the same time, it is very difficult to avoid), those parts are apt to preserve a yellow tinge, which it would perhaps require several operations to efface equally throughout; these repeated operations would increase the charge, and tend to weaken the texture of the linen; whereas a short exposition on the field entirely takes away that tinge. This practice, therefore, seems to me proper to be adopted with respect to linen; it requires but a small extent of ground, and it occasions but a small loss of time.

(137.) "M. Decroisille, whose establishment at Rouen is in full vigour, has made many advantageous alterations in the process; as indeed might be expected from the attention of so able a chemist. I have his permission to publish the following extract from one of his letters. 'We bleach 'here, at about the same price as other bleachers, 'coarse cotton cloths, fine linen for shirts, stock-'ings, caps, &c. of thread and cotton. I flatter 'myself, that I have improved upon your disco-'very: my great recipient, in the distilling appa-'ratus, is of a kind entirely new; I have no wood 'in any part of it, and each of my distilling mat-'rasses contains 60lb. of vitriol acid, &c. I have 'also left off using wood for those vessels in which 'the subjects to be bleached are plunged; and the 'whiteness of our goods is now esteemed to be su-'perior to that produced by the English before 'your discovery. Cotton yarn bleached by your 'process takes, very advantageously, the red dye 'called the Turkey red; as, by means of that pro-'cess, about one third of the usual labour is spa-'red; less oil is required in the preparation; and 'your ley, employed in certain stages of the ope-'ration, in concurrence with the other ingredi-'ents, produces a much more beautiful colour. 'Your discovery will be particularly useful to our 'city, many merchants finding it worth while to 'give us dyed cloths to have their colours discha-'ged; *no colour resists*, and we return them their 'cloths *as found* and *as white* as if they had never 'been dyed or printed.'

(138.) "The making use, instead of wood (for the pneumatic tub, and troughs), of a matter which is not acted upon by the liquor, is certainly of great advantage to the success of this method of bleaching; as, by that means, we not only avoid the loss of that portion of the liquor, which exerts its action upon the wood, but we also save expence in repairing the vessels, which are very soon worn out.

(139.) "I have said that the cloths, when taken out of the water acidulated with vitriolic acid, ought to be plunged into common water; but that precaution is not sufficient, they must be plunged into a weak caustic ley, moderately warm, and kept in it during some minutes.

(140.) "When the liquor is immediately drawn off into the troughs, as I directed, we must take care that it is first well stirred with the agitator; otherwise, that which is at the bottom of the tub, and is most saturated with acid, would first run off, and would act too strongly upon the cloths. We may, indeed, omit the use of the agitator, by drawing off only half, or three quarters, of the liquor, which must afterwards be mixed with a proper quantity of water, according to the proportions I have pointed out; and the rest of the liquor, which is but weakly impregnated, may serve, with an additional quantity of water, for another distillation.

(141.) "Many persons have attempted to execut this process without having any knowledge of chemistry, and without attending to the quality of the thread and cloth they meant to bleach; and it either did not succeed with them, or the expence

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expence of it, according to their calculation, was too great.

(142.) "No one muſt flatter himſelf that he can execute this proceſs, ſimple as it is, unleſs he is guided at firſt by ſome perſon who is accuſtomed to the operations of chemiſtry. Reſpecting the expences of the proceſs, I think it right to be more particular; we muſt not expect a decreaſe, or even an equality of expence (in compariſon with the common method), except in bleaching fine cloths, unleſs we are acquainted with a good proceſs for extracting the mineral alkali from the reſidue of the diſtillations; and, without this advantage, we ought not to undertake to bleach the coarſer kinds of cloth, except in thoſe caſes where the quickneſs of the operation, the power of executing it in all places and ſeaſons, and the diminution of the capital required in the linen trade, may compenſate for the increaſe of expence.

(143.) "It is impoſſible to eſtabliſh *data* upon which to determine in every particular caſe, but I would adviſe thoſe who are intereſted in this ſubject, to begin by trials upon a ſmall ſcale, and, from them, to form fair calculations, without ſeeking to flatter themſelves; on the other hand, they muſt not be led aſtray by thoſe loſſes to which every one is liable, before he becomes familiarized with the management of the proceſs; it is, however not very expenſive to follow, for a certain time, ſuch operations on a ſmall ſcale as may lead us afterwards to undertake, with advantage, others on a large one."

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BLEACHLY, a village in Buckinghamſhire, W. of Fenny Stratford.

(1.) * BLEAK. *adj.* [*blac*, *blæc*, Sax.] 1. Pale. 2. Cold; chill; cheerleſs.—

Intreat the North
To make his *bleak* winds kiſs my parched lips,
And comfort me with cold. *Shakeſpeare.*

The goddeſs that in rural ſhrine
Dwells here with Pan, or Sylvan, by bleſt ſong
Forbidding every *bleak* unkindly fog
To touch the proſperous growth of this tall wood. *Milton.*

—Her deſolation preſents us with nothing but *bleak* and barren proſpects. *Addiſon.*—

Say, will ye bleſs the *bleak* Atlantick ſhore,
Or bid the furious Gaul be rude no more? *Pope.*

(2.) * BLEAK. *n. ſ.* [*alburnus*, from his white or *bleak* colour.] A ſmall river fiſh.—The *bleak*, or freſhwater ſprat, is ever in motion, and therefore called by ſome the river ſwallow. His back is of a pleaſant, ſad ſea water green; his belly white and ſhining like the mountain ſnow. *Bleaks* are excellent meat, and in beſt ſeaſon in Auguſt. *Walton.*

(3.) BLEAK, in ichthyology. See ALBURNUS. and CYPRINUS. The French call it the ABLETTE.

BLEAKLY, *adv.* Palely; coldly. *Aſh.*

* BLEAKNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *bleak.*] Coldneſs; chilneſs.—The inhabitants of Nova Zembla go naked, without complaining of the *bleakneſs* of the air; as the armies of the northern nations keep the field all winter. *Addiſon.*

BLEAKSWAPE, a village in Herefordſhire, near Ware.

* BLEAKY. *adj.* [from *bleak.*] Bleak; cold; chill.—

On ſhrubs they browze, and, on the *bleaky* top
Of rugged hills, the thorny bramble crop. *Dryd.*

BLEANE, a village in Kent, 4 miles NW. of Canterbury.

* BLEAR. *adj.* [*blaer*, a bliſter, Dutch.] 1. Dim with rheum or water; ſore with rheum.—It is a tradition that *blear* eyes affect ſound eyes. *Bacon.*—It is no more in the power of calumny to blaſt the dignity of an honeſt man, than of the *blear* eyed owl to caſt ſcandal on the ſun. *L'Eſtrange.*—

His *blear* eyes ran in gutters to his chin;
His beard was ſtubble, and his cheeks were thin. *Dryden.*

When

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When thou ſhalt ſee the *blear* ey'd fathers teach
Their ſons this harſh and mouldy ſort of ſpeech. *Dryden.*

2. Dim; obſcure in general; or that which makes dimneſs.—

Thus I hurl
My dazzling ſpells into the ſpungy air,
Of power to cheat the eye with *blear* illuſion,
And give it falſe preſentments. *Milton.*

* *To* BLEAR. *v. a.* [from the adjective.] 1. To make the eyes watry, or ſore with rheum.—

All tongues ſpeak of him, and the *bleared* ſights
Are ſpectacled to ſee him. *Shakeſpeare.*

The Dardanian wives,
With *bleared* viſages, come forth to view
Th' iſſue of th' exploit. *Shakeſpeare.*

When I was young, I, like a lazy fool,
Would *blear* my eyes with oil to ſtay from ſchool;
Averſe to pains. *Dryden.*

2. To dim the eyes.—This may ſtand for a pretty ſuperficial argument, to *blear* our eyes, and lull us aſleep in ſecurity. *Raleigh.*

* BLEAREDNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *bleared.*] The ſtate of being bleared, or dimmed with rheum.—The defluxion falling upon the edges of the eyelids, makes a *blearedneſs*. *Wiſeman.*

BLEAR-EYED, *adj.* having the eyes dim with rheum.

BLEASBEY, a hamlet of Southwell, in Nottinghamſhire.

* BLEAT. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] The cry of a ſheep or lamb.—

Set in my ſhip, mine ear reach'd, where we rode,
The bellowing of oxen, and the *bleat*
Of fleecy ſheep. *Chapman.*

* *To* BLEAT. *v. n.* [*blætan*, Sax.] To cry as a ſheep.—

We were as twin'd lambs, that did friſk i' th' ſun,
And *bleat* the one at th' other. *Shakeſpeare.*

You may as well uſe queſtion with the wolf,
Why he hath made the ewe *bleat* for the lamb.
Shakeſpeare's Merchant of Venice.

While on ſweet graſs her *bleating* charge does lie,
Our happy lover feeds upon her eye. *Roſcom.*

What bull dares bellow, or what ſheep dares *bleat*
Within the lion's den. *Dryden.*

* BLEB. *n. ſ.* [*blaen*, to ſwell, Germ.] A bliſter. *Skinner.*

BLECHINGLEY, an ancient town of Surry in England, which ſends two members to parliament; and has done ſo ever ſince parliaments exiſted. The bailiff who returns the members is choſen annually at the lord of the manor's court. The town ſtands on a hill, and has a fine proſpect as far as the South Downs in Suſſex. Lon. 0. 15. W. Lat. 51. 20. N.

BLECHINGTON, a town 6 m. from Oxford.

BLECK-HALL, the name of two Engliſh villages; viz. 1. in Cumberland, S. of Carliſle: 2. in Middleſex, on the Lee, oppoſite to Chigford.

BLECTINUM, in botany, a genus of plants of the claſs of the *cryptogamia filices*; the fructifications of which are diſpoſed in parallel lines on the ſides of the leaves.

* BLED. *preterite* and *particip.* [from *To bleed.*]

BLEDES, Los, an iſland near Majorca.

BLEDLOW, a village in Buckinghamſhire, between Prince's Riſborough and Oxfordſhire.

BLEE, *n. ſ. obſ.* Corn. *Chaucer.*

(1.) * *To* BLEED. *v. a.* To let blood; to take blood from,—

That from a patriot of diſtinguiſh'd note,
Have *bled* and purg'd me to a ſingle vote. *Pope*

(2.) * *To* BLEED. *v. n.* pret. I *bled*; I have *bled.* [*blædan*, Saxon.] To loſe blood; to run with blood.—

I *bleed* inwardly for my lord. *Shakeſpeare.*

Bleed, bleed, poor country,
Great tyranny, lay thou thy baſis ſure;
For goodneſs dare not check thee! *Shakeſp.*

—Many, upon ſeeing of others *bleed*, or ſtrangled, or tortured, themſelves are ready to faint, as if they *bled*. *Bacon.* 2. To die a violent death.—

The lamb thy riot dooms to *bleed* to-day;
Had he thy reaſon, would he ſkip and play? *Pope.*

3. To loſe blood medicinally; as, he *bled* for a fever. 4. To drop, as blood. It is applied to any thing that drops from ſome body on inciſion, as blood from an animal.—

For me the balm ſhall *bleed*, and amber flow,
The coral redden, and the ruby glow. *Pope.*

(1.) BLEEDING, a hæmorrhage or flux of blood from a wound, rupture of a veſſel, or other accident. See HÆMORRHAGE.

(2.) BLEEDING, in farriery. See FARRIERY.

(3.) BLEEDING, in ſurgery. See SURGERY, INDEX.

(4.) BLEEDING, in therapeutics. See MEDICINE, INDEX.

(5.) BLEEDING AT THE NOSE, or EPISTAXIS. See MEDICINE, INDEX.

(6.) BLEEDING OF A CORPSE is a phenomenon ſaid to have frequently happened in the bodies of perſons murdered, which, on the touch, or even the approach of the murderer, began to bleed at the noſe, ears, and other parts. It was formerly admitted in England, and is ſtill allowed in ſome other places, as a detection of the criminal, and proof of the fact. Numerous inſtances of theſe poſthumous hæmorrhages are given by writers. But this kind of evidence ought to be of ſmall weight: for it is to be obſerved, that this bleeding does not ordinarily happen, even in the preſence of the murderer; although ſometimes it happens even in that of the neareſt friends, or perſons moſt innocent; and ſometimes without the preſence of any, either friend or foe. In effect, where is the impoſſibility that a body, eſpecially if full of blood, upon the approach of external heat, having been conſiderably ſtirred or moved, and a putrefaction coming on, ſome of the blood veſſels ſhould burſt, as it is certain they all will in time.

(7.) BLEEDING OF PLANTS, drawing out the ſap of plants, otherwiſe called *tapping*. See TAPPING.

BLEEDY FAWLDS, a place in Aberdeenſhire, in the pariſh of Tough, near which there is a large

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ſtone ſtanding perpendicular, 12½ feet high, and 9½ in circumference. Below it, tradition ſays, one of Macbeth's ſons lies interred. At ſome diſtance there are veſtiges of a camp of Macbeth's, and near it a cairn, under which he is buried.

BLEGON, a village in Somerſetſhire, 7 miles from Huntſpill. It has a fair laſt Friday in Aug.

* BLEIT Blate. *adj.* Baſhful. It is uſed in Scotland, and the bordering counties.

BLEKING, a province in the S. of Sweden, having the Baltic Sea on the S Smaland on the N. and the province of Schonen on the W. Its principal towns are Chriſtianſtadt, Elleholm, Ahuys, Roterby, and Chriſtianople, which laſt is the capital. It is 15 miles long, and 4 broad; is mountainous, but pleaſant; and contains about 50,000 inhabitants.

(1.) * BLEMISH. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. A mark of deformity; a ſcar; a diminution of beauty.—As he hath cauſed a *blemiſh* in a man, ſo ſhall it be done to him again. *Leviticus.*—Open it ſo from the eye-lid, that you divide not that; for, in ſo doing, you will leave a remedileſs *blemiſh*. *Wiſeman.* 2. Reproach; diſgrace; imputation.—That you have been earneſt, ſhould be no *blemiſh* or diſcredit at all unto you. *Hooker.*—And if we ſhall neglect to propagate theſe bleſſed diſpoſitions, what others can undertake it, without ſome *blemiſh* to us, ſome reflection on our negligence? *Spratt.*—None more induſtriouſly publiſh the *blemiſhes* of an extraordinary reputation, than ſuch as lie open to the ſame cenſures; raiſing applauſe to themſelves, for reſembling a perſon of an exalted reputation, though in the blameable parts of his character. *Addiſon.* 3. A ſoil; turpitude; taint; deformity.—

Firſt ſhall virtue be vice, and beauty be counted a *blemiſh*,
Ere that I leave with ſong of praiſe her praiſe to ſolemnize. *Sidney.*
Live thou, and to thy mother dead atteſt,
That clear ſhe died from *blemiſh* criminal. *F. Q.*

—In conformity with Rome a *blemiſh* unto the church of England, and unto churches abroad an ornament? *Hooker.*—

Not a hair periſh'd;
On their ſuſtaining garments not a *blemiſh*,
But freſher than before. *Shakeſpeare.*
Evadne's huſband! 'tis a fault
To love, a *blemiſh* to my thought. *Waller.*
That your duty may no *blemiſh* take,
I will myſelf your father's captive make. *Dryd.*

—Such a mirth as this is capable of making a beauty, as well as a *blemiſh*, the ſubject of deriſion. *Addiſon.*

(2.) Blemish, in hunting, is uſed when the hounds, or beagles, finding where chace has been, make a proffer to enter, but return.

* *To* Blemish. *v. n.* [from *blame*, *Junius*; from *bleme*, white, Fr. *Skinner.*] 1. To mark with any deformity.—Likelier that my outward face might have been diſguiſed, than that the face of ſo excellent a mind could have been thus *blemiſhed*. *Sidney.* 2. To defame; to tarniſh, with reſpect to reputation.—

Not that my verſe would *blemiſh* all the fair;
But yet if ſome be bad, 'tis wiſdom to beware. *Dryden.*

—Thoſe, who, by concerted defamations, endeavour to *blemiſh* his character, incur the complicated guilt of ſlander and perjury. *Addiſon.*

BLEMMYES, or BLEMYES, } a fabulous people of Ethiopia, ſaid to have had no heads; their eyes, mouth, &c. being ſituated in their breaſts. See Acephali, N° 3. Bochart derives the word *Blemmyes* from בל which implies *negation*, and מח *brain*: in which ſenſe the Blemmyes ſhould have been people without brains.

BLENA. See Blenna.

BLENCH, or Blanch, a ſort of tenure of land. To hold land in blench is by payment of a ſugar loaf, a couple of capons, a beaver hat, or the like, if demanded; *nomine albæ firmæ, i. e.* in name of blench.

(1.) * *To* Blench. *v. a.* To hinder; to obſtruct. Not uſed.—The rebels beſieged them, winning the even ground on the top, by carrying up great truſſes of hay before them, to *blench* the defendants fight, and dead their ſhot. *Carew.*

(2.) * *To* Blench. *v. n.* To ſhrink; to ſtart back; to give way: not uſed.—

I'll obſerve his looks;
I'll tent him to the quick; if he but *blench*,
I know my courſe. *Shakeſpeare.*
Patience herſelf, what goddeſs ere ſhe be,
Doth leſſer *blench* at ſufferance than I do. *Shak.*
Hold you ever to our ſpecial drift;
Though ſometimes you do *blench* from this to that,
As cauſe doth miniſter. *Shakeſpeare.*

BLENCOGO, a village in Cumberland, near Abbey-Holme.

BLENCOW, MAGNA, } Two villages in Cum-
Blencow, parva, } berland, in the parish of Dacor.

BLENCRAG, or } a village in Cumberland, 4
BLENCRAKE, } miles from Cockermouth, up the Derwent.

BLEND, Blende, or Black-Jack, a mineral called alſo *falſe galena*. See Blinde and Zinc.

* *To* BLEND. *v. a.* preter. [*blended*; anciently, *blent*. [*blendan*, Saxon.] 1. To mingle together.

'Tis beauty truly *blent*, whoſe red and white
Nature's own ſweet and cunning hand hath laid on. *Shakeſpeare.*

—The miſtion taught by the ancients is too ſlight or groſs: for bodies mixed according to their hypotheſis, would not appear ſuch to the acute eyes of a lynx, who would diſcern the elements, if they were no otherwiſe mingled, than but *blended* but not united. *Boyle.*—

He had his calmer influence, and his mien
Did love and majeſty together *blend*. *Dryden.*
The grave where even the great find reſt,
And *blended* lie th' oppreſſor and th' oppreſs'd. *Pope.*

2. To confound.—The moon ſhould wander from her beaten way, the times and ſeaſons of the year *blend* themſelves by diſordered and confuſed mixture. *Hooker.* 3. To pollute; to ſpoil; to corrupt. This ſignification was anciently much in uſe, but is now wholly obſolete.—

Which when he ſaw, he burnt with jealous fire;
The eye of reaſon was with rage *yblent*.
Fairy Queen.

Regard

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Regard of worldly muck doth foully *blend*,
And low abaſe the high heroick ſpirit. *F. Queen.*
The whilſt thy kingdom from thy head is rent
And thy throne royal with diſhonour *blent*.
Spenſer.

* BLENDER. *n. ſ.* [from *To blend.*] The perſon that mingles.

BLEND-METAL IRON, a coarſe ſort of iron from the Staffordſhire mines, uſed for making nails and heavy ware; in ſome places alſo for horſe-ſhoes.

BLEND-WATER, or MOREHOUGH, a diſtemper incident to black cattle, comes either from the blood, from the yellows, or from the change of ground. To cure it, take bole armoniac, and as much charcoal duſt as will fill an egg ſhell, a good quantity of the inner bark of an oak, dried and pounded together to a powder, and give it to the beaſt in a quart of new milk and a pint of earning.

BLENDWORTH, a village in Hampſhire, between Portſmouth, and Petersfield.

BLENGO, a river in Cumberland, which falls into the Irt, near Irton.

BLENHEIM, a village of Germany, in the circle of Suabia, memorable for the defeat of the French and Bavarians in 1704, by the Engliſh and their confederates under Prince Eugene and the D. of Marlborough. The French army amounted to 60,000 veterans, who had ſhared in the conqueſts of their grand monarque; and were now commanded by two generals the moſt diſtinguiſhed at that time in France, Marſhal Tallard and the D. of Bavaria. The former had eſtabliſhed his reputation by many victories. He was active and penetrating; but his ardour often roſe to impetuoſity; and he was ſo ſhort ſighted as to be incapable of ſeeing objects at a very ſmall diſtance.—The D. of Bavaria was equally experienced in the field, and had ſtronger motives for activity: His country was ravaged before his eyes, and nothing remained of his poſſeſſions but the army which he commanded. The allied army, commanded by Eugene and Marlborough, amounted to about 52,000 men, troops who had long been familiar with victory, and who had ſeen the French, the Turks, and the Ruſſians fly before them. Both armies, after many marches and counter marches, approached each other. The French were poſted on a hill near Hochſtet; their right covered by the Danube and Blenheim; their left by the village of Lutzengen; and their front by a rivulet, the banks of which were ſteep and the bottom marſhy.—The right wing of the French was commanded by Marſhal Tallard; their left by the D. of Bavaria, and under him Gen. Marſin, an experienced Frenchman. Their poſition being advantageous, they were willing to await the enemy rather than offer battle. On the other hand, Marlborough and Eugene were ſtimulated to engage them at all events, in conſequence of an intercepted letter from Villeroy, intimating that he was preparing to cut off all communnication between the Rhine and the allied army. The diſpoſitions, therefore being made for the attack, and the orders communicated to the general officers, the allied forces advanced into the plain, and were ranged in order of battle. The cannonading began about 9 in the morning, and continued to about half after 12. The troops then advanced to the attack; the right under the direction of Prince Eugene, the left headed by Marlborough, and oppoſed to Marſhal Tallard. Marlborough at the head of the Engliſh troops, having paſſed the rivulet, attacked the cavalry of Tallard with great bravery. This general being then reviewing the diſpoſition of his troops to the left, his cavalry fought for ſome time without their commander. Prince Eugene had not yet attacked the forces of the elector; and it was near an hour before he could bring up his troops to the engagement.—Tallard was no ſooner informed that his right was attacked by the duke, than he flew to its head, where he found a furious encounter already begun, his cavalry being thrice driven back, and rallying as often. He had poſted a large body of forces in Blenheim; and he made an attempt to bring them to the charge. They were attacked by a detachment of Marlborough's troops ſo vigorouſly, that inſtead of aſſiſting the main body they could hardly maintain their ground. All the French cavalry being thus attacked in flank, was totally defeated. The Engliſh army now penetrated between the two bodies of the French commanded by the marſhal and elector, while the forces in Blenheim were ſeparated by another detachment. In this diſtreſſed ſituation Tallard flew to rally ſome ſquadrons; but from his ſhortſightedneſs miſtaking a detachment of the enemy for his own, he was made priſoner by the Heſſian troops, who were in the allied army. Meanwhile, Prince Eugene, after having been thrice repulſed, at laſt put the enemy into confuſion. The rout then became general, and the flight precipitate. The conſternation of the French ſoldiers was ſuch that they threw themſelves into the Danube, without knowing whether they fled. The allies being now maſters of the field of battle, ſurrounded the village of Blenheim, where a body of 13,090 men had been poſted in the beginning of the action, and ſtill maintained their ground. Theſe troops ſeeing themſelves cut off from all communication with the reſt of the army, and deſpairing of being able to force their way through the allies, threw down their arms, and ſurrendered priſoners of war. Thus ended the battle of Blenheim, one of the moſt complete victories that ever was obtained; 12,000 French and Bavarians being ſlain in the field or drowned in the Danube; and 13,000 made priſoners of war; beſides 100 pieces of cannon, 22 mortars, upwards of 100 pair of colours, 200 ſtandards, 17 pair of kettle-drums, upwards of 3000 tents, 34 coaches, 300 loaded mules, two bridges of boats, and all the French baggage, taken with their military cheſt. Next day, when the D. of Marlborough viſited his priſoner the marſhal, the latter aſſured him that he had overcome the beſt troops in the world. "I hope, Sir, (replied the duke), you will except thoſe troops by whom they were conquered." The allies, in conſequence of this victory, became maſters of a country 100 leagues in extent. Blenheim lies 3 miles NE. of Hochſtet, and 25 NW. of Augſburg. Lon. 10. 25. E Lat 48. 40. N.

BLENHEIM-HOUSE, a princely houſe erected in honour of the D. of Marlborough at Woodſtock near Oxford, which with the manor of Woodſtock

was

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was ſettled on the duke and his heirs, in conſideration of the eminent ſervices by him performed for the public; and for building of which houſe the ſum of L. 500,000 was granted by parliament, &c. The tenure by which the manor of Woodſtock is held, is the preſenting at the caſtle of Windſor annually on the day in which the battle of Blenheim was fought, a flag embroidered with flowers-de-lis; which flag is ſhown to all ſtrangers who viſit the caſtle.

BLENKARN, a village in Cumberland, 4 miles NW. of Appleby.

BLENKENSHIP, a village in Northumberland near the Picts Wall, on the borders of Cumberland.

BLENNA, Blena, [βλεννα, μυξα, κορυζα,] is uſed by Hippocrates for a thick phlegm and mucus flowing from the brain through the noſtrils, and ſhewing ſigns of a beginning concoction; as Galen explains it in ſeveral parts of his works.

BLENNERHASSET, a village in Cumberland, near Bothel.

BLENNIUS, the Blenny, in ichthyology, a genus of fiſhes belonging to the order of jugulares; the characters of which are theſe: The head ſtants or declines to one ſide; there are ſix rays in the membrane of the gills; the body tapers towards the tail; the belly fins have only two blunt bones; and the tail fin is diſtinct. The ſpecies are 13: viz.

1. Blennius cornutus, with a ſimple ray above the eyes, and a ſingle black fin.

2. Blennius cristatus, with a longitudinal briſtly creſt betwixt the eyes. The above two are natives of the Indies.

3. Blennius galeria, with a tranſverſe membraneous creſt upon the head, is found in the European ſeas.

4. Blennius gattorugine, with ſmall palmated fins about the eye-brows and neck. It is about ſeven or eight inches long, is found in the European ſeas.

5. Blennius gunellus has 10 black ſpots on the back fin. It is found in the Atlantic Ocean.

6. Blennius lumpenus has ſeveral duſky-coloured areolæ running acroſs its body. It is found in the European ſeas.

7. Blennius mustelaris has 3 rays on the fore part of the back fin. It is a native of India.

8. Bleneius ocellaris, with a furrow betwixt the eyes, and a large ſpot on the back fin. It is found in the European ſeas.

9. Blennius pholis has a ſmooth head, a curve line upon the ſides, and the upper jaw is larger than the under one.

10. Blennius phycis, with a kind of creſted noſtrils, a cirrus or beard on the under lip, and a double fin on the back. It has 7 rays in the gill membrane; the anus is ſurrounded with a black ring; and the tail is roundiſh. The two laſt are found in the Mediterranean Sea.

11. Blennius raninus, with ſix diviſions in the belly fins, is found in the lakes of Sweden.—It is remarkable, that when this fiſh appears in the lake, all the other fiſhes retire; and what is worſe, it is not fit for eating.

12. Blennius superciliosus, with ſmall fins about the eye-brows, and a curved lateral line. It is a native of India.

13. Blennius viviparus has two tentacula at the mouth. Schonevelde firſt diſcovered this ſpecies; Sir Robert Sibbald afterwards found it on the Scottiſh coaſt. They bring forth 200 or 300 young at a time. Their ſeaſon of parturation is a little after the depth of winter. Before midſummer, they quit the bay, and ſhores; and retire into the deep, where they are commonly taken. They are a very coarſe fiſh, and eaten only by the poor. They are common in the mouth of the river Eſk, at Whitby, Yorkſhire; where they are taken frequently from off the bridge.—They ſometimes grow to the length of a foot.—Their form is ſlender, and the backbone is green, as that of a ſea-needle.

BLENNUS, a name given by ſome authors, particularly Schonfeit, to the SYNGNATHUS *corpore hexagono, cauda pinnata;* the ACUS of Ariſtotle; and *acus ſecunda* of other writers; called alſo by Goſner and Bellonius, TYPHLE MARINA. It is a name uſed alſo by ſome for the tobacco pipe fiſh.

BLENNY. See Blennius.

(1.) BLENT. *adj. Obſ.* Ceaſed; blind; diſappointed. *Chauc.*

(2.) * Blent. The obſolete *particle* of *b'end.* See Blend.

BLEPHARIDES, in anatomy, the hair of the eyelids, or the part on which it grows.

BLEPHARO, *n. ſ.* one who has great eye-lids.

BLEPHARON. *n. ſ.* [βλεφαρον, Gr.] the eyelid.

BLEPHAROXYSTUM, [from βλεφαρον and ξυω, to ſcrape off,] an inſtrument for pulling hairs out of the eye-lids.

BLERA, in old records, peat or turf.

BLERVIE, a barony in the county of Elgin, comprehending a very fertile diſtrict, which produces excellent grain. It belongs to the Hon. Lewis Duff, who has built an elegant ſeat upon it. The tower of the ancient family ſeat of the Dunbars, which is all that remains of it, ſtands upon an elevated ground, and commands a very extenſive view of the Moray Frith, and great part of the counties of Elgin, Nairn, Inverneſs, Cromarty, Roſs, Sutherland and Caithneſs.

BLESENIS bolus, *bloe of Blois,* in the materia medica, a medicinal earth dug about Saumur, Blois, and Burgoyne in France, and ſeeming to poſſeſs all the virtues of the Armenian bole of Galen, which it alſo much reſembles in external appearance. It is uſeful in fluxes and other caſes, and might be had in any quantities, at a ſmall price; but the common red French bole, a counterfeit of it, or the bole armeniac, is generally ſold for it.

BLESILOQUENT, *adj.* [from *blæſus,* an impediment, and *loquor,* to ſpeak,] ſtammering.

BLESS, Henry, painter, was born at Bovine, near Dinant, 1480. He acquired his ſkill by the ſtrength of his natural genius, aſſiſted by a diligent ſtudy of Patenier's works; and rendered himſelf eminent, particularly by his landſcapes. His beſt performances were bought by the Emperor Rodolph, and they are ſtill preſerved at Vienna. His ſtyle in hiſtorical ſubjects reſembled that of the Flemiſh artiſts. But he crowded ſeveral ſubjects

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jects into one design; as in his picture of the disciples at Emmaus, he represented not only that incident, but likewise, in different groups in the back ground, the different parts of our Saviour's passion. And yet, notwithstanding this impropriety, his pictures were so delicately finished, and so full of variety, that even in Italy his works were in great request. They were stiled the *owl pictures*, for he fixed an owl, as his peculiar mark, in each of them; by which his works are always indisputably known. He died in 1550.

* *To* BLESS. *v. a. preterite* and *participle*, *blessed* or *blest*. [*blessian*, Saxon.] 1. To make happy; to prosper; to make successful.—

The quality of mercy is not strain'd;
It droppeth as the gentle rain of heaven
Upon the place beneath. It is twice *bless'd*,
It *blesseth* him that gives, and him that takes.
Shakespeare.

Had I but died an hour before this chace,
I had liv'd a *blessed* time: for, from this instant,
There's nothing serious in mortality. *Shakes.*

—This kingdom enjoyed the greatest claim, and the fullest measure of felicity, that any people, in any age, for so long time together, have been *blessed* with. *Clarendon.*—

Happy this isle, with such a hero *blest*;
What virtue dwells not in his royal breast? *Waller.*

In vain with folding arms the youth assay'd
To stop her flight, and strain the flying shade;
But she return'd no more, to *bless* his longing eyes. *Dryden.*

O hospitable Jove! we thus invoke,
Bless to both nations this auspicious hour. *Dryd.*

3. To wish happiness to another; to pronounce a blessing upon him.—And this is the blessing wherewith Moses the man of God *blessed* the children of Israel, before his death. *Deuteronomy.* 3. To consecrate by prayer.—He *blessed*, and brake, and gave the loaves. *Matthew.* 4. To praise; to glorify by benefits received; to celebrate.—Unto us there is one only guide of all agents natural, and he both the creator and worker of all in all, alone to be *blessed*, adored, and honoured by all for ever. *Hooker.*—

But *bless'd* be that great pow'r, that hath us *bless'd*
With longer life than earth and heav'n can have.
Davies.

5. It seems, in one place of *Spenser*, to signify the same as *to weave*; *to brandish*; *to flourish*. This signification is taken from an old rite of our Romish ancestors, who *blessing* a field directed their hands in quick succession to all parts of it.—

Whom when the prince to battle new addrest,
And threat'ning high his dreadful stroke did see,
His sparking blade about his head he *blest*,
And smote off quite his right leg by the knee.
Fairy Queen.

(1.) * BLESSED. *particip. adj.* [from *To bless.*] 1. Happy; enjoying felicity.—*Blessed* are the barren. *Luke.* 2. Holy and happy; happy in the favour of God.—All generations shall call me *blessed*. *Luke.* 3. Happy in the joys of heaven.—*Blessed* are the dead that die in the Lord. *Rev.*

(2.) * BLESSED THISTLE. [*cnicus*, Lat.] The name of a plant.

* BLESSEDLY. *adv.* [from *blessed.*] Happily.—This accident of Clitophon's taking, had so *blessedly* procured their meeting. *Sidney.*

* BLESSEDNESS. *n. s.* [from *blessed.*] 1. Happiness; felicity.—Many times have I, leaning to yonder palm, admired the *blessedness* of it, that it could bear love without the sense of pain. *Sidney.*—

His overthrow heap'd happiness upon him:
For then, and not till then; he felt himself,
And found the *blessedness* of being little. *Shakes.*

2. Sanctity.—

Earthlier happy is the rose distill'd,
Than that, which, withering on the virgin thorn,
Grows, lives, and dies in single *blessedness*. *Shakes.*

3. Heavenly felicity.—It is such an one, as, being begun in grace, passes into glory, *blessedness*, and immortality. *South.* 4. Divine favour.

* BLESSER. *n. s.* [from *bless.*] He that blesses, or gives a blessing; he that makes any thing prosper.—When thou receivest praise, take it indifferently, and return it to God, the giver of the gift, or *blesser* of the action. *Taylor.*

* BLESSING. *n. s.* [from *bless.*] 1. Benediction; a prayer by which happiness is implored for any one. 2. A declaration by which happiness is promised in a prophetick and authoritative manner.—The person that is called, kneeleth down before the chair, and the father layeth his hand upon his head, or her head, and giveth the *blessing*. *Bacon.* 3. Any of the means of happiness; a gift; an advantage; a benefit.—

Nor are his *blessings* to his banks confin'd,
But free and common, as the sea and wind.
Denham.

—Political jealousy is very reasonable in persons persuaded of the excellency of their constitution, who believe that they derive from it the most valuable *blessings* of society. *Addison.*—A just and wise magistrate is a *blessing* as extensive as the community to which he belongs: a *blessing* which includes all other *blessings* whatsoever, that relate to this life. *Atterbury.* 4. Divine favour.—

My pretty cousin,
Blessing upon you! *Shakespeare.*

I had most need of *blessing*, and Amen
Stuck in my throat. *Shakespeare.*

—Honour thy father and mother, both in word and deed, that a *blessing* may come upon thee from them. *Eccluf.*—He shall receive the *blessing* from the Lord. *Psalms.* 5. The Hebrews, under this name, often understood the presents which friends make to one another; in all probability, because they are generally attended with *blessings* and compliments both from those who give, and those who receive. *Calmet.*—And Jacob said, receive my present at my hand; take, I pray thee, my *blessing* that is brought to thee. *Genesis.*

BLESSINGTON, a town of Ireland, in the county of Wicklow, Leinster, pleasantly seated on a rising ground, near the Liffey, 14 m. SW. of Dublin. Lon. 6. 40. W. Lat. 53. 10. N.

* BLEST. *preterite* and *participle.* [from *bless.*]

Peace to thy gentle shade, and endless rest!
Blest in thy genius, and in thy love too *blest*! *Pope.*

BLESTIUM, in ancient geography, a town of Britain; now called OLD-TOWN, not far from Hereford.

BLESTRISMUS, [from βλησσω, *to toss*,] in the ancient physic, a continual tossing and inquietude of

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of the body occaſioned by a tumultuary effervescence of the blood, eſpecially in acute fevers.

BLETA ALBA, an epithet given by ſome to the milky urine voided in ſome diſorders of the kidneys, ranked by Paracelſus among the cauſes of the *phthiſis*.

BLETARN, a village in Weſtmoreland, N. W. of Kirby-Lonſdale.

BLETCHINGTON, the name of two villages in Suſſex; 1. near Brighthelmſtone; and, 2. N. of Eaſtbourn.

BLETHERWICK, a village in Northamptonſhire, near King's-Cliff.

BLETONISM, a faculty of perceiving and indicating ſubterraneous ſprings and currents by ſenſation. The term is modern, and derived from a Mr Bleton, who within theſe few years excited univerſal attention by poſſeſſing this faculty, which ſeems to depend upon ſome peculiar organization. Concerning the reality of this extraordinary faculty, there occurred great doubts among the learned. But M. Thouvenel, a French philoſopher, ſeems to have put the matter beyond diſpute, in two memoirs which he publiſhed upon the ſubject. He was charged by the late unfortunate monarch with a commiſſion to analyſe the mineral and medicinal water in France; and, by repeated trials, he had been ſo fully convinced of the capacity of Bleton, to aſſiſt him with efficacy in this important undertaking, that he ſolicited the miniſtry to join him in the commiſſion upon advantageous terms. All this ſhows that the operations of Bleton have a more ſolid ſupport, than the tricks of impoſture or the deluſions of fancy. In fact, a great number of his diſcoveries are aſcertained by reſpectable affidavits. The following is a ſtrong inſtance in favour of Bletoniſm. "For a long time the traces of ſeveral ſprings and their reſervoirs in the lands of the Abby de Vervains had been entirely loſt. It appeared, nevertheleſs, by ancient deeds and titles, that theſe ſprings and reſervoirs had exiſted. A neighbouring abby was ſuppoſed to have turned their waters for its benefit into other channels, and a law-ſuit was commenced upon this ſuppoſition. M. Bleton was applied to: he diſcovered at once the new courſe of the waters in queſtion: his diſcovery was aſcertained, and the law-ſuit was terminated." Bleton, however, was miſtaken more than once; and M. Thouvenel enumerates, with candour, the caſes in which he failed: but theſe caſes are very rare in compariſon with thoſe in which he ſucceeded. Beſides, even the miſtakes of Bleton do not invalidate the reality of his talents; ſince a talent may be real without being perfect, or exerting itſelf with the ſame ſucceſs in every trial. Many argued againſt Bletoniſm, becauſe they looked upon the facts on which it is founded as inexplicable. But M. Thouvenel aſſigns principles, upon which the impreſſions made by ſubterraneous waters and mines may be accounted for. Having aſcertained a general law, by which ſubterraneous electricity exerts an influence upon the bodies of certain individuals, eminently ſuſceptible of that influence, and ſhown that this law is the ſame whether the electrical action ariſe from currents of warm or cold water, from currents of humid air, from coal or metallic mines, from ſulphur, and ſo on, he obſerves, that there is a diverſity in the phyſical and organical impreſſions which are produced by this electrical action, according as it proceeds from different foſſile bodies, which are more or leſs conductors of electrical emanations. There are alſo artificial proceſſes, which concur in leading us to diſtinguiſh the different conductors of mineral electricity; and in theſe proceſſes the uſe of electrometrical rods deſerves the attention of philoſophers, who might perhaps in proceſs of time ſubſtitute in their place a more perfect inſtrument. Their phyſical and ſpontaneous mobility, and its electrical cauſe, are demonſtrated by indiſputable experiments. On the other hand, M. Thouvenel proves, by very plauſible arguments, the influence of ſubterraneous electrical currents, compares them with the electrical currents of the atmoſphere, points out the different impreſſions they produce, according to the number and quality of the bodies which act, and the diverſity of thoſe which are acted upon. The ordinary ſources of cold water make impreſſions proportional to their volume, the velocity of their currents, and other circumſtances. Their ſtagnation deſtroys every ſpecies of electrical influence; at leaſt, in this ſtate they have none that is preceptible. Their depth is indicated by geometrical proceſſes, founded upon the motion and divergence of the electrical rays; but there are ſecond cauſes, which ſometimes diverſify theſe indications, and occaſion ſeeming errors. Theſe errors, however, according to our author, are only exceptions to the general rule; exceptions which depend on the difference of mediums and ſituations, and not on the inconſtancy or incertitude of the organical, ſenſitive, or convulſive faculties of the Bletoniſt. All the hot ſprings in France, traced by M. Thouvenel, from the places where they flow, to the places where their formation commences (ſometimes at a diſtance of 15 leagues), led him conſtantly to maſſes of coals; where they are collected and heated in baſons of different depths and dimenſions, nouriſhed by the filtration of lakes and the courſe of torrents, and mineralized by ſaline, ſulphureous, metallic, and bituminous ſubſtances, in the natural furnaces where they are heated, or in the ſtrata through which they flow.—The laſt and the moſt ſingular and important phenomenon, which our author met with in the courſe of his experiments, muſt not be here omitted. Over the veins of iron mines alone the electrometical rods aſſume a motion of rotation diametrically oppoſite to that which they exhibit over all other mines. This phenomenon takes place with the ſame diſtinction when iron and other metals are extracted from their mines and depoſited under ground. But the moſt remarkable circumſtance in this diſtinctive action of theſe metals, is, that it has an uniform and conſtant direction from E. to W. in all metals, iron excepted, juſt as iron rendered magnetic has an action directed from S. to N. The action of red metals is more palpable than that of the white; but the latter, though weaker, has nevertheleſs a real exiſtence in the ſulphur. In the ſupplement to this memoir, there is an accurate account of the proceſſes that have furniſhed theſe invariable reſults. They naturally ſuggeſt the idea of conſtructing an electrical compaſs, which

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which may be of as eminent uſe in experimental philoſophy, as the magnetic compaſs is in navigation. The natural and ſpontaneous direction of metallic emanations towards the W. being aſcertained, it only remains to render them palpable, by the conſtruction of an inſtrument, which may be ſubſtituted in the place of the electrometrical twig, that goes vulgarly by the name of the *divining rod*. His analyſis of the hot ſprings of Bourbon-Lancy, to the ſource of which, in the great mountains of Burgundy, he was led by the electrical ſenſations of Bleton, ſhows the great intelligence and ſagacity of M. Thouvenel in operations of this nature. He found the origin of theſe famous hot ſprings in the centre of an oblong riſing ground, full of coal, and commanded on 3 ſides by a group of mountains, of which the greateſt part was filled with the ſame mineral. From a particular caſe, in which the electrical rays of the ſubterraneous water and thoſe of the adjacent coal croſſed each other, he deduces a very natural account of the errors which may ſometimes, though rarely, miſlead for a time the greateſt adepts in Bletoniſm, when they find themſelves in combined ſpheres of electrical activity. Another obſervation, which ſeems confirmed by ſeveral facts, accounts farther for this fallibility: the obſervation is, that electrical rays, whether direct or collateral, iſſuing from ſubterranean focuſes, ſeem to undergo, in certain caſes, a ſort of refraction as they paſs from one medium to another, or traverſe bodies which differ with reſpect to the property of tranſmitting this electricity. It follows from theſe obſervations, that when ſuch privileged inveſtigators of currents or minerals as Bleton are placed upon the electrical ſpheres of theſe bodies, they will indicate their ſituation and their reſpective depths, according to the impreſſions they feel within themſelves, or the motions they obſerve in the electrometrical inſtruments which they employ: and if they meet with ſecond accidental cauſes, or complications of electrical ſpheres, which modify or alter theſe methods of trial, this will neceſſarily occaſion miſtakes in the reſults of their operations which they may probably rectify; but which, at all events, it would be unjuſt to lay to their charge, or alledge as an objection againſt the reality of their talent.

BLETONIST, a perſon endued with powers ſimilar to thoſe of Mr Bleton. See laſt article.

BLETSOE, a village in Bedfordſhire, on the Ouſe, between Bedford and Odehill. It has a fair, May 19.

BLETUS, [βλαυτος,] in the ancient phyſic, a perſon whoſe ſide, by reaſon of ſome internal inflammation, as a pleuriſy or peripneumony, turns black or livid-ſpotted, chiefly after death.

To BLEVE, or } *v. n. obſ.* [*bleiben*, Teut.] To
To BLEVIN, } abide; to tarry. *Chauc.*

(1.) BLEW, *adj.* See BLUE.

(2.) * BLEW. The *preterite* from *blow*.—The reſt fled into a ſtrong tower, where, ſeeing no remedy, they deſperately *bleu* up themſelves, with a great part of the caſtle, with gunpowder. *Knolles.*

BLEWBERRY, a village in Berkſhire, near Wallingford.

BLEW-CAP, an Engliſh name for a peculiar ſpecies of fiſh of the ſalmon kind, diſtinguiſhed by a broad blue ſpot on the head, from whence they have their name. Theſe ſeem not to breed with us; but appear in our rivers only at certain ſeaſons, when there have been very violent N. winds. This fiſh is ſeldom found ſingle; ſo that the fiſhermen rejoice at their taking one of them, expecting a large ſhoal of them near.

BLEW-HOUSE, a village in Middleſex, W. of Endfield-Chaſe.

BLEYDON, a village in Somerſetſhire, near Up-hill.

(1.) * BLEYME. *n. ſ.* An inflammation in the foot of a horſe, between the ſole and the bone. *Farrier's Dict.*

(2.) BLEYMES are of 3 ſorts; the firſt, bred in ſpoiled wrinkled feet with narrow heels, are uſually ſeated in the inward or weakeſt quarter; the 2d infects the griſtle, and muſt be extirpated, as in the cure of a quitter-bone: the 3d is occaſioned by ſmall ſtones and gravel between the ſhoes and the ſole.—For a cure, pare the foot, let out the matter, if any, and dreſs the ſore, like the prick of a nail.

BLIBOROUGH, a town in Lincolnſhire, S. of Kirton.

BLICCA, in ichthyology, a ſpecies of cyprinus. See BALLERUS, N° 2, and CYPRINUS.

BLICEA, in ichthyology, 1. the name of a ſmall fiſh of the harengiform kind, caught in the German and other ſeas, and ſuppoſed by many to be the ſame with our ſprat. 2. It is alſo the name of a freſh-water fiſh of the *malacoſtomous*, or leather-mouthed kind, the ſame with the more common kind of *carcaſſius*. 3. It is alſo the name of an E. India fiſh, of the ſhape and colour of the herring, but ſomewhat broader and thinner. Its tail is forked; but its eyes and the end of its ſnout are extremely large. Theſe fiſh ſwim in vaſt ſhoals, and are caught principally on the coaſt of Malabar. They are well taſted, but have no taſte of a herring. They take ſalt, which ſcarce any other of the Eaſt India fiſh will do, and are therefore much valued, and ſent into all the neighbouring parts of the country in pickle. The natives alſo, in manuring the lands whereon they ſow their rice, uſe theſe fiſh, which are caught in prodigious plenty, inſtead of dung.

BLICKLING, a village in Norfolkſhire, near Aleſham.

BLIDESLOW, or BLILESLOW, a village in Glouceſterſhire, near Awre.

BLIEGG, in ichthyology, a name given by the Germans to the BLEAK.

(1.) * BLIGHT. *n. ſ.* [The etymology unknown.] 1. Mildew; according to *Skinner*; but it ſeems taken by moſt writers, in a general ſenſe, for any cauſe of the failure of fruits.—I complained to the oldeſt and beſt gardeners, who often fell into the ſame misfortune, and eſteemed it ſome *blight* of the ſpring. *Temple.* 2. Any thing nipping, or blaſting.—When you come to the proof once, the firſt *blight* of froſt ſhall moſt infallibly ſtrip you of all your glory. *L'Eſtrange.*

(2.) BLIGHT, in huſbandry, a diſeaſe incident to plants, which affects them variouſly, the whole plant ſometimes periſhing by it, and ſometimes only the leaves and bloſſoms, which will be ſcorched and ſhrivelled up, the reſt remaining green and flouriſhing. Some have ſuppoſed that blights are uſually

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uſually produced by an eaſterly wind, bringing vaſt quantities of inſects eggs along with it, from ſome diſtant place; and that theſe, being lodged upon the ſurface of the leaves and flowers of fruit trees, cauſe them to ſhrivel up and periſh. To cure this diſtemper, they adviſe the burning of wet litter on the windward ſide of the plants, that the ſmoke thereof may be carried to them by the wind, which they ſuppoſe will ſtifle and deſtroy the inſects, and thereby cure the diſtemper. Others direct the uſe of tobacco duſt, or to waſh the trees with water wherein tobacco ſtalks have been infuſed for 12 hours; which they ſay will deſtroy thoſe inſects, and recover the plants. Pepper duſt ſcattered over the bloſſoms of fruit trees, &c. has been recommended as very uſeful in this caſe; and there are ſome that adviſe the pulling off the leaves that are diſtempered. The true cauſe of blight ſeems to be continued dry eaſterly winds for ſeveral days together, without the intervention of ſhowers, or any morning dew, by which the perſpiration in the tender bloſſom is ſtopped; and if it ſo happens that there is a long continuance of the ſame weather, it equally affects the tender leaves, whereby their colour is changed, and they wither and decay. The beſt remedy for this diſtemper, is to waſh and ſprinkle gently over the tree, &c. from time to time with common water; and if the young ſhoots ſeem to be much infected, let them be waſhed with a woollen cloth, ſo as to clear them, if poſſible, from this glutinous matter, that their reſpiration and perſpiration may not be obſtructed. This operation ought to be performed early in the day, that the moiſture may be exhaled before the cold of the night comes on; nor ſhould it be done when the ſun ſhines very hot. Another cauſe of blight in ſpring is ſharp hoary froſts, which are often ſucceeded by hot ſunſhine in the day time. Theſe are the moſt ſudden and certain deſtroyers of the fruits that are known.

* *To* BLIGHT. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To corrupt with mildew.—This vapour bears up along with it any noxious mineral ſteams; it then blaſts vegetables, *blights* corn and fruit, and is ſometimes injurious even to men. *Woodward.* 2. In general, to blaſt; to hinder from fertility.—My country neighbours do not find it impoſſible to think of a lame horſe they have, or their *blighted* corn, till they have run over in their minds all beings. *Locke.*—

But leſt harſh care the lover's peace deſtroy,
And roughly *blight* the tender buds of joy,
Let reaſon teach. *Lyttelton.*

BLIGHTED CORN. See SMUT.

BLIKE, in ichthyology, a name given by ſome to an anadromous fiſh, reſembling our river chub, and called by Geſner *capito anadromus*; but better known by the name of ZARTA, or the ZERTE.

BLILESLOW. See BLIDESLOW.

BLIMHILL, a village in Staffordſhire, W. of Penkridge.

To BLIN, *v. n. obſ.* To ceaſe. *Spenſer.*

(1.) * BLIND. *adj.* [*blind*, Sax.] 1. Without ſight; wanting the ſenſe of ſeeing; dark.—The *blind* man that governs his ſteps by feeling, in defect of eyes, receives advertiſements of things through a ſtaff. *Digby.*—

Thoſe other two equall'd with me in fate,
So were I equall'd with them in renown!
Blind Thamyris, and *blind* Mæonides;
And Tereſias, and Phineas, prophets old. *Milt.*

2. Intellectually dark; unable to judge; ignorant: with *to* before that which is unſeen.—

All authors *to* their own defects are *blind*;
Hadſt thou, but Janus like, a face behind,
To ſee the people, what ſplay mouths they make;
To mark their fingers pointed at thy back.
Dryden.

3. Sometimes *of*.—

Blind of the future, and by rage miſled,
He pulls his crimes upon his people's head.
Dryden.

4. Unſeen; out of the publick view; private: generally with ſome tendency to ſome contempt or cenſure.—To grievous and ſcandalous inconveniencies they make themſelves ſubject, with whom any *blind* or ſecret corner is judged a fit houſe of common prayer. *Hooker.* 5. Not eaſily diſcernible; hard to find; dark; obſcure; unſeen.—There be alſo *blind* fires under ſtone, which flame not out; but oil being poured upon them, they flame out. *Bacon.*—

Where elſe
Shall I inform my unacquainted feet
In the *blind* mazes of this tangl'd wood? *Milt.*

How have we wander'd a long diſmal night,
Let through *blind* paths by each deluding light.
Roſcommon.

Part creeping under ground, their journey *blind*,
And climbing from below, their fellows meet.
Dryden.

So mariners miſtake the promis'd guſt,
And, with full ſails, on the *blind* rocks are loſt.
Dryden.

A poſtern door, yet unobſerv'd and free,
Join'd by the length of a *blind* gallery,
To the king's cloſet bed. *Dryden.*

6. *Blind Veſſels.* [with chymiſts.] Such as have no opening but on one ſide.

(2.) * BLIND. *n. ſ.* 1. Something to hinder the ſight.—Hardly any thing in our converſation is pure and genuine; civility caſts a *blind* over the duty, under ſome cuſtomary words. *L'Eſtrange.* 2. Something to miſlead the eye or the underſtanding.—Theſe diſcourſes ſet an oppoſition between his commands and decrees; making the one a *blind* for the execution of the other. *Decay of Piety.*

(3.) BLIND, an epithet applied to a perſon or ſenſitive creature deprived of the uſe of his eyes; or, in other words, to one from whom light, colours, and all the glorious variety of the viſible creation, are intercepted by ſome natural or accidental diſeaſe. Such is the literal acceptation of the term; but it is likewiſe uſed in a metaphorical ſenſe, (ſee § 1. *def.* 2.) and frequently implies, at the ſame time, ſome moral or ſpiritual depravity in the ſoul thus blinded, which is either the efficient or continuing cauſe of this internal malady. Yet, even in metaphor, the epithet is ſometimes applied to a ſpecies of ignorance, which neither involves the idea of real guilt nor of voluntary error. It is, however, our preſent intention to conſider the word, not in its figurative, but in its natural

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natural and primary ſenſe. Nor do we mean in this place to regard it as a ſubject of medical ſpeculation, or to explore its cauſes and enumerate its cures. Theſe belong to another ſcience. See MEDICINE, INDEX. Our chief deſign here is to conſider, By what means this inexpreſſible misfortune may be compenſated or alleviated to thoſe who ſuſtain it; what advantages and conſolations they may derive from it; of what acquiſitions they may be ſuſceptible; what are the proper means of their improvement; or by what culture they may become uſeful to themſelves, and important members of ſociety. See § 5—19.

(4.) BLIND, ACCOUNT OF THE DISTRESSED SITUATION OF THE. There is not perhaps any ſenſe or faculty of the corporeal frame, which affords ſo many ſources of utility and entertainment as the power of viſion; nor is there any privation which can be productive of diſadvantages ſo various, and ſo bitter, as the want of ſight. By no avenue of corporeal perception is knowledge in her full extent, ſo acceſſible to the rational ſoul, as by the glorious and delightful medium of light. For this not only reveals external things in all their beauties, and varieties, but enables the mind to give body, form, and colour, to intellectual ideas; ſo that the whole material and intelligent creation lie open, and the majeſtic frame of nature is perceived at a glance. To the blind, on the contrary, the viſible univerſe is totally annihilated; he has not even any diſtinct idea of ſpace, except that in which he ſtands, or to which his extremities can reach. Sound, indeed, gives him ſome ideas of diſtant objects; but theſe ideas are extremely obſcure and indiſtinct. They are obſcure, becauſe they conſiſt alone of the objects whoſe oſcillations vibrate on his ear, and do not neceſſarily ſuppoſe any other bodies with which the intermediate ſpace may be occupied; they are indiſtinct, becauſe ſounds themſelves are frequently ambiguous, and do not uniformly indicate their real cauſes. And though by them the idea of diſtance in general, or even of ſome particular diſtances, may be obtained; yet they never fill the mind with thoſe vaſt and exalting ideas of extenſion, which are inſpired by ocular perception. For though a clap of thunder, or an exploſion of ordnance, may be diſtinctly heard after the ſound has traverſed an immenſe region of ſpace; yet when the diſtance is uncommonly great, it ceaſes to be indicated by ſound; and therefore the ideas, acquired by auricular experiment, of extenſion and interval, are extremely confuſed and inadequate. The comprehenſive eye darts its inſtantaneous glance over extenſive valleys, lofty mountains, protracted rivers, illimitable oceans. It views in an inſtant the mighty ſpace from earth to heaven, or from one ſtar to another. By the aſſiſtance of teleſcopes, its power is almoſt infinitely extended, its objects prodigiouſly multiplied, and the ſphere of its obſervation immenſely enlarged. Thus the imagination, inured to vaſt impreſſions of diſtance, can not only recal them in their greateſt extent, with as much rapidity as they were at firſt imbibed; but can multiply them, and add one to another, till all particular boundaries and diſtances be loſt in immenſity. The blind are apprehenſive of danger in every motion towards any place, from whence their contracted powers of perception can give them no intelligence. All the various modes of delicate proportion, all the beautiful varieties of light and colours, exhibited in the works of nature and art, are to them irretrievably loſt. Dependent for every thing, but mere exiſtence, on the good offices of others; obnoxious to injury from every point, which they are neither capacitated to perceive nor qualified to reſiſt; they are, during the preſent ſtate of being, rather priſoners at large, than citizens of nature. The ſedentary life, to which by privation of ſight they are deſtined, relaxes their frame, and ſubjects them to all the diſagreeable ſenſations which ariſe from dejection of ſpirits. Hence the moſt feeble exertions create laſſitude and uneaſineſs. Hence the native tone of the nervous ſyſtem, compatible with health and pleaſure, being deſtroyed by inactivity, exaſperates and embitters every diſagreeable impreſſion. Natural evils, however, are ſupportable; being either mild in their attacks, or ſhort in their duration: the miſeries inflicted by conſcious and reflecting agents alone deſerve the name of evils. Theſe excruciate the ſoul with ineffable poignancy, as expreſſive of indifference or malignity in thoſe by whom ſuch bitter portions are cruelly adminiſtered. The negligence or wantonneſs, therefore, with which the blind are too frequently treated, is an enormity which God alone has juſtice or power to puniſh. Thoſe amongſt them who have had ſenſibility to feel, and capacity to expreſs, the effects of their misfortunes, have deſcribed them in a manner capable of penetrating the moſt callous heart. Homer, who, in the perſon of Demodocus the Phæatian bard, is ſaid to have deſcribed his own ſituation, proceeds thus:

Τον περι Μυσ' ἐφίλησε, δίδου δ' ἀγαθόν τε, κακόν τε·
Ὀφθαλμῶν μεν ἀμερσε, δίδου δ' ἡδεῖαν ἀοιδήν. ODYS. θ.

Dear to the muſe, who gave his days to flow
With mighty bleſſings mix'd with mighty woe,
In clouds and darkneſs quench'd his viſual ray,
Yet gave him power to raiſe the lofty lay. POPE.

Our ancient Caledonian bard, Oſſian, who in his old age participated the ſame calamity, has alſo, in more than one paſſage of his works, deſcribed his ſituation in a manner equally delicate and pathetic. And Milton complains, (*Par. Loſt*, B. iii.)

——————" With the year
Seaſons return; but not to me returns
Day, or the ſweet approach of ev'n or morn,
Or ſight of vernal bloom, or ſummer's roſe,
Or flocks, or herds, or human face divine;
But cloud inſtead, and ever during dark,
Surround me, from the chearful ways of men
Cut off." &c.

And in his tragedy of Sampſon Agoniſtes, in the perſon of his hero, he deplores the misfortune of blindneſs with great pathos and energy.

——————But chief of all,
O loſs of ſight, of thee I moſt complain!
Blind among enemies, O worſe than chains,
Dungeon, or beggary, decrepid age.
Light, the prime work of God, to me's extinct,
And all her various objects of delight

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Annull'd, which might in part my grief have eas'd
Inferior to the vileſt now become
Of man or worm. The vileſt here excel me:
They creep, yet ſee.——
Scarce half I ſeem to live, dead more than half
O dark, dark, dark, amid the blaze of noon,
Irrecoverably dark, total eclipſe
Without all hope of day!
Since light ſo neceſſary is to life,
And almoſt life itſelf, why was the ſight
To ſuch a tender ball as th' eye confin'd,
So obvious, and eaſy to be quench'd?
And not, as feeling, through all parts diffus'd,
That ſhe might look at will thro' ev'ry pore?
Then had I not been thus exil'd from light,
As in the land of darkneſs, yet in light
To live a life half dead, a living death:
And buried; but yet more miſerable!
Myſelf the ſepulchre, a moving grave.

Thus dependent on every creature, and paſſive to every accident, can we be ſurpriſed, to obſerve moments when the blind are at variance with themſelves and every thing elſe around them? With the ſame inſtincts of ſelf preſervation, the ſame irraſcible paſſions which are common to the ſpecies, and exaſperated by a ſenſe of debility either for retaliation or defence; can the blind be really objects of reſentment or contempt, even when they ſeem peeviſh or vindictive? This, however, is not always their character. Their behaviour is often highly expreſſive, not only of reſignation, but even of chearfulneſs; and though they are often coldly, and even inhumanly, treated by men, yet they are rarely, if ever, forſaken of heaven. The common Parent of nature, whoſe benignity is permanent as his exiſtence, and boundleſs as his empire, has neither left his afflicted creatures without conſolation nor reſource. See § 5.

(5.) BLIND, ADVANTAGES ENJOYED BY THE. The blind often derive advantages even from their loſs, however oppreſſive and irretrievable; not indeed adequate to compenſate, but ſufficient to alleviate their miſery. The attention of the ſoul, confined to theſe avenues of perception which ſhe can command, is neither diſſipated nor confounded, by the immenſe multiplicity, nor the rapid ſucceſſion of ſurrounding objects. Hence her contemplations are more uniformly fixed upon the revolutions of her own internal frame. Hence her perceptions of ſuch external things, as are contiguous and obvious to her obſervation, become more exquiſite. Hence even her inſtruments of corporeal ſenſation are more aſſiduouſly improved; ſo that from them ſhe derives ſuch notices of approaching pleaſure, or impending danger, as entirely eſcape the attention of thoſe who depend for ſecurity on the reports of their eyes. A blind man, when walking ſwiftly, or running, is kindly checked by nature from rudely encountering ſuch hard and extended objects as might hurt or bruiſe him. When he approaches bodies of this kind, he feels the atmoſphere more ſenſibly reſiſt his progreſs; and in proportion as his motion is accelerated, or his diſtance from the object diminiſhed, the reſiſtance is increaſed. He diſtinguiſhes the approach of his friend by the ſound of his ſteps, by his manner of breathing, and almoſt by every audible token which he can exhibit. Prepared for the dangers which he may encounter, from the ſurface of the ground upon which he walks, his ſtep is habitually firm and cautious. Hence he not only avoids thoſe falls, which might be occaſioned by its leſs formidable inequalities, but from its general bias he collects ſome ideas, how far his ſafety is immediately concerned; and though theſe conjectures may be ſometimes fallacious, yet they are generally ſo true as to preſerve him from ſuch accidents as are not incurred by his own temerity. The rapid torrent and the deep caſcade not only warn him to keep a proper diſtance, but inform him in what direction he moves, and are a kind of audible ſynoſures to regulate his courſe. In places to which he has been accuſtomed, he as it were recogniſes his latitude and longitude, from every breath of varied fragrance that tinges the gale, from every aſcent or declivity in the road, from every natural or artificial ſound that ſtrikes his ear; if theſe indications be ſtationary, and confined to particular places. Regulated by theſe ſigns, the *blind* have not only been known to perform long journeys themſelves, but even to conduct others through dangerous paths at midnight, with the utmoſt ſecurity and exactneſs. See § 11. It would be endleſs to recapitulate the various mechanical operations of which they are capable, by their nicety and accuracy of touch. In ſome the tactile powers are ſaid to have been ſo highly improved, as to perceive that texture and diſpoſition of coloured ſurfaces, by which ſome rays of light are reflected and others abſorbed, and in this manner to diſtinguiſh colours. But the teſtimonies for this fact ſtill appear too vague and general to deſerve public credit. A perſon who loſt the uſe of his ſight at an early period of infancy, who in the vivacity or delicacy of his ſenſations was not perhaps inferior to any one, and who had often heard of others in his ſituation capable of diſtinguiſhing colours by touch, ſtimulated, partly by curioſity to acquire a new train of ideas, if poſſible, but ſtill more by incredulity with reſpect to the facts related, tried repeated experiments, by touching the ſurfaces of different bodies, and examining whether any ſuch diverſities could be found in them, as might enable him to diſtinguiſh colours; but no ſuch diverſity could he ever aſcertain. Sometimes, indeed, he imagined that objects which had no colour, or in other words, ſuch as were black, were ſomewhat different and peculiar in their ſurfaces; but this experiment did not always hold; (See however § 13 & 14.) That their acouſtic perceptions are diſtinct and accurate, we may fairly conclude from the rapidity with which they aſcertain the acuteneſs or gravity of different tones, and from their exact diſcernment of the various modifications of ſound, and of ſonorous objects, if the ſounds themſelves be in any degree ſignificant of their cauſes. From this accuracy of external ſenſation and from the aſſiduous and vigorous applications of a comprehenſive and attentive mind alone, we are able to account for the rapid and aſtoniſhing progreſs which ſome of them have made, not only in thoſe departments of literature, which were moſt obvi-

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ous to their ſenſes, and acceſſible to their underſtandings, but even in the moſt abſtract ſciences. What, for inſtance, can be more remote from the conceptions of a blind man, than the abſtract relations and properties of ſpace and quantity? Yet the incomprehenſible attainments of Dr Saunderſon in all the branches of mathematics are now fully known and firmly believed by the whole literary world, both from the teſtimony of his pupils, and the publication of his works. But ſhould the fact be ſtill deemed uncertain, it might be verified by a living prodigy of this kind, with which our country is at preſent honoured; who, though blind from his infancy, by the aſſiduity of his application, and by the force of a genius to which nothing is impenetrable, has not only made incredible advances in mechanical operations, in muſic, and in the languages; but is likewiſe profoundly ſkilled in geometry, in algebra, in aſtronomy, in chemiſtry, and in all the other branches of natural philoſophy, as taught by Newton, and received by an admiring world, even *optics* not excepted. See § 7.

(6.) BLIND, A PHENOMENON RESPECTING THE, NOT ACCOUNTED FOR. When we ruminate on the numberleſs advantages derived from the uſe of ſight, and its immenſe importance, in extending the human capacity, and improving every faculty of the mind, we might be tempted to doubt the reports concerning ſuch perſons as, without the aſſiſtance of light, have arrived at high degrees of eminence even in thoſe ſciences which appear abſolutely unattainable but by the interpoſition of external mediums. It has, however, been demonſtrated, by the late ingenious Dr Reid, that blind men, by proper inſtructions, are ſuſceptible of almoſt every idea, and every truth which can be impreſſed on the mind by the mediation of light and colours, except the ſenſations of light and colours themſelves. (*Inquiry into the Human Mind.* vi. § 1, 2.) Yet there is one phenomenon of this kind, which ſeems to have eſcaped the attention of that great philoſopher, and for which no author has offered any tolerable reaſon, though it certainly merits the attention of a philoſopher. For though we ſhould admit, that the blind can underſtand with great perſpicuity all the phenomena of light and colours; though it were allowed, that on theſe ſubjects they might extend their ſpeculations beyond their inſtructions, and inveſtigate the mechanical principles of optics by the mere force of genius and application, from the data which they have already obtained; yet it will be difficult, if not impoſſible, to aſſign any reaſon why theſe objects ſhould be more intereſting to a blind man, than any other abſtract truths whatever. It is poſſible for the blind, by a retentive memory, to tell, That the ſky is an azure; that the ſun, moon, and ſtars, are bright; that the roſe is red, the lily white or yellow, and the tulip variegated. By continually hearing theſe ſubſtantives and adjectives joined, he may be mechanically taught to join them in the ſame manner; but as he never had any ſenſation of colour, however accurately he may ſpeak of coloured objects, his language muſt be like that of a parrot; without meaning, and without ideas. Homer, Milton, and Oſſian, had been long acquainted with the viſible world, before they were ſurrounded with clouds and ever-during darkneſs. They might, therefore, ſtill retain the pleaſing impreſſions of what they had ſeen. Their deſcriptions might be animated with all the rapture and enthuſiaſm which originally fired their boſoms, when the grand or delightful objects which they delineated were immediately beheld. Nay, that enthuſiaſm might ſtill be heightened by a bitter ſenſe of their loſs, and by that regret which a ſituation ſo diſmal might naturally inſpire. But how ſhall we account for the ſame energy, the ſame tranſport of deſcription, exhibited by thoſe on whoſe minds viſible objects were either never impreſſed, or have been entirely obliterated? Yet, however unaccountable this fact may appear, it is no leſs extraordinary than true. See the *Preface* to *Blacklock's Poems*, written by G. G. Eſq. and printed at Edinburgh in 1754; or the account of his life and writings by the Rev. Mr Spence, prefixed to a 4to edition of his poems, publiſhed at London in 1756. A foreign author, a ſtranger to the Dr, ſays, "Blacklock will appear to poſterity a fabulous character; even now he is a prodigy." See BLACKLOCK.

(7.) BLIND, ASTONISHING ACQUISITIONS MADE BY SOME OF THE. Dr Nicholas Bacon, a blind gentleman, deſcended from the ſame family with the celebrated Lord Verulam, was, in the city of Bruſſels, with high approbation created L. L. D. He was deprived of ſight at 9 years of age by an arrow from a croſs-bow whilſt he was attempting to ſhoot it. When he had recovered his health, which had ſuffered by the ſhock, he purſued the ſame plan of education in which he had been engaged; and having heard that one Niceſius de Vaurde, born blind, who lived towards the end of the 15th century, after having diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his ſtudies in the univerſity of Louvain, took his degree as D. D. in that of Cologne, he reſolved to make the ſame attempt. But the public, curſed with prejudices for which the meaneſt ſenſative nature might bluſh, prejudices equally beneath the brutality and ignorance of the loweſt animal inſtinct, treated his intention with ridicule: even the profeſſors themſelves were not far from being of the ſame ſentiment; and they admitted him into their ſchools, rather from an impreſſion that it might amuſe him, than become of any uſe to him. He had the good fortune, however, contrary to their expectations, to obtain the firſt places among his condiſciples. It was then ſaid, that ſuch rapid advances might be made in the preliminary branches of his education; but would ſoon be effectually checked by ſtudies of a more profound and abſtracted nature. This, it ſeems, was repeated from ſchool to ſchool, through the whole climax of his purſuits; and when, in the courſe of academical learning, it became neceſſary to ſtudy poetry, it was the general voice that all was over, and at length he had reached his *ne plus ultra*. But here he likewiſe diſappointed their prejudices, and taught them the immenſe difference between blindneſs of body and blindneſs of ſoul. After continuing his ſtudies in learning and philoſophy for two years more, he applied himſelf to law, took his degree in that ſcience, commenced pleading counſellor

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or advocate in the council of Brabant, and has had the pleaſure of terminating almoſt every ſuit in which he has been engaged to the ſatisfaction of his clients. The following anecdotes of Dr Moyes were not long ago preſented to the Manchester Society by Dr G. Bew, and afterwards publiſhed. "Dr Henry Moyes, who occaſionally read lectures on philoſophical chemiſtry at Manchester, like Dr Saunderſon, the celebrated profeſſor of Cambridge, loſt his ſight by the ſmall-pox in his early infancy. He never recollected to have ſeen: 'but the firſt traces of memory I have (ſays he) are in ſome confuſed ideas of the ſolar ſyſtem.' He had the good fortune to be born in a country where learning of every kind is highly cultivated, and to be brought up in a family devoted to learning. Poſſeſſed of native genius, and ardent in his application, he made rapid advances in various departments of erudition; and not only acquired the fundamental principles of mechanics, muſic, and the languages, but likewiſe entered deeply into the inveſtigation of the profounder ſciences, and diſplayed an acute and general knowledge of geometry, optics, algebra, aſtronomy, chemiſtry, and in ſhort of moſt of the branches of the Newtonian philoſophy. Mechanical exerciſes were the favourite employments of his infant years. At a very early age he made himſelf acquainted with the uſe of edged tools ſo perfectly, that notwithſtanding his entire blindneſs, he was able to make little wind-mills; and he even conſtructed a loom with his own hands, which ſtill ſhow the cicatrices of wounds he received in the execution of theſe juvenile exploits. By a moſt agreeable intimacy and frequent intercourſe which I enjoyed with this accompliſhed blind gentleman, whilſt he reſided at Manchester, I had an opportunity of repeatedly obſerving the peculiar manner in which he arranged his ideas and acquired his information. Whenever he was introduced into company, I remarked that he continued ſome time ſilent. The ſound directed him to judge of the dimenſions of the room, and the different voices of the number of perſons that were preſent. His diſtinctions in theſe reſpects were very accurate; and his memory ſo retentive that he ſeldom was miſtaken. I have known him inſtantly recognize a perſon, on firſt hearing him ſpeak, though more than two years had elapſed ſince the time of their laſt meeting. He determined pretty nearly the ſtature of thoſe he was ſpeaking with by the direction of their voices; and he made tolerable conjectures reſpecting their tempers and diſpoſitions, by the manner in which they conducted their converſation. It muſt be obſerved, that this gentleman's eyes were not totally inſenſible to intenſe light. The rays refracted through a priſm, when ſufficiently vivid, produced certain diſtinguiſhable effects on them. The red gave him a diſagreeable ſenſation, which he compared to the touch of a ſaw. As the colours declined in violence the harſhneſs leſſened, until the green afforded a ſenſation that was highly pleaſing to him, and which he deſcribed as conveying an idea ſimilar to what he felt in running his hand over ſmooth poliſhed ſurfaces. Poliſhed ſurfaces, meandring ſtreams, and gentle declivities, were the figures by which he expreſſed his ideas of beauty: Rugged rocks, irregular points, and boiſterous elements, furniſhed him with expreſſions for terror and diſguſt. He excelled in the charms of converſation; was happy in his alluſions to viſual objects; and diſcourſed on the nature, compoſition, and beauty of colours, with pertinence and preciſion. Dr Moyes was a ſtriking inſtance of the power the human ſoul poſſeſſes, of finding reſources of ſatisfaction, even under the moſt rigorous calamities. Though involved 'in ever during darkneſs,' and excluded from the charming views of ſilent or animated nature; though dependent on an undertaking for the means of his ſubſiſtence, the ſucceſs of which was very precarious; in ſhort, though deſtitute of other ſupport than his genius, and under the mercenary protection of a perſon whoſe integrity he ſuſpected, ſtill Dr Moyes was generally chearful, and apparently happy. Indeed it muſt afford much pleaſure to the feeling heart, to obſerve this hilarity of temper prevail almoſt univerſally with the blind. Though 'cut off from the ways of men, and the contemplation of the human face divine,' they have this conſolation; they are exempt from the diſcernment, and contagious influence of thoſe painful emotions of the ſoul, that are viſible on the countenance, and which hypocriſy itſelf can ſcarcely conceal. This diſpoſition likewiſe may be conſidered as an internal evidence of the native worth of the human mind, that thus ſupports its dignity and chearfulneſs under one of the ſevereſt misfortunes that can poſſibly befal us." There are few ſciences in which the blind have not diſtinguiſhed themſelves: even thoſe whoſe acquiſition ſeemed eſſentially to depend upon viſion, have at laſt yielded to genius and induſtry, though deprived of that advantage. Profeſſor Saunderson has left the moſt ſtriking evidences of aſtoniſhing proficiency in thoſe abſtract branches of mathematics, which appeared leaſt acceſſible to blind perſons. Sculpture is not the moſt practicable art for a blind man, yet there are inſtances of perſons, who have taken the figure of a face by the touch, and moulded it in wax with the utmoſt exactneſs; as was the caſe of the blind ſculptor mentioned by De Piles, who thus took the likeneſs of the Duke de Bracciano in a dark ceſſar, and made a marble ſtatue of K. Charles I. with great elegance and juſtneſs. (*Cours de Peint. p.* 329. *Wolf. Pſychol. Rat.* § 162.) And, however unaccountable it may appear to the abſtract philoſopher, yet nothing is more certain in fact, than that a blind man may, by the efforts of a cultivated genius, exhibit in poetry the moſt natural images and animated deſcriptions, even of viſible objects, without either incurring or deſerving the imputation of plagiariſm. In muſic, there are at preſent living inſtances how far the blind may proceed. In former periods we ſhall find illuſtrious examples, how amply nature has capacitated the blind to excel, both in the ſcientific and practical departments of muſic. In the 16th century, when the progreſs of improvement both in melody and harmony was rapid and conſpicuous, Francis Salinas was eminently diſtinguiſhed. He was born A. D. 1513, at Burgos in Spain; and was ſon to the treaſurer of that city. Though afflicted with incurable blindneſs, he was profoundly ſkilled both

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in the theory and practice of muſic. As a performer, he is celebrated by his cotemporaries with the higheſt encomiums. As a theoriſt, Sir John Hawkins ſays, his book is equal in value to any now extant in any language. Though he was deprived of ſight in his earlieſt infancy, he did not content himſelf to delineate the various phenomena in muſic, but the principles from whence they reſult, the relations of ſound, the nature of arithmetical, geometrical, and harmonical ratios, which were then eſteemed eſſential to the theory of muſic, with a degree of intelligence which would have deſerved admiration, though he had been in full poſſeſſion of every ſenſe requiſite for theſe diſquiſitions. He was taken to Rome in the retinue of Petrus Sarmentus, archbiſhop of Compoſtella; and having paſſed 20 years in Italy, he returned to Salamanca, where he obtained the profeſſorſhip of muſic, an office at that time equally reſpectable and lucrative. Having diſcharged it with reputation and ſucceſs for ſome time, he died at the venerable age of 77. In the ſame period flouriſhed CASPAR CRUMBHORN, blind from the 3d year of his age: yet he compoſed ſeveral pieces in many parts with ſo much ſucceſs, and performed both upon the flute and violin ſo exquiſitely, that he was diſtinguiſhed by Auguſtus elector of Saxony. But preferring his native country, Sileſia, to every other, he returned to it, and was appointed organiſt of the church of St Peter and Paul in Lignitz, where he had often the direction of the muſical college, and died June 11, 1621. To theſe might be added MARTIN PESENTI of Venice, a compoſer of vocal and inſtrumental muſic almoſt of all kinds, though blind from his nativity; with other examples equally worthy of public attention. But if vulgar prejudice is capable of bluſhing at its own contemptible character, or of yielding to conviction, thoſe already quoted are more than ſufficient to ſhow the muſical jugglers of our time, that their art is no monopoly, with which thoſe alone who ſee are inveſted, by the irrevocable decree of heaven. See farther, § 11—15.

(8.) BLIND, EDUCATION OF THE. It is ſcarce poſſible to lay down a plan, or enter into a detail of particulars with reſpect to the education of the blind. Theſe muſt be determined by the genius, the capacity, and the circumſtances, of thoſe to whom the general rules ſhould be applied. Much therefore muſt depend on their fortunes, much on their temper and genius; for unleſs theſe particulars were known, every anſwer which could be given to queſtions of this kind muſt be extremely general, and of conſequence extremely ſuperficial. Beſides, the taſk is ſo much more arduous, becauſe whoever attempts it can expect to derive no aſſiſtance from thoſe who have written on education before him: And though the blind have excelled in more than one ſcience; yet, except in the caſe of Dr Saunderſon, (ſee § 7 & 15.) it does not appear, that any of them have been conducted to that degree of eminence, at which they arrived, upon a premeditated plan. One ſhould rather imagine, that they have been led through the general courſe and ordinary forms of diſcipline; and that, if any circumſtances were favourable to their genius, they rather proceeded from accident than deſign. This melancholy truth reflects no honour on human nature. When contemplated by a man of benevolence, it is not eaſy to gueſs whether his mortification or aſtoniſhment will be greateſt. A heart that glows with real philanthropy feels for the whole vital creation, and becomes, in ſome meaſure, the *ſenſorium* of every ſuffering inſect or reptile. How muſt our ſympathy increaſe then in tenderneſs and force, when the diſtreſſed individuals of our own ſpecies become its objects? Nor do the blind bear ſo ſmall a proportion to the whole community, as, even in a political view, to be neglected. But in this, as in every other political crime, the puniſhment returns upon the ſociety in which it is committed. Thoſe abandoned and unimproved beings, who, under proper culture and diſcipline, might have ſucceſsfully concurred in producing and augmenting the general welfare, become the nuiſances and burdens of thoſe very ſocieties who have neglected them. There is perhaps no claſs of beings in the ſenſible univerſe, who have ſuffered from nature or accident, more meritorious of public compaſſion, or better qualified to repay its generous exertions, than the blind. They are meritorious of compaſſion; for their ſphere of action and enjoyment is much more limited than that of the deaf, the lame, or of thoſe who labour under any other corporeal infirmity conſiſtent with health: although, on the other hand, it muſt be owned, that they are more capable of acquiring moſt branches of ſcience than thoſe born deaf. They are better qualified to repay any friendly interpoſition for their happineſs; becauſe, free from the diſtraction which attends that multiplicity of objects and purſuits, that are continually obvious to the ſight, they are more attentive to their own internal economy, to the particular notices of good and evil impreſſed on their hearts, and to that peculiar province in which they are circumſcribed, by the nature and cultivation of their powers. The moſt important view, which we can entertain in the education of a perſon deprived of ſight, is to redreſs, as effectually as we poſſibly can, the natural diſadvantages with which he is encumbered; or, in other words, to enlarge as far as poſſible the ſphere of his knowledge and activity. This can only be done by the improvement of his intellectual, imaginative, or mechanical, powers; and which of theſe ought to be moſt aſſiduouſly cultivated, the genius of every individual alone can determine. Were men to judge of things by their intrinſic natures, leſs would be expected from the blind than others. But, by ſome pernicious and unaccountable prejudice, people generally hope to find them either poſſeſſed of preternatural talents, or more attentive to thoſe which they have than others; thinking with Rocheſter,

> That if one ſenſe ſhould be ſuppreſs'd,
> It but retires into the reſt.

Hence it unluckily happens, that blind men, who in common life are too often regarded as *rare-ſhows*, when they do not gratify the extravagant expectations of their ſpectators, frequently ſink in the general opinion, and appear much leſs conſiderable and meritorious than they really are. This general diffidence of their powers deprives them both

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both of opportunity and ſpirit to exert themſelves; and they deſcend, at laſt, to that degree of inſignificance, in which the public eſtimate has fixed them. From the original dawning, therefore, of reaſon and ſpirit, the parents and tutors of the blind ought to inculcate this maxim upon them, That it is their indiſpenſible duty to excel, and that it is abſolutely in their power to attain a high degree of eminence. To impreſs this notion on their minds, the firſt objects preſented to their obſervation, and the firſt methods of improvements applied to their underſtanding, ought to be comprehenſible by thoſe internal powers and external ſenſes which they poſſeſs. Not that improvement ſhould be rendered quite eaſy to them. For all difficulties, which are not inſuperable, heighten the charms and enhance the value of thoſe acquiſitions which they ſeem to retard. But care ſhould be taken that theſe difficulties be not magnified or exaggerated; for the blind have a painful ſenſe of their own incapacity, and conſequently a ſtrong propenſity to deſpair. For this reaſon, parents and relations ought never to be too ready in offering their aſſiſtance to the blind in any office which they can perform, or in any acquiſition which they can procure for themſelves, whether they are prompted by amuſement or neceſſity. Let a blind boy be permitted to walk through the neighbourhood without a guide, not only though he ſhould run ſome hazard, but even though he ſhould ſuffer ſome pain. If he has a mechanical turn, let him not be denied the uſe of edge tools; for it is better that he ſhould loſe a little blood, or even break a bone, than be perpetually confined to the ſame place, debilitated in his frame, and depreſſed in his mind. Such a being can have no employment but to feel his own weakneſs, and become his own tormentor; or to transfer to others the peeviſhneſs ariſing from the natural, adventitious, or imaginary evils which he feels. Scars, fractures, and diſlocations in his body, are trivial misfortunes compared with imbecility, timidity, or fretfulneſs of mind. Beſides the dreadful effects, which inactivity has in relaxing the nerves and depreſſing the ſpirits, nothing can be more productive of jealouſy, envy, peeviſhneſs, and every paſſion that corrodes the ſoul to agony, than a painful impreſſion of dependence on others, and of our inſufficiency for our own happineſs. This impreſſion, which, even in his moſt improved ſtate, will be too deeply felt by every blind man, is redoubled by that utter incapacity of action, which muſt reſult from the officious humanity of thoſe, who would anticipate all his wants, who would prevent all his motions, who would do or procure every thing for him without his own interpoſition. Blind people, as well as others, may ſurvive their parents, and thoſe who, by the ties of blood and nature, are more immediately intereſted in their happineſs than the reſt of mankind. When, therefore, they fall into the hands of ſtrangers, ſuch exigencies, as they themſelves cannot redreſs, will be but coldly and languidly ſupplied by others. Their expectations will be high and frequent, their diſappointments many and ſenſible; their petitions will often be refuſed, ſeldom fully gratified; and, even when granted, the conceſſion will be ſo ungraceful, as to render its want infinitely more tolerable, than its fruition. For all theſe reaſons, in the education of a blind man, it is better to direct than ſuperſede his own exertions. From the time that he can move and feel, let him be taught to ſupply his own exigencies; to dreſs and feed himſelf; to run from place to place, either for exerciſe, or in purſuit of his own toys or neceſſaries. In theſe excurſions, however, it will be proper for his parents or tutor to ſuperintend his motions at a diſtance, without ſeeming to watch over him. A vigilance too apparent, may impreſs him with a notion that ſome ſelfiſh motive may have produced it. When dangers are obvious and great, ſuch as from rivers, precipices, &c. thoſe who are entruſted with the blind need not make their vigilance a ſecret. They ought to acquaint their pupil, that they are preſent, and interpoſe for his preſervation, whenever his temerity renders it neceſſary. But objects of a nature leſs noxious, which may give him ſome pain without any permanent injury or mutilation, may even with deſign be thrown in his way; provided that this deſign be always induſtriouſly concealed. For his own experience of their bad effects will be a far more eloquent and ſenſible monitor, than the abſtract and frigid counſels of any adviſer whatever. The natural curioſity of children renders them extremely inquiſitive. This diſpoſition is often peculiarly prevalent in the blind. Parents and tutors, therefore, ſhould gratify it whenever their anſwers can be intelligible to the pupil; when it is otherwiſe, let him candidly confeſs the impoſſibility or impropriety of anſwering his queſtions. At this period, if their hearts be tender, and their powers inventive, they may render his amuſements the vehicles, and his toys the inſtruments, of improvement: why, for inſtance, may not the centrifugal and centripetal forces be illuſtrated from the motion of a top, or the nature and power of elaſticity by the rebound of a ball? Theſe hints may lead to others, which, if happily improved, may wonderfully facilitate the progreſs of knowledge. Nor will the violence of exerciſe, and the tumult of play, be productive of ſuch perils as may be apprehended. For the encouragement of parents, we can aſſure them, that though, till the age of 20, ſome blind perſons were on moſt occaſions permitted to walk, to run, to play at large, they have yet eſcaped without any corporeal injury from theſe excurſions. Parents in the middle, or higher ranks, who have blind children, ought, by all means, to keep them out of vulgar company. Such perſons often have a wanton malignity, which impels them to impoſe upon the blind, and to enjoy their painful ſenſations. This is a ſtricture upon the humanity of our ſpecies, which nothing but the love of truth and the dictates of benevolence could extort. Some have ſuffered ſo much from this diabolical mirth in their own perſons, that it is a duty to prevent others from becoming its victims. Blind people have infinitely more to fear from the levity and ignorance, than from the ſelfiſhneſs and ill-nature of mankind. In ſerious and important affairs, pride and compaſſion ſuſpend the efforts of knavery or ſpleen; and that very infirmity, which ſo frequently renders the blind defenceleſs to the arts

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arts of the infidious, or to the attempts of malice, is a powerful incentive to pity, which is capable of disarming fury itself. Villany, which frequently piques itself more upon the arts by which it prevails, than upon the advantages which it obtains, may often with contempt reject the blind, as subjects below its operation; but the ill-natured buffoon considers the most malicious effects of his merriment as a mere jest, without reflecting on the shame or indignation which they inspire, when inflicted on a sensible temper. But the credulity and ignorance of the lower class are no less dangerous than their false wit. The illiterate have often a strong propensity to relate whatever is marvellous and dreadful. These impressions, when early imbibed, can scarcely be eradicated by all the conspiring efforts of mature reason and confirmed experience. Those philosophers who have attempted to break the alliance between darkness and spectres, were certainly inspired by laudable motives. Were we endowed with senses to advertise us of every noxious object before its contiguity could render it formidable, our panics would probably be less frequent and sensible than we really feel them. Darkness and silence, therefore, have something dreadful in them, because they supersede the vigilance of those senses which give us the earliest notices of things. In talking, therefore, to a blind boy of invisible beings, let benevolence be an inseparable ingredient in their character. We may tell him of departed spirits, anxious for the welfare of their surviving friends; of ministring angels, who descend with pleasure from heaven to execute the purposes of their Maker's benignity; we may even regale his imagination with the sportive gambols and innocent frolics of fairies; but let him hear as seldom as possible, even in stories which he knows to be fabulous, of vindictive ghosts, vindictive fiends, or avenging furies. They seize and pre-occupy every avenue of terror which is open in the soul; nor are they easily dispossessed. Sooner may we hope to exorcise a ghost, than to obliterate their images in a warm and susceptible imagination, where they have been habitually impressed, and where these feelings cannot be dissipated by external phenomena. If horrors of this kind should agitate the heart of a blind boy, (which may happen notwithstanding the most strenuous endeavours to prevent it,) the stories which he has heard will be most effectually discredited by ridicule. This, however, must be cautiously applied, by gentle gradations. If he is inspired with terror by effects upon his senses, the causes of which he cannot investigate, pains must be taken to explain these phenomena, and to confirm that explication, whenever it can be done, by the testimony of his own senses and his own experience. The exertion of his locomotive and mechanical powers will sensibly contribute to dispel these terrors. His inventive faculties ought likewise to be indulged with the same freedom. The data which they explore may be presented in such a manner, as to render discoveries easy; but still let invention be allowed to co-operate. The internal triumph which the mind feels from the attainment of near truths, heightens their charms, impresses them deep on the memory, and gives them a lasting influence in practice. There are people whose views and education have been strictly confined to one province, and whose conversation is of consequence limited and technical. These, in literary intercourse, or fashionable life, are branded with the name of *mere men of business*. Nor is it any wonder, that the conversation of such persons should prove exceedingly disgusting. It would be arrogance in them to expect, that indifferent persons should either enter into their private interests, or the peculiarities of their craft, with a warmth equal to their own. We have known the intrusion of such a person involve a numerous company in gloom, and terminate the freedom and vivacity of agreeable discourse, in lazy yawning and discontented silence. Of all innocent characters, this ought to be avoided by the blind; because, of all others, it is the character which they run the greatest hazard of adopting. The limitation of their powers naturally contracts their views and pursuits, and, as it were, concentres their whole intellectual faculties in one, or at least in a few objects. Care should therefore be taken to afford the mind a theatre for its exertions, as extensive as possible, without diverting it from one great end, which, in order to excel, it ought for ever to have in view.

(9.) BLIND, EMPLOYMENTS PROPER FOR THE. If the pupil be not in easy circumstances, music is his readiest and most probable resource. Civil and ecclesiastical employments have either something in their own nature, or in the invincible prejudices of mankind, which renders them entirely inaccessible to such as have not the use of sight. No liberal and cultivated mind can entertain the least hesitation in concluding, that there is nothing, either in the nature of things, or even in the positive institutions of genuine religion, repugnant to the idea of a blind clergyman. But the novelty of the phenomenon, while it astonishes persons of contracted understandings, inflames their zeal to madness. Besides, the adventitious trappings and ceremonies, assumed by some churches as the drapery of religion, would, according to these systems, render the sacerdotal office painful, if not impracticable, to the blind. With regard to the law, were it not for a fact so striking and so well authenticated, as that of Dr Bacon, (See § 7.) though there could have been no doubt that a blind man might discharge the office of a chamber counsel with success; yet as a barrister, his difficulties must have appeared formidable, if not absolutely insuperable. For he must remember all the sources, whether in natural equity or positive institutions, whether in common or statutory law, from whence his arguments ought to be drawn. He must be able to specify, and to arrange in their proper order, all the material objections of his antagonists: these he must likewise answer as they are proposed, *extempore*. When, therefore, it is considered how difficult it is, to temper the natural associations of memory with the artificial arrangements of judgment, the desultory flights of imagination with the calm and regular deductions of reason, the energy and perturbation of passion with the coolness and tranquillity of deliberation; some idea may be formed of the arduous task which every blind man must atchieve,

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atchieve, who undertakes the law as a profeſſion. Perhaps aſſiſtances might be drawn from Cicero's treatiſe on Tropics and on Invention: which if improved might leſſend the iſparity of a blind man to others, but could ſcarcely place him on an equal footing with his brethren. And it ought to be fixed as an inviolable maxim, that no blind man ought to engage in any province, in which it is not in his power to *excel*. For the conciouſneſs of the obvious advantages poſſeſſed by others, habitually prediſpoſes a blind man to deſpondency; and if he ever gives way to deſpair (which he will be too apt to do, when purſuing any acquiſition, where others have a better chance of ſucceſs than himſelf,) adieu to all proficiency. His ſoul ſinks into irretrievable depreſſion; his abortive attempts inceſſantly prey upon his ſpirit; and he not only loſes that vigour and elaſticity of mind, which are neceſſary to carry him through life, but that patience and ſerenity which alone can qualify him to enjoy it. As to phyſic, the obſtacles which a blind man muſt encounter, both in the theory and practice of that art, will be eaſily conceived. If the blind muſt depend upon the exerciſe of their own powers for bread, we have already pointed out muſic as their eaſieſt and moſt obvious province: but let it be remembered, that mediocrity in this art may prove the bittereſt and moſt effectual curſe, which a parent can inflict upon his offſpring; as it ſubjects them to every vicious impreſſion or habit, which may be imbibed or contracted, from the loweſt and moſt abandoned of mankind. If your pupil, therefore, be not endowed with natural talents exquiſitely proper both for the theory and practice of this art, ſuffer him by no means to be initiated in it. If his natural genius favours your attempts, the ſpinet, harp, or organ, are the moſt proper inſtruments for him to begin; becauſe, by theſe inſtruments, he may be made more eaſily acquainted with the extent of muſical ſcales, with the powers of harmony, with the relations of which it is conſtituted, and of courſe with the theory of his art. It would be not only unneſſary, but impracticable, to carry him deep into the theory, before he has attained ſome facility in the practice. Let, therefore, his head and his hands be taught to go *pari paſſu*.—Let the one be inſtructed in the ſimpleſt elements, and the others connected in the eaſieſt operations firſt: contemplation and excerciſe will produce light in the one and promptitude in the other.—But as his capacity of ſpeculation and powers of action become more and more mature, diſcoveries more abſtract and retired, taſks more arduous and difficult, may be aſſigned him. He ſhould be taught the names and gradations of the diatonic ſcale, the nature and uſe of time, the diverſity of modes whether ſimple or mixed. He ſhould be taught the quantity or value of notes, not only with reſpect to their pitch, but to their duration. Yet let him be inſtructed not to conſider theſe durations as abſolutely fixed, but variable according to the velocity of the movements in which they are placed. Thus we reckon a ſemibreve equal to 4 vibrations of a pendulum; a minim to 2; a crotchet to 1, &c. But if the number of aliquot parts, into which a ſemibreve is divided, be great, and conſequently the value of each particular part ſmall, the minim, crotchet, quaver, &c. will increaſe in their intrinſic durations, though they muſt always preſerve the ſame proportions relatively one to another. He ſhould never be habituated to take a piece of muſic, either from the ſound of a voice or an inſtrument. His companion ought to read the muſic by the names and values of its characters, with the ſame exactneſs as the words in any other language. When he becomes a conſiderable adept in the art, tangible ſigns may be uſed, (See § 16.) by which he may not only be enabled to read, but even to ſet muſic for himſelf. Such exerciſes will render him infinitely more accurate, both in his principles and practice, than he would otherwiſe be.

(10.) BLIND, EXERCISES, DIET, &c. PROPER FOR THE. When the volatile ſeaſon of puerile amuſement is expired, and the impetuous hurry of animal ſpirits ſubſides, the tutor will probably obſerve in his pupil a more ſenſible degree of timidity and precaution, and his activity will then require to be ſtimulated more than reſtrained. In this criſis, exerciſe will be found requiſite, rather to preſerve health, and facilitate the vital functions, than merely for recreation. Of all kinds of exerciſe, riding on horſeback, is by far the moſt eligible. Care, however, muſt be taken that the horſes employed be neither capricious nor unmanageable; for on this not only his ſafety, but his confidence, will entirely depend. In all his excurſions, his attendant ought conſtantly to be with him; and the horſe ſhould always either be taught implicitly to follow its guide, or be conducted by a leading rein beſides the bridle which he himſelf holds. Next to this mode of exerciſe is walking. If the conſtitution of the blind boy be tolerably robuſt, let him be taught to endure every viciſſitude of weather, which the human ſpecies can bear with impunity. For if he has been bred with too much delicacy, particular accidents may ſuperſede all his former ſcruples, and ſubject him to the neceſſity of ſuffering, what will not only be ſevere in its ſenſation, but dangerous in its conſequences. Yet, when the cold is ſo intenſe, or the elements ſo tempeſtuous, as to render air and exerciſe abroad impracticable, there are methods of domeſtic exerciſe, which may be practiſed; ſuch as dumb bells, or the bath chair. The firſt of theſe are made of lead, conſiſting of a cylinder, the middle of which may either be rectilineal or arcuated for the conveniency of holding, and terminates at each end in a ſemiglobular maſs. Their weight ſhould be conformed to the ſtrength of the perſon who uſes them. The method of employing them is to take one in each hand, and ſwing them backwards and forewards over his head, deſcribing a figure ſomewhat like a parabola. This not only ſtrengthens the arms, and opens the cheſt, but promotes the circulation of the fluids. The bath chair is a deal 12 feet in length, as free from knots and as elaſtic as poſſible, ſupported by a fulcrum at each end, upon which may be placed two rolling cylinders to give it greater play; when ſeated upon this, by alternately depreſſing it with his own weight, and ſuffering it to return to its natural ſituation, he gives himſelf a motion, ſomewhat reſembling the trot of a horſe. The elaſtic chair is of ſtill greater utility, eſpecially to one in a valetudinary

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ketudinary ſtate. It conſiſts of 3 falſe bottoms, and one real, which is the baſis of the whole.—The loweſt is by far the moſt extenſive. The higheſt is ſtuffed to render it eaſy, and covered with pluſh, baize, or duffle. Between each of the falſe bottoms, at either end, behind and before, are placed ſteel ſprings, fixed above and below to the boards; with ſtaples, and curved in a ſpiral or ſerpentine form, each conſiſting of 7 ſpires; which are formed in ſuch a manner, that one of them can paſs through another, and thus give the ſprings full play in riſing or deſcending. The loweſt bottom or baſis of the whole is protruded about 4 inches; which aſſiſts one to mount the ſeat with more facility, and ſerves as a ſupport for the feet in riding. The operation is performed by alternately depreſſing and raiſing one's ſelf upon the ſeat; ſo that the ſprings yielding to the weight when the perſon deſcends, and reſiſting when he riſes, give a motion like that of the deal, but more violent, more rapid, and conſequently more ſalutary. The whole frame of the ſeat is ſurrounded with leather, having different apertures to admit or eject the air occaſioned by the motion. Theſe general hints are ſufficient to give any ingenious artiſan an idea of the nature and ſtructure of the machine, which he may alter or improve as conveniency ſhall dictate. To theſe modes of domeſtic exerciſe may be added that of a ſwing, which is formed by a rope ſuſpended from two ſcrews, which ought to be ſtrongly fixed at proper diſtances, in the joiſts of a capacious chamber, with a board and a cuſhion for a ſeat, and cords faſtened behind and before, leſt the impetuoſity of the motion ſhould ſhake the patient out of his poſition. The blind, in diet as well as in exerciſe, ſhould neither be mechanically regular, nor entirely excentric. In the one caſe, he will be a ſlave to habit, which may create ſome inconvenience; in the other, he will form no habits at all, which may ſtill be productive of greater. The blind being liable to all the inconveniences of a ſedentary life, are peculiarly ſubjected to that diſorder, called *tædium vitæ*, or low ſpirits. This indiſpoſition may be ſaid to comprehend in it all the other evils of human life; becauſe, by its immediate influence on the mind, it aggravates the weight and bitterneſs of every calamity to which we are obnoxious. Parents and tutors, therefore, cannot be too careful in obſerving and obviating the firſt ſymptoms of this impending plague. If the limbs of a blind child or pupil be tremulous; if he is apt to ſtart, and eaſily ſuſceptible of ſurpriſe; if he finds it difficult to ſleep; if his ſlumbers, when commenced are frequently interrupted, and attended with perturbation; if his ordinary exerciſes appear to him more terrible and more inſuperable than uſual; if his appetites become languid and his digeſtion ſlow; if agreeable occurrences give him leſs pleaſure, and adverſe events more pain than they ought to inſpire;—this is the criſis of vigorous interpoſition. A proper ſtrengthening diet, and moderate exerciſe are the beſt preventives of this evil, and perhaps its beſt remedies when unhappily incurred. Animal food is the moſt proper nutriment, as being of eaſieſt digeſtion; better too, if done upon the ſpit or gridiron: neither ſhould it be too fat: beef, mutton, or fowls, arrived at maturity, give the ſtomach leaſt labour, and are moſt nutritive. Of all vegetable ſubſtances, white bread is perhaps the only ingredient which may be eat with impunity; and even this would ſtill be ſafer were it prepared without fermentation. Eggs may be eat by people in low ſpirits, even at ſupper, with great advantage. Herbs and roots are not only extremely flatulent, but productive of that ſharp acid for which magneſia is the beſt remedy. Patients of this deſcription ſhould rather be frequent than liberal in their meals, and ſcrupulouſly careful of all heterogeneous mixtures. Their moſt eligible beverage, except ſimple water, is port wine, if they can afford it, as being leaſt convertible into that poignant fluid: porter likewiſe, if not ſtale, may, by its ſtrength and bitterneſs, aſſiſt the action of the ſtomach. Neither of theſe fermented liquors ſhould be taken in large quantities; let nature be ſatisfied, and no more; for if the ſpirits are unnaturally elated, they will ſink proportionably when the ſtimulus ceaſes to operate. The moderate uſe of genuine rum or brandy, properly diluted, when the other liquors cannot be had, may be productive of good effects. In deſperate caſes opium may be uſed with advantage, if properly ſupported by a nutritive diet. See MEDICINE, INDEX. Tea is prohibited by ſome phyſicians, but others think, if not drank too warm, or in too great quantities, it is rather beneficial, as it exhilarates the ſpirits, without inducing that ſinking which follows the liberal uſe of higher ſtimuli. Care ſhould be taken that the patient may never be too much warmed, either by cloaths or exerciſe, eſpecially when in bed.—Exertions of body, particularly in the open air, are indiſpenſably neceſſary for promoting digeſtion and acquiring ſtrength; but ſhould never be carried to fatigue. The mind ſhould likewiſe be diverted from attention to itſelf and its diſorder, by reading and converſation. But diſcernment and delicacy are requiſite, that theſe may neither be too cheerful nor too ſerious, for the ſtate of the mind.

(11.) BLIND GUIDES, INSTANCES OF. Authors of good credit mention a very ſurpriſing blind guide who uſed to conduct the merchants through the ſands and deſarts of Arabia. See *Leo Afric. Deſcr. Afr. lib.* vi. *p.* 246. and *Caſaub. Treat. of Enthuſ. c.* ii. *p.* 45. Dr Bew, in the *Tranſact. of the Mancheſter Society*, mentions an inſtance not leſs marvellous, in our own country. "John Metcalf, a native of the neighbourhood of Mancheſter, where he is well known, became blind at a very early age, ſo as to be entirely unconſcious of light and its various effects. This man paſſed the younger part of his life as a waggoner, and occaſionally as a guide in intricate roads during the night, or when the tracks were covered with ſnow. Strange as this may appear to thoſe who can ſee, the employment he has ſince undertaken is ſtill more extraordinary: it is one of the laſt to which we could ſuppoſe a blind man would ever turn his attention. His preſent occupation is that of a projector and ſurveyor of highways in difficult and mountainous parts. With the aſſiſtance only of a long ſtaff, I have ſeveral times met this man traverſing the roads, aſcending precipices, exploring valleys, and inveſtigating their ſeveral

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extents, forms, and ſituations, ſo as to anſwer his deſigns in the beſt manner. The plans which he deſigns, and the eſtimates he makes, are done in a manner peculiar to himſelf; and which he cannot well convey the meaning of to others. His abilities in this reſpect are nevertheleſs ſo great, that he finds conſtant employment. Moſt of the roads over the Peak in Derbyſhire, have been altered by his directions; particularly thoſe in the vicinity of Buxton: and he is at this time conſtructing a new one betwixt Wilmeſlow and Congleton, with a view to open a communication to the great London road, without being obliged to paſs over the mountains."

(12.) BLIND, INVENTIONS FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF THE. See § 15—18.

(13.) BLIND LADY, SURPRISING ACQUISITIONS OF A. In the *Annual Regiſter* for 1762, the following narrative is inſerted. "A young gentlewoman of a good family in France, now in her 18th year, loſt her ſight when only two years old, her mother having been adviſed to lay ſome pigeons blood on her eyes, to preſerve them in the ſmall-pox; whereas, ſo far from anſwering the end, it eat into them. Nature, however, may be ſaid to have compenſated for the unhappy miſtake, by beauty of perſon, ſweetneſs of temper, vivacity of genius, quickneſs of conception, and many talents which certainly much alleviate her misfortune. She plays at cards with the ſame readineſs as others of the party. She firſt prepares the packs allotted to her, by pricking them in ſeveral parts; yet ſo imperceptibly, that the cloſeſt inſpection can ſcarce diſcern her indexes. She ſorts the ſuits, and arranges the cards in their proper ſequence, with the ſame preciſion, and nearly the ſame facility, as they who have their ſight. All ſhe requires of thoſe who play with her, is to name every card as it is played; and theſe ſhe retains ſo exactly, that ſhe frequently performs ſome notable ſtrokes, ſuch as ſhow a great combination and ſtrong memory. The moſt wonderful circumſtance is, that ſhe ſhould have learned to read and write; but even this is readily believed on knowing her method. In writing to her, no ink is uſed, but the letters are pricked down on the paper; and by the delicacy of her touch, feeling each letter, ſhe follows them ſucceſſively, and reads every word with her finger ends. She herſelf in writing makes uſe of a pencil, as ſhe could not know when her pen was dry; her guide on the paper is a ſmall thin ruler, and of the breadth of her writing. On finiſhing a letter, ſhe wets it, ſo as to fix the traces of her pencil, that they are not obſcured or effaced; then proceeds to fold and ſeal it, and write the direction; all by her own addreſs, and without the aſſiſtance of any other perſon. Her writing is very ſtraight, well cut, and the ſpelling no leſs correct. To reach this ſingular mechaniſm, the indefatigable cares of her affectionate mother were long employed, who accuſtomed her daughter to feel letters cut in cards of paſte-board, brought her to diſtinguiſh an A from a B, and thus the whole alphabet, and afterwards to ſpell words; then, by the remembrance of the ſhape of the letters, to delineate them on paper; and, laſtly, to arrange them ſo as to form words and ſentences. She has learned to play on the guitar, and has even contrived a way of pricking down the tunes as an aſſiſtance to her memory. So delicate are her organs, that in ſinging a tune, though new to her, ſhe is able to name the notes. In figured dances ſhe acquits herſelf extremely well, and in a minuet with inimitable eaſe and gracefulneſs. As for the works of her ſex, ſhe has a maſterly hand; ſhe ſews and hems perfectly well; and in all her works ſhe threads the needles for herſelf, however ſmall. By the watch her touch never fails telling her exactly the hour and minute."

(14.) BLIND LADY, VERY EXTRAORDINARY CASE OF ANOTHER. This lady had been afflicted with the confluent ſmall pox. "In the courſe of this diſeaſe, during which ſhe had been attended by the late Sir Hans Sloane, ſeveral threatening ſymptoms appeared, which however were at length overcome; and the patient being thought out of danger, took ſeveral doſes of ſuch purgative medicines as are uſually adminiſtered in the decline of the diſeaſe, without any bad conſequence. But in the evening of the day, on which ſhe had taken the laſt doſe that was intended to be given her, ſhe was ſuddenly ſeized with pains and convulſions in the bowels; the pain and other ſymptoms became gradually leſs violent as the force of the medicine abated, and by ſuch remedies as were thought beſt adapted to the caſe, they ſeemed at length to be entirely ſubdued. They were, however, ſubdued only in appearance; for at eleven o'clock A. M. next day they returned with great violence, and continued ſome hours; when they went off, they left the muſcles of the lower jaw ſo much relaxed, that it fell down, and the chin was ſupported on her breaſt. The ſtrength of the patient was ſo much exhauſted during this paroxyſm, that ſhe lay near two hours with no other ſigns of life than a very feeble reſpiration, which was often ſo difficult to be diſcerned, that thoſe about her concluded ſhe was dead. From this time the fits returned periodically every day, at about the ſame hour. At firſt they ſeemed to affect her nearly in the ſame degree; but at length all the ſymptoms were aggravated, the convulſions became more general, and her arms were ſometimes convulſed alternately; it alſo frequently happened, that the arm which was laſt convulſed remained extended and inflexible ſome hours after the ſtruggles were over. Her neck was often twiſted with ſuch violence, that the face looked directly backwards, and the back part of the head was over the breaſt; the muſcles of the countenance were alſo ſo contracted and writhed by the ſpaſms, that the features were totally changed, and it was impoſſible to find any reſemblance of her natural aſpect by which ſhe could be known. Her feet were not leſs diſtorted than her head; for they were twiſted almoſt to diſlocation at the inſtep, ſo that ſhe could not walk but upon her ancles. To remove or mitigate theſe deplorable ſymptoms, many remedies were tried; and, among others, the cold bath: but either by the natural effect of the bath, or by ſome miſmanagement in the bathing, the unhappy patient firſt became blind, and ſoon afterwards deaf and dumb. It is not eaſy to conceive what could increaſe the miſery of deafneſs, dumbneſs, blindneſs, and frequent paroxyſms of excruciating pain; yet a very conſiderable

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conſiderable aggravation was added; for the loſs of her ſight, her hearing, and her ſpeech, was followed by ſuch a ſtricture of the muſcles of her throat, that ſhe could ſwallow no kind of aliment either ſolid or liquid. It might reaſonably be ſuppoſed that this circumſtance, though it added to the degree of her miſery, would have ſhortened its duration: yet in this condition ſhe continued near three quarters of a year: and during that time was ſuppported by chewing her food only; which having turned often, and kept long in her mouth, ſhe was obliged at laſt to ſpit out.—Liquors were likewiſe gargled about in her mouth for ſome time; and then returned in the ſame manner, no part of them having paſſed the throat by an act of deglutition: ſo that whatever was conveyed into the ſtomach, either of the juices of the ſolid food, or of liquids, was either gradually imbibed by the ſponginеſs of the parts which they moiſtened, or trickled down in a very ſmall quantity along the ſides of the veſſels. But there were other peculiarities in the caſe of this lady, yet more extraordinary. During the privation of her *ſight* and *hearing*, her *touch* and her *ſmell*, became ſo exquiſite, that ſhe could diſtinguiſh the different colours of ſilk and flowers, and was ſenſible when any ſtranger was in the room with her. After ſhe became blind, and deaf, and dumb, it was not eaſy to contrive any method by which a queſtion could be aſked her, and an anſwer received. This however, was at laſt effected, by talking with the fingers, at which ſhe was uncommonly ready. But thoſe who converſed with her in this manner, were obliged to expreſs themſelves by touching her hand and fingers inſtead of their own. A lady who was nearly related to her, having an apron on, that was embroidered with ſilk of different colours, aſked her, in the manner which has been deſcribed, if ſhe could tell what colour it was? and after applying her fingers attentively to the figures of the embroidery, ſhe replied, that it was red, and blue, and green; which was true. The ſame lady having a pink coloured ribbon on her head, and being willing ſtill further to ſatisfy her curioſity and her doubts, aſked what colour that was? Her couſin, after feeling ſome time, anſwered that it was pink colour: this anſwer was yet more aſtoniſhing, becauſe it ſhowed not only a power of diſtinguiſhing different colours, but different kinds of the ſame colour; the ribbon was not only diſcovered to be red, but the red was diſcovered to be of the pale kind called a *pink*. This unhappy lady, conſcious of her own uncommon infirmities, was extremely unwilling to be ſeen by ſtrangers, and therefore generally retired to her chamber, where none but thoſe of the family were likely to come. The ſame relation, who had by the experiment of the apron and ribbon diſcovered the exquiſite ſenſibility of her *touch*, was ſoon after convinced by an accident, that her power of *ſmelling* was acute and refined in the ſame highly aſtoniſhing degree. Being one day viſiting the family, ſhe went up to her couſin's chamber, and after making herſelf known, ſhe intreated her to go down, and ſit with her among the reſt of the family, aſſuring her, that there was no other perſon preſent; to this ſhe at length conſented, and went down to the parlour door; but the moment the door was opened, ſhe turned back, and retired to her own chamber much diſpleaſed; alledging that there were ſtrangers in the room, and that an attempt had been made to deceive her; it happened indeed that there were ſtrangers in the room; but they had come in while the lady was above ſtairs, ſo that ſhe did not know that they were there. When ſhe had ſatisfied her couſin of this particular, ſhe was pacified; and being afterwards aſked how ſhe knew there were ſtrangers in the room, ſhe anſwered, by the ſmell. But though ſhe could by this ſenſe diſtinguiſh in general between perſons with whom ſhe was well acquainted and ſtrangers, yet ſhe could not ſo eaſily diſtinguiſh one of her acquaintances from another without other aſſiſtance. She generally diſtinguiſhed her friends by feeling their hands; and when they came in, they uſed to preſent their hands to her, as a mean of making themſelves known; the make and warmth of the hand produced in general the differences that ſhe diſtinguiſhed; but ſometimes ſhe uſed to ſpan the wriſt, and meaſure the fingers. A lady, with whom ſhe was very well acquainted, coming in one very hot day, after having walked a mile, preſented her hand as uſual; ſhe felt it longer than ordinary, and ſeemed to doubt whoſe it was; but after ſpanning the wriſt, and meaſuring the fingers, ſhe ſaid, 'It is Mrs M. but ſhe is warmer to-day than ever I felt her before.' To amuſe herſelf in the mournful and perpetual ſolitude and darkneſs to which her diſorder had reduced her, ſhe uſed to work much at her needle; and it is remarkable, that her needle work was uncommonly neat and exact; among many other pieces of her work that are preſerved in the family, is a pin-cuſhion, which can ſcarcely be equalled. She uſed alſo ſometimes to write; and her writing was yet more extraordinary than her needle-work; it was executed with the ſame regularity and exactneſs; the characters were very pretty, the lines were all even, and the letters placed at equal diſtances from each other; but the moſt aſtoniſhing particular of all, with reſpect to her writing, is, that ſhe could by ſome means diſcover when a letter had by miſtake been omitted, and would place it over that part of the word where it ſhould have been inſerted, with a caret under it. She uſed to ſit up in bed at any hour of the night, either to write or to work, when her pain or any other cauſe kept her awake. Theſe circumſtances were ſo very extraordinary, that it was long doubted, whether ſhe had not ſome faint remains both of hearing and ſight, and many experiments were made to aſcertain the matter; ſome of theſe experiments ſhe accidently diſcovered, and the diſcovery always threw her into violent convulſions. The thought of being ſuſpected of inſincerity, or ſuppoſed capable of acting ſo wicked a part, as to feign infirmities that were not inflicted, was an addition to her miſeries which ſhe could not bear, and which never failed to produce an agony of mind, not leſs viſible than thoſe of her body. A clergyman who found her one evening at work by a table with a candle upon it, put his hat between her eyes and the candle, in ſuch a manner that it was impoſſible ſhe could receive any benefit from the light of it, if ſhe had

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had

had her ſight. She continued ſtill at her work with great tranquillity; till, putting up her hand ſuddenly to rub her forehead, ſhe ſtruck it againſt the hat, and diſcovered what was doing; upon which ſhe was thrown into violent convulſions, and was not without great difficulty recovered. The family were by theſe experiments, and by ſeveral accidental circumſtances, fully convinced that ſhe was totally deaf and blind; particularly by ſitting unconcerned at her work, during a dreadful ſtorm of thunder and lightning, though ſhe was then facing the window, and always uſed to be much terrified in ſuch circumſtances. But Sir Hans Sloane, her phyſician, being ſtill doubtful of the truth of facts which were ſcarce leſs than miraculous, he was permitted to ſatisfy himſelf by ſuch experiments and obſervations as he thought proper; the iſſue of which was, that he pronounced her to be abſolutely deaf and blind. She was at length ſent to Bath, where ſhe was in ſome meaſure relieved; her convulſions being leſs frequent, and her pains leſs acute; but ſhe never recovered her ſpeech, her ſight, or her hearing in the leaſt degree. Many of her letters dated at Bath, in ſome of which there are inſtances of interlineations with a caret, the writer of this narrative hath ſeen; and they are now in the cuſtody of the widow of one of her brothers, who with many other perſons, can ſupport the facts here related, however wonderful, with ſuch evidence as it would not only be injuſtice, but folly to miſbelieve."

(15.) BLIND LITERATI, METHODS OF CALCULATION INVENTED BY. Of profeſſor Sanderſon's method of calculation, both in arithmetic and algebra, there is a full and circumſtantial detail, given by Mr Diderot in his *letter concerning the Blind, for the uſe of thoſe who ſee*, which we ſhall here quote. "It is much eaſier, to uſe ſigns already invented, than to become their inventor; as one is forced to do, when engaged in circumſtances for which he is not provided. Of what advantage might not this be to Sanderſon, to find a palpable arithmetic already prepared for him at 5 years of age, which he might otherwiſe have felt the neceſſity of inventing for himſelf at the advanced period of 25? This Sanderſon, Madam, is an author deprived of ſight, with whom it may not be foreign to our purpoſe to amuſe you. They relate prodigies of him; and of theſe prodigies there is not one, which his progreſs in the belles lettres, and his mathematical attainments, do not render credible. The ſame inſtrument ſerved him for algebraical calculations, and for the conſtruction of rectilineal figures. You would not perhaps be ſorry that I ſhould give you an explanation of it, if you thought your mind previouſly qualified to underſtand it: and you ſhall ſoon perceive that it preſuppoſes no intellectual preparations of which you are not already miſtreſs; and that it would be extremely uſeful to you if you ſhould ever be ſeized with the inclination of making long calculations by touch. Imagine to yourſelf a ſquare, ſuch as you ſee Plate XL. fig. 1. divided into 4 equal parts by perpendicular lines at the ſides, in ſuch a manner, that it may preſent you the 9 points, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9. Suppoſe this ſquare pierced with 9 holes capable of receiving pins of two kinds, all of equal length and thickneſs, but ſome with heads a little larger than the others. The pins with larger heads are never placed any where elſe but in the centre of the ſquare; thoſe with ſmaller heads never but at the ſides, except in one ſingle caſe, which is that of making the figure 1, where none are placed at the ſides. The ſign of 0 is made by placing a pin with a large head in the centre of the little ſquare, without putting any other pin at the ſides. See fig. 2. The number 1 is repreſented by a pin with a ſmall head placed in the centre of the ſquare, without putting any other pin at the ſides: the number 2, by a pin with a large head placed in the centre of the ſquare, and by a pin with a ſmall head placed on one of the ſides at the point 1: the number 3, by a pin with a large head placed in the centre of the ſquare, and by a pin with a ſmall head placed on one of the ſides at the point 2: the number 4, by a pin with a large head placed in the centre of the ſquare, and by a pin with a ſmall head placed on one of the ſides at the point 3: the number 5, by a pin with a large head placed in the centre of the ſquare, and by a pin with a ſmall head placed on one of the ſides at the point 4: the number 6, by a pin with a large head placed in the centre of the ſquare, and by a pin with a ſmall head placed on one of the ſides at the point 5: the number 7, by a pin with a large head placed in the centre of the ſquare, and a pin with a ſmall head placed in one of the ſides at the point 6: the number 8, by a pin with a large head placed in the centre of the ſquare, and by a pin with a ſmall head placed on one of the ſides at the point 7: the number 9, by a pin with a large head placed in the centre of the ſquare, and by a pin with a ſmall head placed on one of the ſides at the point 8. Here are plainly ten different expreſſions obvious to the touch, of which every one anſwers to one of our ten arithmetical characters. Imagine now a table as large as you pleaſe, divided into ſmall ſquares, horizontally ranged, and ſeparated one from the other at ſimilar diſtances, as you ſee it in fig. 3. Thus you will have the inſtrument of Sanderſon. You may eaſily conceive that there is not any number which one cannot expreſs upon this table; and, by conſequence, no arithmetical operation which one cannot execute upon it. Let it be propoſed, for inſtance, to find the ſum, or to work the addition of the 9 numbers following.

1	2	3	4	5
2	3	4	5	6
3	4	5	6	7
4	5	6	7	8
5	6	7	8	9
6	7	8	9	0
7	8	9	0	1
8	9	0	1	2
9	0	1	2	3

"I expreſs them on the table in the order as they are dictated to me; the firſt figure at the left of the firſt number, upon the firſt ſquare to the left of the firſt line; the 2d figure, to the left of the firſt number, upon the 2d ſquare to the left of the ſame line; and ſo of the reſt. I place the 2d number upon the 2d row of ſquare, units beneath units, and tens beneath tens, &c. I

place

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Inventions for the Improvement of blind Persons.

Fig. 1.

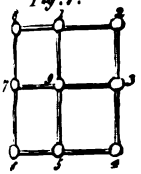


Fig. 2.

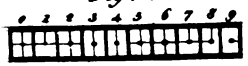


Fig. 4.

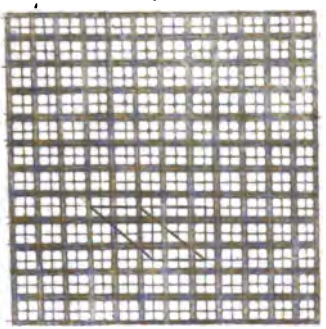


Fig. 3.

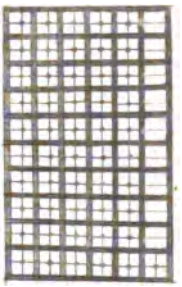


Fig. 5.

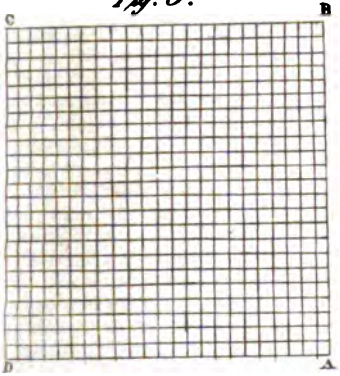


Fig. 10. Binacle.

Fig. 6.

Fig. 7.

Fig. 8.

Fig. 9.

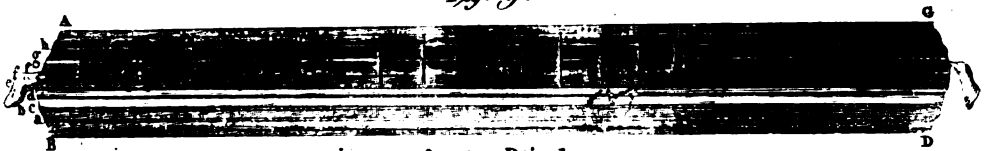
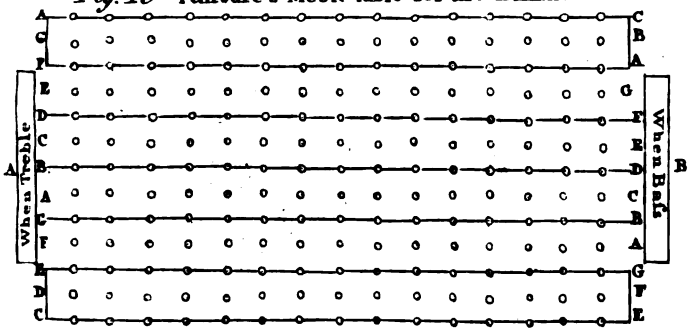
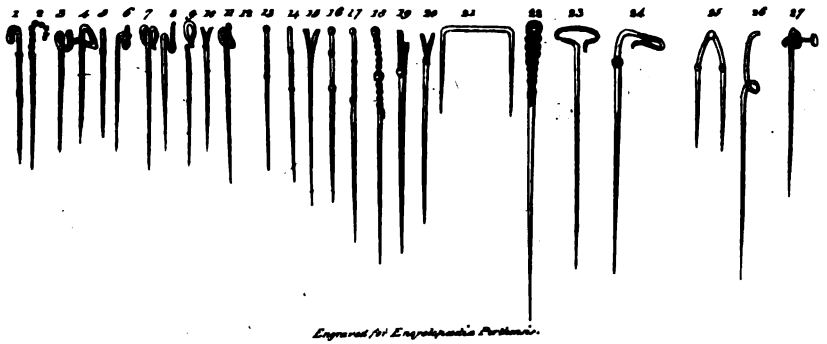


Fig. 10 Tansure's Music Table for the Blind.





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place the 3d number upon the 3d row of squares, and so of the rest. Then with my fingers running over each of the rows vertically from the bottom to the top, beginning with that which is nearest to my right, I work the addition of the numbers which are expressed, and mark the surplus of the tens at the foot of that column. I then pass to the 2d column, advancing towards the left; upon which I operate in the same manner; from thence to the 3d; and thus in succession, till I finish my addition. We shall now see how the same table served him for demonstrating the properties of rectilineal figures. Let us suppose this proposition to be demonstrated, That parallelograms, which have the same basis and the same height, are equal in their surfaces. He placed his pins as may be seen in *fig.* 4. He gave names to the angular points, and finished his demonstration with his fingers. If we suppose that Sanderson only employed pins with large heads to mark the limits of his figures, around these he might arrange his pins with small heads in 9 different manners, all of which were familiar to him. Thus he scarcely found an embarrassment, but in those cases where the great number of angular points, which he was under a necessity of naming in his demonstration, obliged him to recur to the letters of the alphabet. We are not informed how he employed them. We only know, that his fingers ran over the board with astonishing agility; that he undertook with success the longest calculations; that he could interrupt the series, and discover his mistakes; that he proved them with the greatest ease; and that his labours required infinitely less time than one could have imagined, by the exactness and promptitude with which he prepared his instruments and disposed his table. This preparation consisted in placing pins with large heads in the centres of all the squares: having done this, no more remained to him but to fix their values by pins of smaller heads, except in cases where it was necessary to mark an unit; then he placed in the centre of a square, a pin with a small head, with which it has been occupied. Sometimes, instead of forming an entire line with these pins, he contented himself with placing some of them at all the angular points, or points of intersection; around which he tied silk threads, which finished the formation of the limits of his figures." See *fig.* 4. It may be added by way of improvement, that for the division of one series of numbers from another, a thin piece of timber in the form of a ruler with which lines are drawn, having a pin at each end for the holes in the squares, might be interposed between the two series to be distinguished. By the notation above described every modification of number may be expressed, and consequently every arithmetical operation successfully performed; but there is another form of palpable arithmetic, equally comprehensive, and much more simple than that of Sanderson, originally invented, and still used in calculation, by Dr Henry Moyes; a gentleman, whose uncommon attainments we have already endeavoured to illustrate. See § 7. In a letter addressed to the Editor of *Encyclopædia Britannica*, the Dr gives the following brief account of a palpable notation, which he has used for these 29 years, to assist his memory in numerical computations. "When I began to study the principles of arithmetic, which I did at an early period of life, being unacquainted with the writings of Sanderson, in which a palpable notation is described, I embraced the obvious, though imperfect expedient of cutting into the form of numerical characters thin pieces of wood or metal. By arranging these on the surface of a board, I could readily represent any given number, not only to the touch, but also to the eye; and by covering the board with a lamina of wax, my symbols were prevented from changing their places, they adhering to the board from the slightest pressure. By this contrivance, I could solve, though slowly, any problem in the science of numbers: but it soon occurred to me, that my notation, consisting of 10 species of symbols or characters, was much more complicated than was absolutely necessary, and that any given number might be distinctly expressed by 3 species of pegs alone. To illustrate my meaning, let A, B, C, D, (*fig.* 5.) represent a square piece of mahogany a foot broad and an inch in thickness; let the sides A B, B C, C D, D A, be each divided into 24 equal parts; let every two opposite divisions be joined by a groove cut in the board sufficiently deep to be felt with the finger, and let the board be perforated at each intersection, with an instrument a tenth of an inch in diameter. The surface of the beam being thus divided into 576 little squares, with a small perforation at each of their angles, let 3 sets of pegs or pins, resembling those represented in the plate at the figures 6, 7, 8, be so fitted to the holes in the board, that when stuck into them they may keep their positions like those of a fiddle, and require some force to turn them round. The head of each peg belonging to the first set is a right-angled triangle, about one tenth of an inch in thickness; the head of each peg belonging to the 2d set differs only from the former, in having a small notch in its sloping side, or hypothenuse; and the head of each peg belonging to the 3d set is a square, of which the breadth should be equal to the base of the triangle of the other two. These pegs should be kept in a case consisting of 3 boxes or cells, each cell being allotted to a set, and the case must be placed close by the board previous to the commencement of every operation. Each set should consist of 60 or 70 pegs (at least when employed in long calculations); and when the work is finished, they should be collected from the board and carefully restored to their respective boxes. Things being thus prepared, let a peg of the first set be fixed into the board, and it will acquire 4 different values according to its position respecting the calculator. When its sloping side is turned towards the left, it denotes 1, or the first digit; when turned upwards, or from the calculator, it denotes 2, or the 2d digit; when turned to the right, it represents 3; and when turned downwards, or towards the calculator, it denotes 4, or the 4th digit. Five is denoted by a peg of the second set, having its sloping side or hypotenuse turned to the left; 6, by the same turned upwards; 7, by the same turned to the right and 8, by the same turned directly down, or to

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ward;

wards the body of the calculator. Nine is expreſſed by a peg of the 3d ſet, when its edges are directed to right and left; and the ſame peg expreſſes the cypher, when its edges are directed up and down. By three different pegs the relative value of the ten digits may therefore be diſtinctly expreſſed with facility; and by a ſufficient number of each ſet, the ſteps and reſult of the longeſt calculation may be clearly repreſented to the ſenſe of feeling. It ſeems unneceſſary to illuſtrate this by an example; ſuffice it to expreſs in our characters the preſent year of the Chriſtian æra 1788: Take a peg of the firſt ſet, and fix it in the board with its ſloping ſide turned towards the left equal to one; take a new peg of the 2d ſet and fix it in the next hole in the ſame groove, proceeding as uſual from left to right, with its ſloping ſide turned to the right equal to 7; next take a peg of the ſame ſet and fix it in the next hole, with its ſloping ſide turned downwards, equal to 8; laſtly, take another peg of the ſame ſet, and place it in the next hole in the ſame poſition, equal to 8; and the whole will expreſs the number required. When it is neceſſary to expreſs a vulgar fraction, I place the numerator in the groove immediately above, and the denominator in that immediately below the groove in which the integers ſtand; and in decimal arithmetic an empty hole in the integer groove repreſents the comma or decimal point. By ſimilar breaks I alſo denote pounds, ſhillings, pence, &c. and by the ſame expedient I ſeparate in diviſion the diviſor and quotient from the dividend. This notation, which ſupplies me completely with coefficients and indices in algebra and fluxions, ſeems much ſuperior to any of the kind hitherto made public in the weſt of Europe. That invented and deſcribed by Mr Grenville, having no leſs than ten ſets of pegs, is by much too complicated for general practice; and that which we owe to the celebrated Sanderſon is apt to puzzle and embarraſs the calculator, as the pegs repreſenting the numerical digits can ſeldom or never be in the ſame ſtraight line."

(16.) BLIND, METHODS OF INSTRUCTING THE, IN MUSIC. There is a hint of tangible ſigns for teaching muſic, in Tanſure's Muſical Grammar, p. 93, which, though (like the reſt of the book) obſcure and indigeſted, may be improved and applied with advantage. We have therefore inſerted his MUSIC TABLE, in *Plate* XL. *Fig.* 11. and ſhall here quote his explanation. "Let A—B be a ſmooth board 3 or 4 feet long, 1 inch thick, and 9 inches wide, with 5 ſquare ledges glued thereon, each being half an inch aſunder, half an inch wide, and half an inch high; which riſing ledges repreſent our 5 lines of muſic, and their ſpaces; and the two outward lines being made a little lower, may ſerve as leger lines, on occaſion. The cyphers repreſent ſo many holes bored into every line and ſpace, half an inch aſunder; wherein *pegs* of different ſhapes are to be ſet, to repreſent the ſeveral ſorts of notes and characters of the tune; which pegs the blind perſon may know by feeling, as well as he does his keys of the organ or harpſichord: ſo that, by keeping his fingers on the 5 lines, he feels the ſeveral pegs as they come on, and are ſet to repreſent the ſeveral ſorts of notes, on both line and ſpace; whilſt his right hand ſtrikes the reſpective key, &c. he firſt knowing the names of all his keys, his lines, ſpaces, and the mark of every peg. Let each peg be about half an inch high, when ſet in very faſt. [N. B. The blind perſon muſt firſt be taught the names of the above lines and ſpaces in both the treble and baſs cliffs; and that he muſt feel his treble with his right hand, and his baſs with the left hand; each being contrary, as you may ſee by the letters of the above table A and B; and muſt learn each part ſeparate.] Of pegs, he muſt have a great number of every ſort, to ſet his tune with, which he may mark as follows: For a *Semibreve*, 4 top-notches.—*Minim*, 2 top-notches.—*Crotchet*, 1 top-notch.—*Quaver*, 1 corner cut off.—*Semiquaver*, 2 corners cut off.—*Demiſemiquaver*, all 4 corners cut off.—*Reſts*, a notch in the corner.—A *Flat*, 1 notch on the ſide.—*Sharp*, 2 notches on the ſide.—*Point*, 3 notches on the ſide.—*Bar*, a flat thin top.—*Repeat*, a ſharp-pointed top, &c. &c. &c. But it is beſt for every performer to make and mark his own pegs; and deliver them one by one as they are called for by the perſon that ſets his *tune*." Such is Mr Tanſure's plan of Muſical Notation. It is, however, imperfect, and perhaps every table of the kind may be liable to the ſame cenſure, as not being comprehenſive of all the characters in the written language of muſic, ſo that the blind rather may find no deficiency in acquiring any leſſon. Mr CHEESE'S *Cuſhion* appears to have more powers than any other inſtrument hitherto invented for the ſame purpoſe; and therefore though it is alſo attended with formidable objections, we here inſert his deſcription of it. It may poſſibly, however, be beſt for every blind adept in the muſical art, after being ſufficiently inſtructed in its theoretical and practical principles, to invent for himſelf a table, by which may be expreſſed all the various phenomena of muſic; in which, by varying the forms and poſitions of his pegs, he may habitually aſſociate them with ſounds, durations, reſts, intervals, chords, cadences, de capos, repeats, and all the various graces which give animation and expreſſion to muſical ſounds: for thus, being the immediate creatures of his own imagination, they will eaſily become familiar to his memory, and be more ſtrongly and readily aſſociated with the phenomena which they are intended to expreſs, than the inventions of any other. Mr Cheeſe's machine, (ſee *Plate* XL. *Fig.* 9.) is intended, in "teaching muſic to people deprived of ſight, to enable them to preſerve their compoſitions, in the act of compoſing, without the aſſiſtance of a copyiſt."—"That part of the machine, which repreſents the book, or paper, is a ſmall cuſhion ſtuffed, on a little frame; along which is ſewed a number of pack-thread ſtrings, at equal diſtances from each other; theſe repreſent the lines in a muſic book: the five which compoſe the ſtave are made of large twine; and thoſe which repreſent the leger or occaſional lines drawn through the heads of the notes, where the muſic exceeds the compaſs of the eſtabliſhed ſtave, are made of ſmall twine, and are on this machine of the ſame length as the others. If the practitioner only wiſhes to write harpſichord muſic, the cuſhion may be what length

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length he pleaſes, and about five or ſix inches wide: the ſtrings muſt be ſewed in the following order; beginning with the firſt or loweſt, near the edge of the cuſhion; 4 ſmall ones, which correſpond with the notes in the baſe of the inſtrument ff, rr, cc, ee: Next five large ones, for the ſtave which correſpond with the lines in the book, or notes in the inſtrument, g, b, d, f, r; one ſmall one, which repreſents the occaſional line between the baſe and treble, or middle c; 5 large ones for the treble ſtave, which make the notes e, g, b, d, f; 3 ſmall ones, which repreſent the leger lines when the muſic goes in alt. Theſe provide for the note a in alt, c in alt, and e in alt; in the ſpace above which, next the edge of the cuſhion, the f in alt is wrote, when it is wanting, which completes the compaſs of the inſtrument. Thoſe who only ſing or play on ſingle inſtruments, ſuch as violins, &c. ſhould have their cuſhions not above half the width of thoſe before-mentioned, upon which there ſhould be but one ſtave, and that in the following order:—Two ſmall lines at bottom, 5 large ones in the middle, and 3 ſmall ones at top. Neither of the outſide lines of theſe ſmall cuſhions ſhould be ſewed cloſe to the edge, as there are notes ſuppoſed above and below. At either end of theſe ſmall cuſhions, there ſhould be a ſmall wire ſtaple, in order that any number of them may be combined together at pleaſure, by running a rod through the ſtaples: this will enable the practitioner to write what muſicians call SCORE, in any number of parts he pleaſes; and by this means a thorough knowledge of the great works of Handel, and all other claſſical authors, may be acquired, as well without ſight as with it. The characters uſed to write on this machine are pins; ſome with 2, 3, or more heads; others bent in different forms—ſome, the heads taken off and the top beat flat; ſome of theſe are ſplit; others the heads taken off, and placed near the middle. The bars are pieces of wire crooked at each end; a double bar is made by placing two ſingle ones cloſe together; a double ſharp and double flat in the ſame manner. The characters are kept in a box in the ſame ſtyle as a printer keeps his types; each different compartment of which muſt be marked with a character in writing, ſignifying what each, contained in the ſeveral compartments, is intended to repreſent. That the maſter may be acquainted with them, the ſtudent muſt be taught to diſtinguiſh each of the characters contained in the box by the feel, as well as the names of each line and ſpace upon the cuſhion. When he can do this readily, ſome muſic ſhould be read to him, which it will be well for him to copy on the cuſhion: and when that is filled, let it be laid on the deſk of the harpſichord before him; and then by feeling over a paſſage or ſentence at a time, and afterwards playing it, his playing always commencing with the beginning of the piece, or at ſome particular part of it, this will ſoon enable him to recollect the whole, when the hands are taken off the cuſhion, to play what has been laſt felt. One of thoſe characters, called a direct, muſt be placed againſt the note to be next felt: This will enable the ſtudent to go on again, after playing, without any difficulty. The perſon who reads the muſic, muſt be inſtructed not to call the lines or ſpaces by the letters which diſtinguiſh them, leſt confuſion may enſue, every eighth being the ſame; but muſt read in the following manner: firſt the name of the character muſt be mentioned, whether minim, crotchet, or quaver, &c. then the line or ſpace; as for example, minim on the firſt line, crotchet on the firſt ſpace, quaver on the ſecond, &c. &c. When the muſic exceeds the compaſs of the ſtave, it muſt be particularly mentioned whether above or below, firſt calling the character, then the leger line or ſpace. The technical term at the beginning of each piece, is better remembered than wrote down on the machine: The accidental terms, which are beſt marked by placing ſome character, not much uſed, either above or below the note on which it happens, the ingenious mind will find out a method of doing for itſelf. This machine will not only teach muſic; but, calling the characters letters, any one will be enabled to ſpell, read, or write down his ſentiments on any ſubject, and even convey them to his friend without the aſſiſtance of a ſecretary. Arithmetic may be alſo taught upon this machine; as by calling the dot 1, and the pauſe 10, a complete ſet of figures will be formed. EXPLANATION *of the figures:* A, B, C, D, the form of the cuſhion, which in its full ſize is about 3 feet long, and 5¼ inches wide, having thereon a repreſentation of muſical notes, ſhown by different pins ſtuck on it. The lines a, b, c, d, e, are of large packthread; and the lines, f, g, h, are of ſmall twine. Pins, N° 1. A ſemibreve. 2. A ſemibreve reſt. 3. A minim. 4. A minim reſt. 5. Dots. 6. A crotchet. 7. A crochet reſt. 8. A quaver. 9. A quaver reſt. 10. A ſharp. 11. A ſemiquaver. 12. A ſemiquaver reſt. 13. A demiquaver. 14. A demiquaver reſt. 15. A flat. 16. A demiſemiquaver. 17. A demiſemiquaver reſt. 18. A ſemidemiquaver. 19. A ſemidemiquaver reſt. 20. A natural. 21. Bars. 22. A direct. 23. A tye. 24. Baſs. 25. Tenor cliff. 26. Treble cliff. 27. A repeat. 28. Pauſe. 29. This character placed on any line or ſpace, ſignifies as many notes on that line or ſpace as there are doubles on the pins; if turned upwards, it implies the ſame number aſcending: if downward, that number deſcending. 30. A beat or inverted ſhake. 31. A ſhake; and where there is a dot placed over it, ſignifies a turned ſhake. Two dots placed over each other, above the notes, without this character, ſignify a turn only. 32. This character is uſed over the note to ſignify *forte;* and if a dot is placed above it, *fortiſſimo:* if the dot is placed above the note and below the character, it implies *ereſcendo;* if the character is placed below the note, it ſignifies *piano;* and if a dot is placed under it, *planiſſimo;* but if the dot is above the character, and below the note, it ſignifies *diminuendo.* In concertos, the inventor uſes the ſame character placed above the note in the ſame manner, with two dots over it to ſignify *toote;* and below the notes, with two dots under it to ſignify *ſolo:* in vocal muſic, the ſame character above the notes, with three dots over it, ſignifies *ſymphony;* and below the notes, with three dots under it, ſignifies *ſong.*" When playing concertos, or performing in *ſcore*, the blind muſt depend upon memory. and upon memory alone; but happily their retentive powers are remarkably ſtrong; and there

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are few pieces in muſic which will be found either too intricate to be acquired, or too long to be remembered, by a perſon deprived of ſight. Mr Stanley performs what is ſtill more aſtoniſhing: He accompanies any leſſon with a thorough baſs, though he never has heard it before. We have never yet heard of any perſon, though bleſſed with the full uſe of ſight, who could thus anticipate harmony before the chords were ſounded, and accompany it in a manner ſuitable to its nature. When the pupil becomes a more profound theoriſt, he may be farther inſtructed by Rameau, in his principles of compoſition; by D'Alembert, and by Rouſſeau's Muſical Dictionary: (ſee MUSIC.) Or, if he be perſuaded of the neceſſity of geometry in muſic, (which ſome think frivolous,) he may peruſe Dr Smith's Philoſophical Principles of Harmony, Malcolm's Eſſay, Treydell's Theory and Practice of Muſic; or *The Principles and Power of Harmony;* an illuſtration of Tartini's theory.

(17.) BLIND, NEW FRENCH PLAN FOR IMPROVING THE. A work has been lately publiſhed at Paris which ſuperſedes every former attempt to promote or facilitate the improvement of the blind. The invention of a plan ſo arduous in its appearance and ſo practicable in its execution, demanded the higheſt exertions of the nobleſt genius to produce it, and the moſt ſtrenuous efforts of indefatigable humanity to render it effectual. It is entitled, "An Eſſay on the Education of the Blind." Its object is to teach them, by palpable characters impreſſed on paper, not only the liberal arts and ſciences, but likewiſe the principles of mechanical operation, in ſuch a manner, that thoſe who have no genius for literary improvement may yet become reſpectable, uſeful, and independent members of ſociety, in the capacity of common artiſans. By theſe tangible ſignatures they are taught to read, to write, and to print; they are likewiſe inſtructed in geometry, in algebra, geography, and, in ſhort, in every branch of natural philoſophy. Nor are their efforts circumſcribed by mere utility; a taſte for the fine arts has likewiſe been cultivated among them. They have been taught to read muſic with their fingers, as others do with their eyes; and though they cannot at once feel the notes and perform them upon an inſtrument, yet they are capable of acquiring any leſſon, with as much exactneſs and rapidity, as thoſe who enjoy all the advantages of ſight. In the firſt chapter of this work, the author points out the end propoſed by that culture which he offers to the blind; it is to enlarge their ſphere of knowledge, to increaſe their capacities and improve their powers of action, ſo that they may become happy and independent in themſelves, and uſeful and agreeable to others. The 2d chapter contains an anſwer to the objections againſt the general utility of this inſtitution. The 3d treats of reading as adapted to the practice of the blind. The 4th conſiſts of anſwers to various objections againſt the method of reading propoſed. In the 5th is ſhown the art of printing, as practiſed by the blind, for their peculiar uſe. In the 6th is deſcribed the manner of teaching the blind the art of printing for thoſe that ſee. In the 7th is repreſented the manner of teaching the blind to write. The 8th explains the method of teaching the blind arithmetic; the 9th geography; the 10th, muſic. The 11th, contains an account of the mechanic arts in which the blind are employed, and of the way by which they are formed for ſuch occupations. The 12th ſhows in general the proper manner of inſtructing the blind, and draws a parallel between their education and that of the deaf and dumb. The 13th treats of the method of inſtructing them in the languages, mathematics, hiſtory, &c. The book next contains notes illuſtrating each chapter; an account of the riſe, progreſs, and preſent ſtate, of the academy for the formation of the blind; an ode on the cultivation of the blind, by one labouring under that affliction; an extract from the regiſter of the royal academy of ſciences; opinion of the printers; models of the various pieces which blind children are capable of printing; and an account of the exerciſes performed by blind children, in the preſence of the late unfortunate king, queen, and royal family, during the Chriſtmas ſolemnities in 1786. The manner in which the blind print is thus deſcribed; The blind compoſitor has a box for every alphabetical character in uſe; on the outſide of theſe boxes are palpably marked the peculiar character belonging to each; they are filled with types, which he chooſes and ſets as they are called for, inverted. He then takes a piece of the ſtrongeſt paper that can be found, which he gently moiſtens in a degree ſufficient to render it more eaſily ſuſceptible of impreſſions, without being delacerated or worn by the ſhock which it muſt undergo. He then lays it upon the types; and by the cautious operation of the preſs, or by the eaſy ſtrokes of a little hammer, which are frequently repeated over the whole expanſe, he cauſes the impreſſion of the type to riſe on the oppoſite ſide of the paper, where, when dry, it continues not only obvious to the ſight but the touch, and is far from being eaſily effaced. On the upper ſide of the paper the letters appear in their proper poſition, and, by their ſenſible elevation above the common ſurface, render it practicable for the blind to read them with their fingers. Their manner of writing is analogous to this operation: the pupil, by repeated experiments, having familiariſed himſelf to the forms of the letters, both in their inverted and proper poſitions, gradually learns to delineate them upon paper, moiſtened as before, with the point of an iron pen, which has no ſplit, and which is juſt ſharp enough to impreſs without piercing the paper: thus, on the ſide next to the writer's hand, the letters are formed ſunk and inverted; but when the paper is turned they appear right and in relievo. Thus the blind are enabled to form and decypher, not only the characters required in common language, but alſo mathematical diagrams, arithmetical and geographical proceſſes, and all the characters uſed in writing muſic. All theſe wonders they have performed with ſucceſs, to the univerſal ſatisfaction of numberleſs ſpectators whom curioſity and compaſſion impelled to viſit the academy, to behold a ſpectacle ſo intereſting to humanity. The above quoted work is printed and bound by the blind themſelves. They exhibit at their own academy every Wedneſday and Saturday between one and two o'clock, P. M. to crowds of charitable admirers, by

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by whoſe liberal donations the inſtitution is chiefly ſupported.

(18.) BLIND, OTHER STUDIES PROPER FOR THE. In the higher parts of mathematics, ſuch as conic ſections, the ſame ſolid figures which are mediums of perception to thoſe who ſee, may perform the ſame uſeful office to the blind. But, for the ſtructure of ſuperficial figures, bees wax, or ſome ſuch matter might be uſed, ſoft enough to be eaſily ſuſceptible of impreſſions, yet hard enough to retain them till effaced by an equal preſſure.—Suppoſe, for inſtance, a table were formed, 4 feet broad, and 8 long; for the figures, that they may be the more ſenſible to the touch, ought to be larger than ordinary. Suppoſe this table had brims, or a moulding round it, riſing an inch above the ſurfaces: let the whole expanſe, then, be filled with bees wax, and the ſurface above preſſed extremely even with a poliſhed board, formed exactly to fit the ſpace within the mouldings This board will always be neceſſary to efface the figures employed in former propoſitions, and prepare the ſurface for new ones. This method of delineating geometrical truths, upon ſuch a table, appears the beſt and leaſt troubleſome apparatus which a blind man can uſe; and general ideas of geography or topography might be conveyed to him in the ſame manner, by ſpheres compoſed of, or covered with the ſame impreſſible matter. The knowledge of aſtronomy might alſo be of infinite uſe, both by enlarging the blind perſon's ideas of the univerſe, and by giving him higher and more confirmed impreſſions of that energy by which the ſtars are moved, and of that deſign by which their motions are regulated. But theſe objects are too vaſt; their diſtances, their magnitudes, their periods of revolution, are too complex to be comprehended in the mind, or impreſſed on the memory, without ſenſible mediums. For this purpoſe, an orrery, or ſome machine of a ſimilar conſtruction, will be indiſpenſably requiſite. The ſcience of cauſes and effects might likewiſe yield him the moſt ſublime and rational entertainment of which an intelligent being, in his preſent ſtate, is ſuſceptible. By this he might enter into the laws, the viciſſitudes, the œconomy of nature.—Nor is it abſolutely neceſſary that he ſhould be an actual witneſs of the experiments by which theſe laws are explained. He may ſafely take them for granted; and if, at any time, a particular experiment ſhould prove faithleſs, he may from general principles, be able to diſcover its fallacy, whether in the nature of the ſubject, the inaptitude of the inſtruments, or the proceſs of the execution. The laws of motion, the various ratios or proportions of forces, whether ſimple or compound, he may calculate and aſcertain, by the ſame method ſo happily uſed by Sanderſon, (See §. 25.) Philological learning is alſo attainable by the blind in a high degree. The acquiſition of different languages adds to the treaſure of our ideas, and renders thoſe which we poſſeſs more clear and definite. The technical terms of almoſt every ſcience are exotic; and without clearly underſtanding theſe, we cannot properly poſſeſs the ideas of which they are the vehicles. The paths of grammar, however, are dry and rugged; and it will be neceſſary for the teacher, whoever he is, to take all the opportunities that offer of poliſhing the aſperities of the road. When therefore the intellect of the pupil begins to exert its penetration, it will be proper to ſhow him how the nature, the forms, and arrangements, of words, flow from our ideas and their relations. Every ſubſtance muſt naturally be in ſome ſtate; it muſt either act, or be acted upon. The actions which it performs or ſuffers muſt be performed or ſuffered in ſome definite manner or degree. It muſt likewiſe have ſome qualities, whether temporary and accidental, or natural and permanent. Theſe qualities muſt likewiſe be ſuſceptible of degrees. When different ſubſtances are conſidered in the ſame ſtate, its common participation forms a connection: when regarded in different ſtates, that difference forms an oppoſition. The conſtant repetition of the names of ſubſtances and qualities produces a diſagreeable monotony in language.—They muſt therefore be implied in other words, which likewiſe in ſome caſes ſerve to connect the parts of a ſentence. There is a difference between ſuch words as imply the connection of ſtates and circumſtances. Actions to be performed or ſuffered may be either poſitively affirmed of any ſubſtance, or merely attributed to them. Living and percipient ſubſtances have immediate ſenſations of pain or pleaſure, which likewiſe are productive of deſire and averſion. To theſe ſentiments particular ſounds are adapted, whether immediately inſpired by nature, or reſulting from aſſociation. Thus we have a foundation for all the different parts of ſpeech; and from their natures and offices, their forms and arrangements may be deduced, according to the analogy of every language. The art of reaſoning, the knowledge of hiſtory, and a taſte for the *belles lettres*, are eaſily attainable by the blind; and as they are copious funds of entertainment they ſhould be incalculated, though at the expence of care and labour. Moral and theological knowledge he may obtain, either from books, or inſtructions delivered *viva voce*. The laſt, if communicated by one who underſtands and feels the ſubject, with a proper degree of perſpicuity and ſenſibility, are by far the moſt eligible. By morals we would not merely be underſtood to mean a regular and inculpable ſeries of action, but the proper exertion and habitual arrangement of the whole internal œconomy, of which external actions are no more than mere expreſſions, and from which the higheſt and moſt permanent happineſs alone can proceed.—By theology, we mean thoſe ſublime and liberal ideas of the nature and government of a Supreme Being, whether diſcoverable by nature or revealed in Scripture, which enforce every moral obligation, which teach us what is the ultimate good of our nature, and determine our efforts and animate our hopes in purſuing this moſt important of all objects. What Cicero ſays of the arts and ſciences may with great propriety be applied to religion: *Nam cætera neque temporum ſunt*, &c. "For other ſtudies are not ſuited to every time, to every age, and to every place: but theſe give ſtrength in youth, and joy in old age; adorn proſperity, and are the ſupport and conſolation of adverſity; at home they are delightful, and abroad they are eaſy; at night they are company to us;

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when we travel they attend us; and in our rural retirements, they do not forsake us." To this may be added, that the joys of religion are for ever adequate to the largest capacity of a finite and progressive intelligence; and as they are boundless in extent, so they are endless in duration.—We have already observed (§ 12,) that a blind man is extremely obnoxious to melancholy and dejection. Where, therefore, can he find a more copious, intimate, permanent, and efficacious source of comfort than in religion? Let this then be inculcated with the utmost care and assiduity. Let the whole force of the soul be exerted in showing him that it is reasonable. Let all the noblest affections of the heart be employed in recommending it as amiable; for we will venture to assert, that the votary of religion alone is the man,—

"Whom though with nature's wreck oppress'd
Unmanly fears could ne'er infest."

(19.) BLIND PERSONS, HINTS TO THE RELATIONS OF, AND APOSTROPHE TO THE PUBLIC RESPECTING. The relations of persons subjected to this misfortune, if in easy circumstances, will find it highly conducive to the improvement of their charge, to select some one among his coevals, of a sound understanding, a sweet and patient temper, a docile mind, a warm heart, and a communicative disposition. These two should be taught to find their interest and happiness in their connection one with another. Their bed, their board, their walks, their entertainments, their lessons, should be common. These are the best eyes with which art can endow a blind man; and if properly selected, they will on some occasions yield very little, in utility and perfection, to those of nature; nay, at some junctures they may be preferable. When the situation of the blind, and its natural effects upon their characters, are considered; when we reflect how exquisite their distresses, how pungent their disappointments, how sensible their regrets, how tedious and gloomy their periods of solitude: we must be wretches indeed, if we can grudge either labour or expence in procuring them every source of instruction and entertainment; which, when procured, remains in their own power, and yields what may be in some measure termed *self-derived enjoyment*. These are prolific of numberless advantages: they afford us at once entertainment and exertion; they teach us to explore a thousand resources for preservation and improvement; and they render us awake and sensible to a thousand notices both of external and intellectual objects, which would otherwise have completely escaped our attention.—You who are parents of such unfortunate persons, do not, by a brutal negligence and insensibility, render the existence which you have given a curse to its possessors. Do not give them reason to upbraid your memory; and to answer those, who ask what patrimony you have left them, that their sole inheritance was ignorance, incapacity and indigence. But it is not the parents and relations alone of the blind, who are culpable if they are neglected. The blind have a right to demand from society. Whether it is more humane and eligible, that such unhappy persons should be suffered to languish out their lives in torpid obscurity, wretched in themselves and burdensome to others, or to cultivate and improve their powers in such a manner, that they may be qualified for internal enjoyment and public utility? Surely there is not a human being, who does not disgrace the works of God, if he can be at any loss to answer this question. Have not the blind then a right to call the world to account? Have they not a right to demand, what rational being susceptible of felicity in themselves, and capable of transfusing happiness through the societies with whom they are connected, should be abandoned to a state of insignificance and misery? Is it possible, that men who are every moment liable to the same contingencies, with which they behold their fellow-creatures afflicted, should not with all their soul endeavour to alleviate the misfortunes of their suffering brethren? Is the native and hereditary portion of human woe so light and supportable in itself, that we should neglect and despise those to whom it is embittered by accidental circumstances of horror and distress? You men of wealth and eminence, you whom Providence has rendered conspicuous on the theatre of nature, to whom it has given the noblest opportunities of participating the divine beatitude, by the exercise of universal benevolence and genuine patriotism; yours is the glorious province of bringing neglected merit from obscurity, of healing the wounds inflicted by adverse fortune, and of cultivating those talents, which may be exerted for your own advantage, and the honour of your species. Thus you shall rise in the heraldry of heaven, and your names diffuse a lustre through the extent of space, and the archives of eternity. Otherwise the temporary glare and parade of your situation can produce nothing but a despicable mimicry of real and intrinsic greatness, and are no more than a splendid mask to cover what in itself is infamous or detestable.

(20.) BLIND, PROBABLE EFFECTS OF LIGHT ON PERSONS BORN. Much labour has been bestowed to investigate, both from reason *a priori* and from experiment, what might be the primary effects of light and luminous objects upon such as have been born blind, or early deprived of sight, if at a maturer period they should instantaneously recover their visual powers. But upon this topic there is much reason to fear, that nothing satisfactory has yet been said. The fallacy of hypothesis and conjecture, when formed *a priori* with respect to an organ of corporeal sensation and its proper object, is too obvious to demand illustration. But from the nature of the eye, and the mediums of its perception, to attempt an investigation of the various and multiform phenomena of vision, or even of the varieties, of which every particular phenomenon is susceptible, according as the circumstances of its appearance are diversified, would be a project worthy of philosophy in a delirium. Nay, even the discoveries which are said to accrue from experiment, may still be held as extremely doubtful and suspicious; because in these experiments it does not appear to have been ascertained, that the organs to which visible objects were presented immediately after chirugical operations, could be in a proper state to perceive them. (See ANATOMY, § 584—588. There are, however, many desiderata, which the perceptions

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ceptions of a man born blind might conſiderably illuſtrate, if his inſtruments of viſion were in a right ſtate, and aſſiſted by a proper medium. Such a perſon might perhaps give a clearer account, why objects, whoſe pictures are inverted upon the retina of the eye, ſhould appear to the mind in their real poſitions; or why, though each particular object is painted upon the retina of both our eyes, it ſhould only be perceived as ſingle. Perhaps, too, this new ſpectator of viſible nature might equally amuſe our curioſity and improve our theory, by attempting to deſcribe his earlieſt ſenſations of colour, and its original effects upon his organ and his fancy. But it is far from being certain, that trials of this kind have ever been fairly made. Thoſe, who wiſh to ſee a more minute detail of theſe queſtions, may conſult M. Diderot's *Lettre ſur les aveugles, a l'uſage de ceux qui voyent*: "A letter concerning the blind, for the uſe of thoſe who ſee." To theſe may be added, *Mr Cheſelden's Anatomy*, and *Locke's Eſſay on the human underſtanding*.

(21.) BLIND, SOCIETIES FOR THE RELIEF OF THE. It is with pleaſure we can add to the above ſtrictures, (§ 19.) that the care and education of the blind are now become objects of public attention, and that reſpectable ſocieties have been inſtituted within theſe few years in this country, as well as in France, to promote theſe laudable objects. That they may proſper, muſt be the wiſh of every philanthropic mind. For a particular account of that inſtituted at Edinburgh. See SOCIETY.

* *To* BLIND. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To make blind; to deprive of ſight.—

You nimble lightnings, dart your *blinding* flames
Into her ſcornful eyes! *Shakeſp.*

—Of whoſe hand have I received any bribe to *blind* mine eyes therewith? and I will reſtore it. 1 *Samuel*.—A blind guide is certainly a great miſchief; but a guide that *blinds* thoſe whom he ſhould lead, is undoubtedly a much greater. *South.* 2. To darken; to obſcure the eye.—

So whirl the ſeas, ſuch darkneſs *blinds* the ſky,
That the black night receives a deeper dye.
Dryden.

3. To darken the underſtanding.—

This my long-ſuffering, and my day of grace,
They who neglect and ſcorn ſhall never taſte,
But hard be harden'd, blind be *blinded* more.
Milton.

4. To obſcure to the underſtanding.—The ſtate of the controverſy between us he endeavoured, with all his art, to *blind* and confound. *Stillingfl.*

BLINDE, among mineraliſts, a ſpecies of lead marcaſite, by miners called mock ore, mock lead, and wild lead. The German mineraliſts call it *blende*, whence our denomination *blinde*. It anſwers to what in Agricola is called *Galena inanis*. It uſually lies immediately over the veins of lead ore, in the mines which produce it, for it is not found in all. When the miners ſee this, they know the vein of ore is very near.

BLINDES, or BLINDS, in the art of war, a ſort of defence commonly made of oziers, or branches interwoven, and laid acroſs between two rows of ſtakes, about the height of a man, and 4 or 5 feet aſunder, uſed particularly at the heads of trenches, when they are extended in front towards the glacis; ſerving to ſhelter the workmen, and prevent their being overlooked by the enemy.

* BLINDFOLD. *adj.* [from the verb.] Having the eyes covered.—

And off himſelf he chanc'd to hurt unwares,
Whilſt reaſon, blent through paſſion, nought deſcried,
But, as a *blindfold* bull, at random fares,
And where he hits, nought knows, and where he hurts, nought cares. *Fairy Queen.*

Who *blindfold* walks upon a rivers brim,
When he ſhould ſee, has he deſerv'd to ſwim?
Dryden.

—When lots are ſhuffled together, or a man *blindfold* caſts a dye, what reaſon can he have to preſume, that he ſhall draw a white ſtone rather than a black? *South.*—The women will look into the ſtate of the nation with their own eyes, and be no longer led *blindfold* by a male legiſlature. *Addiſon.*

* *To* BLINDFOLD. *v. a.* [from *blind* and *fold*.] To hinder from ſeeing, by blinding the eyes.—When they had *blindfold* him, they ſtruck him on the face. *Luke.*

BLIND HARRY. See HENRY, THE MINSTREL.

(1.) BLINDING was a ſpecies of puniſhment anciently inflicted on thieves, adulterers, perjurers, and others; and from which the ancient Chriſtians were not exempt. Sometimes lime and vinegar, or barely ſcalding vinegar, was poured into the eyes, till their balls were conſumed; ſometimes a rope was twiſted round the head till the eyes ſtarted out. In the middle age, they changed total blindneſs for a great darkneſs, or diminution of ſight, which they produced by holding a red hot iron diſh or baſon before the eyes, till their humours were dried, and their coats ſhrivelled up. The inhabitants of the city of Apollonia executed it on their watch when found aſleep. Nothing reflects more honour on the preſent age, than the almoſt total abolition of barbarous puniſhments, which have taken place in Britain and France; and which, it is hoped, will ſoon be univerſally adopted throughout Europe and America. No crime whatever merits torture. Whipping, however, is ſtill inflicted in the army and navy, to a degree often worſe than death. Might not ſome modes of diſgrace be ſubſtituted inſtead of ſuch horrid barbarity?

(2.) BLINDING, VOLUNTARY. Democritus, according to Plutarch, Cicero, and A. Gellius, put out his own eyes, that he might be leſs diſturbed in his mental contemplations, when thus freed from the diſtraction of the objects of ſight.

* BLINDLY. *adv.* [from *blind*.] 1. Without ſight. 2. Implicitly; without examination.—

The old king, after a long debate,
By his imperious miſtreſs *blindly* led,
Has given Cydara to Orbellan's bed. *Dryden.*

—How ready zeal for intereſt and party, is to charge atheiſm on thoſe, who will not, without examining, ſubmit, and *blindly* ſwallow their nonſenſe. *Locke.* 3. Without judgment or direction.—

How ſeas and earth, and air, and active flame,
Fell through the mighty void; and, in their fall,
Were *blindly* gather'd in this goodly ball. *Dryd.*

* BLIND.

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* BLINDMAN's BUFF. *n. ſ.* A play in which ſome one is to have his eyes covered, and hunt out the reſt of the company.—

Diſguis'd in all the maſk of night,
We left our champion on his flight;
At *blindman's buff* to grope his way,
In equal fear of night and day. *Hudibras.*

—He imagines I ſhut my eyes again; but ſurely he fancies I play a *blindman's buff* with him; for he thinks I never have my eyes open. *Stillingfleet.*

(1.) * BLINDNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *blind.*] 1. Want of ſight.—I will ſmite every houſe of the people with *blindneſs*. *Zechariah.* 2. Ignorance; intellectual darkneſs.—

All the reſt as born of ſavage brood,
And with baſe thoughts are into *blindneſs* led,
And kept from looking on the lightſome day. *Spenſer.*

Nor can we call it choice, when what we chuſe
Folly and *blindneſs* only could refuſe. *Denham.*

—Whenſoever we would proceed beyond theſe ſimple ideas, we fall preſently into darkneſs and difficulties, and can diſcover nothing farther but our own *blindneſs* and ignorance. *Locke.*

(2.) BLINDNESS. See BLIND, § 1—21.

(3.) BLINDNESS, in farriery, a diſeaſe incident to horſes, eſpecially thoſe of an iron-grey, or dapple-grey colour, when ridden too hard, or backed too young. It may be diſcovered by the walk, which in a blind horſe is always unequal, becauſe he dares not ſet down his feet boldly when led in one's hand; though if the ſame horſe be mounted by an expert horſeman, and the horſe of himſelf be mettled, the fear of the ſpur will make him go more freely; ſo that his blindneſs can hardly be perceived. Another mark, whereby a horſe may be known to have loſt his ſight, is, that upon hearing any body enter the ſtable, he will prick up his ears, and move them backwards and forwards, being in continual alarm by the leaſt noiſe. Dr Lower firſt thowed the ordinary cauſe of blindneſs in horſes, which is a ſpongy excreſcence, growing in one, ſometimes in two, or three places of the *uvea*, which being at length overgrown, covers the pupil when the horſe is brought into the light, though in a dark ſtable it dilates again. Horſes, that loſe their ſight at certain periods of the moon, are ſaid to be MOON-BLIND.

(4.) BLINDNESS, CAUSES OF, are either ordinary, or extraordinary. The former may ariſe from a decay of the optic nerve (an inſtance whereof we have in the Academy of Sciences, where upon opening the eye of a perſon long blind, the optic nerve was found extremely ſhrunk and decayed, and having no medulla in it); or from ſome external violence, vicious confirmation, growth of a cataract, *gutta ſerena*, ſmall-pox, or the like. See MEDICINE, *Index.* Extraordinary cauſes of blindneſs, are malignant ſtenches, poiſonous juices dropped into the eye, baneful vermin, long confinement in the dark, or the like. The author of the Embaſſy of D. Garcias de Sylva Figueroa into Perſia tells us, that in ſeveral parts of that kingdom there are vaſt numbers of blind people of all ages, ſexes, and conditions; owing to a ſpecies of little flies which prick the eyes and lips, and enter the noſtrils; but carrying certain blindneſs with them when they light on the eyes.

(5.) BLINDNESS, DIURNAL, or HEMERALOPIA, a diſeaſe of the eyes which affects the patient chiefly, or only in day light.

(6.) BLINDNESS, NOCTURNAL, or NYCTALOPIA, that which enſues on the ſetting of the ſun in perſons who ſee perfectly in the day, but become quite blind as ſoon as night comes on. See *Philoſoph. Tranſact.* N° 159. p. 560, where an inſtance of it is given; alſo a ſingular caſe of this kind related by Dr Samuel Pye, in the *Medic. Obſerv.* and *Inquir. Vol.* I. *p.* 111.

(7.) BLINDNES, PARTIAL, is that wherein ſome faint glimmering is left, as is always the caſe in people who have ripe cataracts, who are never ſo blind but they can diſcern day from night.

(8.) BLINDNESS, PERIODICAL, is that which comes and goes by turns, according to the ſeaſon of the moon, time of day, and the like.

(9.) BLINDNESS, PERPETUAL, is that which remains alike under all the diverſity of ſeaſons, times, ages, &c.

(10.) BLINDNESS, TOTAL, is that wherein all ſight or perception, even of light, is wanting, as is the caſe of thoſe who are ſaid to be *ſtone blind.* A blind man, by the civil law, cannot make a teſtament except under certain modifications; but in every caſe he is diſabled from being a witneſs to a teſtament, on account of his blindneſs.

(11.) BLINDNESS, TRANSIENT, is that which gives way of itſelf in due time, as that of whelps, which continues for ſeveral days, ſometimes 9, rarely 12, after they are littered. The Nogais Tartars, according to father Du Ban the Jeſuit, who lived among them, are born blind, and open not their eyes for ſeveral days. The ducks which breed under ground, and break out into the Zirchnitzer ſea in Carniola after great ſtorms, are blind at their firſt eruption; but in ſome time come to their ſight.

* BLINDNETTLE. *n. ſ.* [*ſcrofularia.*] A plant.

BLIND RAMPART, [*cæcum vallum,*] among the ancients, was that beſet with ſharp ſtakes, concealed by graſs or leaves growing over them.

BLINDS. See BLINDES.

* BLINDSIDE. *n. ſ.* [from *blind* and *ſide.*] Weakneſs; foible; weak part.—He is too great a lover of himſelf; this is one of his *blindſides*; the beſt of men, I fear, are not without them. *Swift.*

(1.) * BLINDWORM. *n. ſ.* [*cæcilia*, from *blind* and *worm.*] A ſmall viper, called likewiſe a ſlow worm; believed not to be venomous.—

You ſpotted ſnakes, with double tongue,
Thorny hedgehogs, be not ſeen;
Newts and *blindworms*, do no wrong;
Come not near our fairy queen. *Shakeſpeare.*

—The greater ſlow worm, called alſo the *blindworm*, is commonly thought to be blind, becauſe of the littleneſs of his eyes. *Grew.*

(2.) BLIND WORM. See ANGUIS, N° I. § 15, and *Plate* XIV.

* *To* BLINK. *v. n.* [*blincken*, Daniſh.] 1. To wink, or twinkle with the eyes.—

So politick, as if one eye
Upon the other were a ſpy;
That to trepan the one to think
The other blind, both ſtrove to *blink.* *Hudib.*

2. To

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2. To see obscurely.—

What's here! the portrait of a *blinking* ideot.
Shakespeare.

Sweet and lovely wall,
Shew me thy chink, to *blink* through with mine eyne. *Shak. Midf. Night's Dream.*

His figure such as might his soul proclaim;
One eye was *blinking*, and one leg was lame.
Pope.

* BLINKARD. *n. f.* [from *blink*.] 1. One that has bad eyes. 2. Something twinkling —In some parts we see many glorious and eminent stars, in other few of any remarkable greatness, and in some, none but *blinkards*, and obscure ones. *Hakewill.*

BLINKING OF BEER signifies letting the wort stand for some time in the vat, till it hath acquired some degree of acidity, to dispose it to fine, and be the sooner ready for drinking.

(1.) BLINKS, among ancient sportsmen, denoted boughs broken down from trees, and thrown in the way where deer were likely to pass, to hinder their running, or rather to mark which way the deer ran, in order to guide the hunter.

(2.) BLINKS, in botany. See MONTIA.

To BLINNE, *v. n.* [*blinnan*, Sax.] To desist; to cease; to give over. *Chauc.*

BLISLAND, a village in Cornwall, S. of Temple Moor.

* BLISS. *n. f.* [*bliſſe*, Sax. from *blithaſian*, to rejoice.] 1. The highest degree of happiness; blessedness; felicity: generally used of the happiness of blessed souls.—A mighty Saviour hath witnessed of himself, I am the way; the way that leadeth us from misery into *bliſs*. *Hooker.*—

Dim sadness did not spare
That time celestial visages; yet, mixed
With pity, violated not their *bliſs*. *Milton.*

With me
All my redeem'd may dwell, in joy and *bliſs*.
Milton.

2. Felicity in general.—

Condition, circumstance is not the thing:
Bliſs is the same in subject or in king. *Pope.*

* BLISSFUL. *adj.* [from *bliſs* and *full*.] Full of joy; happy in the highest degree.—

Yet swimming in that sea of *bliſsful* joy,
He nought forgot. *Fairy Queen.*

—The two saddest ingredients in hell, are deprivation of the *bliſsful* vision, and confusion of face. *Hammond.*—

Reaping immortal fruits of joy and love,
Uninterrupted joy, and unrival'd love,
In *bliſsful* solitude. *Milton.*

So peaceful thou shalt end thy *bliſsful* days,
And steal thyself from life by slow decays. *Pope.*

First in the fields I try the silvan strains,
Nor blush to sport in Windsor's *bliſsful* plains.
Pope.

* BLISSFULLY. *adv.* [from *bliſsful*.] Happily.

* BLISSFULNESS. *n. f.* [from *bliſsful*.] Happiness; fulness of joy.

* *To* BLISSOM. *v. n.* To caterwaul; to be lustful. *Dict.*

BLISSOMING, among husbandmen, corruptly called *bloſſoming*, the intercourse between a ram and a ewe.

(1.) * BLISTER. *n. f.* [*bluyſter*, Dutch.] 1. A pustule formed by raising the cuticle from the cutis, and filled with serous blood.—

In this state she gallops, night by night,
O'er ladies lips, who strait on kisses dream,
Which oft the angry Mab with *bliſters* plagues,
Because their breaths with sweetmeats tainted are. *Shakespeare.*

—I found a great *bliſter* drawn by the garlick, but had it cut, which run a good deal of water, but filled again by next night. *Temple.* 2. Any swelling made by the separation of a film or skin from the other parts.—Upon the leaves there riseth a tumour like a *bliſter*. *Bacon.*

(2.) BLISTER, in medicine, a thin bladder containing a watery humour, whether occasioned by burns, or by vesicatories applied for that purpose. Spanish flies, in the form of a plaster, are chiefly used with this intention. See CANTHARIDES, and MEDICINE, INDEX.

(1.) * *To* BLISTER. *v. a.* 1. To raise blisters by some hurt, as by a burn or rubbing.—

Look, here comes one, a gentlewoman of mine,
Who falling in the flaws of her own youth,
Hath *bliſter'd* her report. † *Shakespeare.*

2. To raise blisters with a medical intention.—I *bliſter'd* the legs and thighs; but was too late; he died howling. *Wiseman.*

(2.) * *To* BLISTER. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To rise in blisters.—

If I prove honeymouth, let my tongue *bliſter*,
And never to my red look'd anger be
The trumpet any more. *Shakespeare.*

Embrace thy knees with loathing hands,
Which *bliſter* when they touch thee. *Dryden.*

BLISTERING, in farriery, is used in cases of strains and shrunk sinews in horses, as some maintain, with good effect; but others say with none.

BLITE, in botany. See BLITUM.

(1.) BLITH, an extensive parish of England, in Nottinghamshire.

(2.) BLITH, a town in the above parish, (N° 1.) near Bawtry, on the Redford road, 23 miles NNW. from Newark, and 146 N. by W. of London. It has a large church, a market on Thursday, and fairs on Ascension day (noted for sheep) and Oct. 6. Lon. 1. 10. W. Lat. 53. 22. N.

(3—5.) BLITH, or BLYTHE, the name of 3 rivers in England, viz. 1. in Northumberland: 2. in Suffolk: and, 3. in Warwickshire.

BLITHBOROUGH, a town in Suffolk, seated on the Blith, between Dunwich and Halesworth, on the Yarmouth road, 97 miles from London. It has a fair April 5.

* BLITHE. *adj.* [*blithe*, Sax.] Gay; airy; merry; joyous; sprightly: mirthful.—We have always one eye fixed upon the countenance of our enemies; and, according to the *blithe* or heavy aspect thereof, our other eye sheweth some other suitable token either of dislike or approbation. *Hooker.*—

They

† *Dr* JOHNSON *seems to have been rather off his guard here, when he quoted this* metaphor *of Shakespeare's, to illustrate his* literal *explanation of blistering by a* burn *or* rubbing! Interdum dormitat bonus Homerus.

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Then ſigh not ſo, but let them go,
And be you *blithe* and bonny. *Shakeſpeare.*
For that fair female troop thou ſaw'ſt, that ſeem'd
Of goddeſſes, ſo *blithe*, ſo ſmooth, ſo gay;
Yet empty of all good. *Milton.*
To whom the wily adder, *blithe* and glad:
Empreſs! the way is ready, and not long. *Milt.*
And the milk ſingeth *blithe*,
And the mower whets his ſcythe. *Milton.*
Should he return, that troop ſo *blithe* and bold,
Precipitant in fear, would wing their flight. *Pope.*

BLITHFIELD, a village in Staffordſhire, near Paget's Bromley.

BLITHFORD, in Suffolk, E. of Haleſworth.

BLITH-HALL, in Warwickſh. near Shuſtock.

* BLITHLY. *adv.* [from *blithe*.] In a blithe manner.

* BLITHNESS. BLITHSOMNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *blithe*.] The quality of being blithe.

BLITH'S NEWK, a village on the coaſt of Northumberland, between Hartly and Newbiggining.

* BLITHSOME. *adj.* [from *blithe*.] Gay; cheerful.—

Froſty blaſts deface
The *blithſome* year: trees of their ſhrivell'd fruits
Are widow'd. *Philips.*

* BLITHSOMNESS. See BLITHNESS.

BLITON, a town in Lincolnſhire, W. of Bliborough.

BLITUM, the BLITE, or STRAWBERRY SPINACH: A genus of the digynia order, belonging to the monandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking in the 12th order, *Holoraceæ*. The calyx is trifid; no petals; the ſeed is one, included in a berry-ſhaped calyx. There are 3 ſpecies, viz.

1. BLITUM CAPITATUM, with flowers in cluſtered heads at the joints and crown of the ſtalks, is a native of Spain and Portugal, but has been long preſerved in the Britiſh gardens, for the beauty of its fruit. It is an annual plant, with leaves ſomewhat like thoſe of the Spinach: the ſtalk riſes 2½ feet high; the upper part of the ſtalk has flowers coming out in ſmall heads at every joint, and is terminated by a little cluſter of the ſame: after the flowers are paſt, the heads ſwell to the ſize of wood ſtrawberries, and when ripe have the ſame appearance, but are not eatable; they are full of purple juice, which ſtains the hands of thoſe who bruiſe them of a deep purple colour.

2. BLITUM TARTARICUM, with triangular acutely indented leaves, is a native of Tartary. Mr Miller received the ſeeds from Peterſburg. It riſes to near three feet high: the flowers come out from the ſides of the ſtalks, but are ſmaller than thoſe of the capitulum, as is alſo the fruit.

3. BLITUM VIRGATUM, with ſmall heads growing from the ſides of the ſtalks, is a native of the S. of France and Italy. It ſeldom grows more than a foot high; the leaves are of the ſame ſhape with thoſe of the Capitatum, but ſmaller. The flowers are produced at the wings of the leaves, almoſt the length of the ſtalk; they are ſmaller, and not ſo deeply coloured as the firſt. All theſe ſpecies being annual, muſt be propagated with ſeeds; and as they are very hardy, will ſucceed in the common border, if ſown in March or April, covering the ſeed about half an inch deep with earth, and leaving the plants 5 or 6 inches aſunder. When they come up, each muſt be ſupported with a ſmall ſtick, or they will be born down by the weight of the berries.

BLIVE, *adv. obſ.* Quickly; briſkly. *Chauc.*

* BLOAT, *adj.* Swelled with intemperance; turgid.—

The *bloat* king. *Shakeſpeare's Hamlet.*

(1.) * *To* BLOAT. *v. a.* [probably from *blow*.] To ſwell, to make turgid with wind: it has *up*, an intenſive particle.—

His rude eſſays
Encourge him, and *bloat* him, *up* with praiſe,
That he may get more bulk before he dies.
Dryden.

—The ſtrutting petticoat ſmooths all diſtinctions, levels the mother with the daughter. I cannot but be troubled to ſee ſo many well-ſhaped innocent virgins, *bloated up*, and wadding up and down like bigbelled women. *Addiſon.*

(2.) * *To* BLOAT. *v. n.* To grow turgid.—If a perſon of a firm conſtitution begins to *bloat*, from being warm grows cold, his fibres grow weak. *Arbuthnot.*

BLOATED FISH, or BLOATED HERRINGS, in our ſtatutes, are thoſe which are half dried See Stat. 18. Car. II. c. 2. They are made by ſteeping them in a peculiar brine, and then hanging them in a chimney to dry.

* BLOATEDNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *bloat*.] Turgidneſs; ſwelling; tumour.—Laſſitude, lazineſs, *bloatedneſs*, and ſcorbutical ſpots, are ſymptoms of weak fibres. *Arbuthnot.*

BLOATING, in medicine, a pulling up of the exterior habit of the body, lodged chiefly in the adipoſe cells. It is ſtiled by phyſicians EMPHYSEMA.

* BLOBBER. *n. ſ.* [from *blob*.] A word uſed in ſome countries for a bubble.—There ſwimmeth alſo in the ſea a round ſlimy ſubſtance, called a *blobber*, reputed noiſome to the fiſh. *Carew.*

* BLOBBERLIP. *n. ſ.* [from *blob*, or *blobber*, and *lip*.] A thick lip.—

They make a wit of their inſipid friend,
His *blobberlips*, and beetlebrows commend.
Dryden.

* BLOBBERLIPPED. } *adj.* Having ſwelled or
* BLOBLIPPED. } thick ligs.—A *blobberlipped* ſhell ſeemeth to be a kind of muſſel. *Grew.*—His perſon deformed to the higheſt degree: flat noſed, and *blobberlipped*. *L'Eſtrange.*

(1.) BLOCK, Daniel, a portrait painter, was born at Stettin in Pomerania in 1580, and gave early proofs of a good genius: which induced his parents to place him as a diſciple with Jacob Scherer. His extraordinary merit recommended him to the Prince of Mecklenburg, who retained him in his ſervice for 44 years; during which, he painted the portraits of his whole family at full length, as large as life, and in the antique habit. He alſo painted portraits of Chriſtian IV. K. of Denmark, and Guſtavus Adolphus K. of Sweden. By his agreeable manner of colouring, and the eaſy attitudes of his figures, his paintings became ſo acceptable, that before the decline of life, he had acquired a very large fortune; but unfortunately he

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he loſt it all, in a few hours, by a plundering party, and with great difficulty his own life was preſerved. He died in 1661.

(2.) * BLOCK. *n. ſ.* [*block*, Dutch; *bloc*, Fr.] 1. A heavy piece of timber, rather thick than long. 2. A maſs of matter.—Homer's apotheoſis conſiſts of a groupe of figures, cut in the ſame *block* of marble, and riſing one above another. *Addiſon.* 3. A maſſy body.—Small cauſes are ſufficient to make a man uneaſy, when great ones are not in the way: for want of a *block*, he will ſtumble at a ſtraw. *Swift.* 4. A rude piece of matter; in contempt.—When, by the help of wedges and beetles, an image is cleft out of the trunk of ſome tree, yet after the ſkill of ſome artificer to ſet forth ſuch a divine *block*, it cannot one moment ſecure itſelf from being eaten by worms. *Stillingfleet.* 5. The piece of wood on which hats are formed. Some old writers uſe *block* for the hat itſelf.—He wears his faith but as the faſhion of his hat; it ever changes with the next *block*. *Shakeſpeare.* 6. The wood on which criminals are beheaded.—

Some guard the traitors to the *block* of death,
Treaſon's true bed, and yielder up of breath.
Shakeſpeare.

—At the inſtant of his death, having a long beard, after his head was upon the *block*, he gently drew his beard aſide, and ſaid, this hath not offended the king. *Bacon.*—

I'll drag him thence,
Even from the holy altar to the *block*. *Dryden.*

7. An obſtruction; a ſtop.—Can he never dream, that the ſuffering for righteouſneſs ſake is our felicity, when he ſees us run ſo far from it, that no crime is *block* enough in our way to ſtop our flight? *Decay of Piety.* 8. A ſea term for a pully. 9. A blockhead; a fellow remarkable for ſtupidity.—

The country is a deſert, where the good
Gain'd, inhabits not; born's not underſtood;
There men become beaſts, and prone to all evils;
In cities, *blocks*. *Donne.*
What tongueleſs *blocks* were they, would they not ſpeak? *Shakeſpeare's Richard* III.

(3.) BLOCK, in architecture, ſtatuary, &c. a piece of marble from the quarry, before it has received any form.

(4.) BLOCK, in bowling, the ſame with JACK.

(5.) BLOCK, in carving of wood, is a form made of pear-tree, box, or other hard and cloſe-grained wood, free from knots, on which figures are cut in relievo, with knives, chiſſels, &c.

(6.) BLOCK, in falconry, the perch whereon a bird of prey is kept. It is covered with cloth.

(7.) BLOCK, in geography, a ſmall iſland of the United States, belonging to Rhode-Iſland, lying 21 miles SSW. of Newport. It was incorporated in 1672, by the name of New-Shoreham townſhip. It is a diviſion of Newport county, and is the moſt ſoutherly land in the ſtate. In 1795, it contained 634 free inhabitants, and 147 ſlaves. They are noted for making excellent cheeſe. The ſhores abound with great variety of fiſh.

(8.) BLOCK, in mechanic arts, a large piece of ſolid wood whereon to faſten work, or to faſhion it; ſtrength and ſtability being the requiſite properties. In this ſenſe, we ſay a *chopping block*; a *ſugar-finer's block*; a *ſmith's block*, &c.

(9.) BLOCK, MOUNTING, an eminence uſually of ſtone, but in ſteps or notches, ſerving as a help to mount on horſeback. Theſe were much in uſe among the ancients, who were unacquainted with ſtirrups. The Romans erected them at proper ſtations all along their great roads. See ANABATHRA.

(10.) BLOCKS, in ſea language, pieces of wood belonging to ſhips, in which the ſtaves or pulleys are placed, and wherein the running ropes go. Of theſe ſome are ſingle, ſome double; and ſome have 3, 4, or 5 ſhivers in them. They are named and diſtinguiſhed by the ropes they carry, and the uſes they ſerve for. See PULLEY; and *Plate* XXII.

(11.) BLOCK, SPRING, an invention of Mr Hopkinſon of Philadelphia, to aſſiſt a veſſel in ſailing. The principles of it are thus explained, in his paper publiſhed in the *Tranſactions of the American Philoſophical Society*. "The maſts, yards, and rigging of a ſhip receive the firſt impulſes of the wind. All theſe are in ſome degree elaſtic. Every twiſted rope is a ſpiral ſpring, and every ſpar capable of being a little bent. But let us ſuppoſe that the ropes were all compoſed of ſtraight ſtrands, that the maſts and yards were inflexible, and the ſails made of thin light wood; in ſuch a caſe, I ſuppoſe that the veſſel, in ſailing by the wind, would make but little head-way, whatever the ſhape of her bottom might be, but would expend the force of the wind in heeling, and ſlipping to leeward. If this is true, her ſailing muſt be conſiderably aſſiſted by any means that ſhall increaſe the acting ſpring of her rigging. For this purpoſe I have contrived what I call a *ſpring block*, to be applied to ſuch parts of the rigging as will admit of it with ſafety and convenience, and where its operations will be moſt advantageous; but particularly to the ſheet-ropes, and if practicable to the dead eyes, in lieu of what are called the chains. In *Plate* XXXIX. *fig.* 5. A, is a block made in the uſual manner, having a ring or eye B, at one end. C, is a ſpiral ſpring, linked at one end to the hook D E, and at the other to the ring F, which is to be annexed by a ſtaple to the timber-head, or by ſome other means, to the place where it is to be applied. The ſpring C muſt be of well tempered ſteel, and proportioned in ſtrength to the ſervice it is to perform. Within the cavity or pipe, formed by the ſpiral ſpring, there muſt be a chain of ſuitable ſtrength, called a *chinck chain* (repreſented ſeparate at G,) connected by links to the hook D E, and ring F. When the ſpring is not in action, this chain is ſlack; but when the ſpiral ſpring is extended by the force of the wind, as far as it can be without danger of injury, the cheek-chain muſt then begin to bear, to prevent its farther extenſion, and, if ſtrong enough, will be an effectual ſecurity againſt failure. *Fig.* 6. repreſents part of the gun-wale of a ſloop, with the ſpring blocks in action, one of them hooked to a ſtaple in the timber head, and the other to the corner of the jib. My expectation is, that a veſſel thus furniſhed will be leſs liable to heel, that ſhe will receive the impulſes of the wind to better advan-

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tage, and ſail with a more lively and equable motion, than if rigged in the common way."

(12.) BLOCK, VOYAL. See VOYAL.

* *To* BLOCK. *v. a.* [*bloquer*, Fr.] 1. To ſhut up; to incloſe, ſo as to hinder egreſs; to obſtruct. —The ſtates about them ſhould neither by encreaſe of dominion, nor by *blocking* of trade, have it in their power to hurt or annoy. *Clarendon.*—

They *block* the caſtle kept by Bertram;
But now they cry, down with the palace, fire it. *Dryd n.*

2. It has often *up*, to note clauſure.—Recommend it to the governor of Abingdon, to ſend ſome troops to *block* it *up*, from infeſting the great road. *Clarendon.*—The abbot raiſes an army, and *blocks up* the town on the ſide that faces his dominions. *Addiſon.*

(1.) * BLOCKADE. *n. ſ.* [from *block*.] A ſiege carried on by ſhutting up the place.—The enemy was neceſſitated wholly to abandon the *blockade* of Olivenza. *Tatler.*—

Round the goddeſs roll
Broad hats and hoods, and caps, a ſable ſhoal;
Thick, and more thick, the black *blockade* extends. *Pope.*

(2.) BLOCKADE, in the art of war, the blocking up a place, by poſting troops at all the avenues leading to it, to keep ſupplies of men and proviſions from getting into it; and by theſe means propoſing to ſtarve it out, without making any regular attacks.

(3.) BLOCKADE, TO RAISE A, is to force the troops that keep the place blocked up from their poſts.

* *To* BLOCKADE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To ſhut up by obſtruction.—

Huge bales of Britiſh cloth *blockade* the door,
A hundred oxen at your levee roar. *Pope.*

BLOCK AND BLOCK, in ſea language, is a phraſe uſed, when on hauling any tackle, haulyard, or the like, to which two *blocks* belong, the two meet and touch; ſo that they can haul no farther.

BLOCK-BATTERY, in the military art, denotes a wooden battery on 4 wheels, moveable from place to place, whereby to fire *en barbe*, or over the parapet; ſometimes alſo uſed in galleries and caſements, where room is wanted.

BLOCKFIELD, a village in the county of Surry, near E. Grinſted.

* BLOCKHEAD. *n. ſ.* [from *block* and head.] A ſtupid fellow; a dolt; a man without parts.—Your wit will not ſo ſoon out as another man's will; it is ſtrongly wedged up in a *blockhead*. *Shakeſpeare.*—

We idly ſit like ſtupid *blockheads*,
Our hands committed to our pockets. *Hudibras.*
A *blockhead* rubs his thoughtleſs ſkull,
And thanks his ſtars he was not born a fool. *Pope.*

* BLOCKHEADED. *adj.* [from *blockhead*.] Stupid; dull.—Says a *blockheaded* boy, theſe are villainous creatures. *L'Eſtrange.*

(1.) * BLOCK-HOUSE. *n. ſ.* [from *block* and *houſe*.] A fortreſs built to obſtruct or block up a paſs, commonly to defend a harbour.—His entrance is guarded, with *block-houſes*, and that on the town's ſide fortified with ordnance. *Carew.*—Rocheſter water reacheth far within the land, and is under the protection of ſome *block-houſes*. *Raleigh.*

(2.) BLOCK-HOUSES are made of wood, mounted on rollers, or on a veſſel, and ſerve either on the water, or in counter-ſcraps and counter-approaches. The name is alſo applied to a brick or ſtone fort built on a bridge, or the brink of a river, ſerving not only for its defence, but for the command of the river above and below.

BLOCKING, in middle age writers, a kind of burial uſed for perſons who died excommunicated.

* BLOCKISH. *adj.* [from *block*.] Stupid; dull.—

Make a lott'ry,
And, by decree, let *blockiſh* Ajax draw
The fort to fight with Hector. *Shakeſpeare.*

* BLOCKISHLY. *adv.* [from *blockiſh*.] In a ſtupid manner.

* BLOCKISHNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *blockiſh*.] Stupidity; dullneſs.

BLOCKLAND, Anthony, hiſtory and portrait painter, was of a noble family, and born at Montford in 1532. He learned painting under Francis Florus, whoſe manner he always followed; and became an artiſt of great diſtinction, by imitating the taſte of the Roman ſchool. His genius was beſt adapted to grand compoſitions, of which he deſigned many at Delft and Utrecht. The airs of his heads were noble, and the profiles of his female figures approached near to the taſte of Parmigiano. Several of his works are in excellent guſto, particularly a Venus, and the hiſtory of Joſeph and his Brethren. He died in 1583.

(1.) BLOCKLEY, a pariſh of England, in Worceſterſhire, ſurrounded by Glouceſterſhire; where the biſhops of Worceſter had a park and an elegant palace, before the reformation.

(2, 3.) BLOCKLEY, two Engliſh villages, viz. 1. in Glouceſterſhire between Camden and Stow; and, 2. in Worceſterſhire, in the above pariſh, (N° 1.) 7 miles SE. of Eveſham. It has fairs on the 2d Tueſ. after Eaſter and O. Michaelmas.

* BLOCK-TIN. *n. ſ.* [from *block* and *tin*.] So the tradeſmen call that which is pure and unmixed, and yet unwrought. *Boyle.*

BLOCK-WOOD, a name ſometimes given in our laws to LOGWOOD. 23 Eliz. c. 9.

BLOCKY, among jewellers, an epithet given to a diamond when its ſides are too upright, by its TABLE and COLLET being too large.

BLOCKZIL, or BLOCZIL, a fortreſs of Over-yſſel, in the United Provinces, ſeated on the river Aa, where it falls into the Zuyder Zee. It has a port ſufficient to contain 200 veſſels, and ſerves to defend thoſe ſhips that croſs the ſea. It has ſix good baſtions, and ſeveral other regular fortifications. It is 8 miles NW. of Stenwick. Lon. 5. 39. E. Lat. 52. 44. N.

BLODERIT, *adj. Obſ.* blubbered. *Chaucer.*

BLODWALL, a village in Shropſhire, S. of Oſweſtry.

BLODWORTH, a village in Nottinghamſhire, S. of Sherwood Foreſt.

BLODWYTA. See BLOODWIT, § 2.

(1.) BLOEMART, Abraham, painter of landſcape, cattle, hiſtory, and portraits, was born at Gorcum in 1564, according to Houbraken, but according

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according to Sandrart, in 1567, and lived moſtly at Utrecht. In his youth he imitated the works of Floris, but his own genius proved his principal director. He formed a manner peculiar to himſelf, making nature his model, particularly in his cattle, in which he excelled. He died in 1647. He left 4 ſons all artiſts.

(2.) BLOEMART, Cornelius, the youngeſt ſon of Abraham, was born in 1603 at Utrecht. The firſt principles of drawing and painting he learned from his father; but his inclination for engraving led him to apply wholly to the purſuit of it. He firſt ſtudied under Criſpin de Paſs, and afterwards went to Rome, to perfect himſelf from the works of the greateſt maſters: And where he died in a very advanced age. His manner of engraving was not only quite original, but the ſource from which we may trace that ſtyle in which the greateſt French maſters excelled, who worked with the graver only. He covered the lights upon his diſtances, and the other parts of his plates which required tinting, with great care. The lights, on the diſtant hills, trees, buildings, &c. in the engravings prior to his time, had been left quite clear, and by ſo many white ſpots in various parts of the ſame deſign, the harmony was deſtroyed, the ſubject confuſed, and the principal figures prevented from relieving with any ſtriking effect. By this judicious improvement, Bloemart gave to his prints a more finiſhed appearance, than all the laboured neatneſs even of Jerom Wierix had been capable to produce. He drew correctly, but from his engraving entirely with the graver, the extremities of his figures are heavy, and his heads are not always equally beautiful or expreſſive. In the mechanical part of the works, few have excelled him, either in clearneſs or freedom of execution. His great fault, however, is want of variety. The naked parts of his figures, the draperies, and the back-ground, are equally neat, and engraved preciſely in the ſame manner. Hence the effect is flat; and the fleſh, for want of ſufficient diſtinction, appears cold. His works are juſtly held in high eſtimation. They are very numerous, yet many of them difficult to be procured.

(1.) BLOEMEN, John Francis VAN, ſirnamed by the Italians, *Orizonti*. See ORIZONTI.

(2.) BLOEMEN, Norbert VAN, brother of the preceding, was a painter of portraits and converſations; but in merit was very inferior to his brothers, (N° 1 & 3.) although he had a good deal of employment.

(3.) BLOEMEN, Peter VAN, a celebrated painter, born at Antwerp, was alſo brother to John Francis, (N° 1.) with whom he lived for ſeveral years at Rome. As ſoon as he found himſelf competently ſkilled in colouring, pencilling and deſigning, he returned to his native city, where, in 1699, he was appointed director of the academy. His compoſition is rich, and his pictures are generally filled with a number of figures. His ſubjects are, ſquadrons of cavalry, encampments, artillery, battles, Italian fairs, markets, and feſtivals; in which he ſhowed great correctneſs in drawing, and an elegance in the manner of dreſſing his figures; whom he frequently repreſented in oriental habits. He deſigned horſes in an admirable ſtyle; and in his battles gave them abundance of ſpirit, graceful attitudes, and an expreſſion full of life. His landſcapes are enriched with elegant architecture, with baſſo-relievos, and mutilated ſtatues, in a fine taſte; and rendered ſtill more pleaſing by a good colour, by animals of different kinds, and excellent figures.—His beſt works are admired in all of parts Europe, and afford large prices: but ſome of his pictures ſeem rather too much laboured, and theſe are proportionably leſs valued.

BLOIS, a town of France, in the department of Loire and Cher, and ci-devant province of Blaiſois, ſeated on the Loire, partly on a plain, and partly on an eminence, in one of the moſt agreeable countries in France. The caſtle is the ornament of this city. At the firſt view, it ſeems to be two diſtinct buildings; but it is joined by a paſſage cut out of the rock. Joining this, on the W. ſide, is the tower of *Chateau Regnaud*, which may be ſeen 20 miles diſtant. At the E. end of this is another ſmall tower, partly ancient and partly modern. That part of the caſtle which was built by the duke of Orleans, in 1632, is a ſuperb edifice, but unfiniſhed. The court, before it, where the church of St Saviour is built, is very large, and was formerly uſed for tournaments. The moſt remarkable thing in this caſtle is a fine long gallery, adorned with many curious pieces; it is in the midſt of two gardens, one of which is full of fruit trees, and the other of parterres, fountains, caſcades, and marble ſtatues brought from Italy. On all the gates of the city there is the image of the Virgin Mary, who it was believed, freed the natives from the plague in 1631. There are ſeveral churches, of which that of St Solenne, the cathedral, is the handſomeſt. The font of the Jeſuits church is decorated with the Doric, Ionic, and Corinthian orders. The town houſe ſtands in a ſtreet which terminates at the quay, where there is a public walk, that has a fine proſpect on the Loire, over which there is an elegant bridge that leads to Vienne. There are a few houſes on the bridge, and a tower at each end. About ½ of a mile from the city, the water runs down the clefts of a rock into a large aqueduct, by which it is conveyed into a reſervoir near the walls, and thence diſtributed by leaden pipes through the city. The trade of Blois is chiefly in wine and brandy; but the inhabitants alſo make ſome ſerges and ſtuffs, and they are noted for making fine watches. The city has the appearance of an amphitheatre, the ſtreets being laid out like rows of ſeats above each other upon the hill. It was anciently a place of royal reſidence, and Lewis XII. was born in it. The French language is ſaid to be ſpoken in its greateſt purity at Blois. It is ſituated 80 miles SW. of Verſailles, 47 NE. of Tours, and 100 SW. of Paris. Lon. 1. 25. E. Lat. 47. 35. N.

BLOIS, BOLE OF. See BLESENIS BOLUS.

* BLOMARY. *n. ſ.* The firſt forge in the iron mills, through which the metal paſſes, after it has been firſt melted from the mine. *Dict.*

BLOMBERG, Barbara, a young lady of quality in Ratiſbon, who was doubtleſs miſtreſs of the emperor Charles V. as ſhe conſented to paſs for the mother of his natural ſon, the celebrated Don JOHN of Auſtria; who died in the belief that ſhe was his mother, and recommended her and

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her ſon Pyramus Conrad, whom ſhe afterwards had by her huſband, to the patronage of Philip II. in the belief that ſhe was ſo, and that he was his uterine brother. Accordingly Philip, to keep up the deception, patroniſed them both; for he ſent for Barbara into Spain, and ſettled her with a handſome equipage at Mazote, in the royal monaſtery; and gave a penſion of 30 crowns per month to Pyramus, whom he placed under the D. of Parma, to learn the art of war. Some authors have doubted whether ſhe had any connection with the emperor; but Mr Bayle juſtly obſerves, "it is very unlikely that the lady was leſs complying as to the *being*, than as to the *ſeeming* to be; for commonly the latter is more dreaded than the former, and a woman would think herſelf very unhappy to go through the *laſt*, without the *firſt*." A humorous dialogue of the dead has been wrote in the characters of Barbara and Lucretia.

BLOMIE, *adj. obſ.* blooming. *Chauc.*

BLOND, Chriſtopher LE, painter of portraits in miniature, and all ſubjects on paper, was born in 1670. Few circumſtances relative to his education or life are mentioned, till he became known at Rome in 1716, as painter to Count Martinetz, ambaſſador at that court. At the ſolicitation of Overbeke he went to Amſterdam, where he was employed to paint ſmall portraits for bracelets, rings, and ſnuff-boxes; of which, although they were painted in water-colours, yet the colouring was as lively and natural, as if they had been painted in oil. However, finding his ſight much impaired by the minuteneſs of his work, he diſcontinued it, and attempted the uſe of oil with ſucceſs. After ſpending ſome years in the Low Countries, he went to England, and ſet up a new method of painting mezzotinto plates in colours, ſo as to imitate the pictures of which they were copies. In this manner he executed ſeveral large plates, from pictures of the greateſt maſters, and diſpoſed of the prints by lottery. But thoſe who obtained the prizes, (Mr Strutt ſays,) appear not to have held them in great eſtimation. "The prints (he adds) poſſeſs merit, excluſive of their novelty; but in general, the colours are flat and dirty; and the drawing is frequently very incorrect. But Mr Pilkington ſays, "The artiſt imitated his models with ſuch exact reſemblance, ſuch correctneſs of outline, ſuch ſimiliarity of colour nd expreſſion, that at firſt they amazed every beholder who viewed them at a proper diſtance: and many of thoſe prints are ſtill extant, which are much eſteemed by perſons of good taſte." And Mr Walpole obſerves, that ſome heads, coloured progreſſively, according to their ſeveral gradations, bear witneſs to the ſucceſs and beauty of his invention. He had another merit with which few inventors begin; for he communicated his ſecret in a thin quarto, entitled "*Coloritto*, or The harmony of colouring in painting reduced to mechanical practice, under eaſy precepts and infallible rules." His method was performed by ſeveral mezzotinto plates for one piece, each expreſſing different ſhades and parts of the piece in different colours. He was not, however, it is ſaid, the original inventor of that method, but took it from Laſtman and others, who, with much greater regularity of morals, and equal capacities, had before undertaken it without ſucceſs. Le Blond next ſet on foot a project for copying the cartoons of Raphael in tapeſtry, and made drawings from the pictures for that purpoſe. Houſes were built and looms erected at the Mulberry Ground at Chelſea; but the expences being too great, or the contributions not equal to the firſt expectations, the ſcheme was ſuddenly defeated, and Le Blond diſappeared to the no ſmall diſſatisfaction of thoſe who engaged him. From hence he went to Paris, where he died, in 1740, in an hoſpital. He was author of a treatiſe, in French on Ideal Beauty. It was publiſhed in 1732, and has ſince been tranſlated into Engliſh.

(1.) BLONDEL, David, a proteſtant miniſter, diſtinguiſhed by his ſkill in eccleſiaſtical and civil hiſtory, was born at Chalons ſur Marne, and admitted miniſter at a ſynod of the iſle of France, in 1614. He was afterwards made an honorary profeſſor with a ſuitable penſion, by the national ſynod of Charenton. On the death of Voſſius, he was choſen profeſſor of hiſtory in Amſterdam, whither he went in 1650. He wrote, 1. A defence of the reformed churches of France. This was in anſwer to the biſhop of Luſſon, afterwards the celebrated cardinal Richelieu. 2. A work againſt the decretal epiſtles. 3. *De Epiſcopis et Preſbyteris*: 4. *Pſeudo Iſidorus*: 5. *A Treatiſe of the Sybils*, wherein he proves their oracles falſe: 6. *A Treatiſe concerning Pope Joan*, wherein he offended ſome of his proteſtant friends, by diſcrediting the ſtory of the female pope: 7. *De Formula Regante Chriſto*; 8. *Conſiderations religieux et politiques*; on the war between the republics of England and Holland: and ſome other pieces. Bayle informs us that "he had a ſingular way of ſtudying; he lay on the floor, and had round about him the neceſſary books for the work he had in hand." He died in 1655, aged 64.

(2.) BLONDEL, Francis, M. D. profeſſor of phyſic in the Univerſity of Paris, was a very learned man, but of a peculiarly bigotted, litigious temper, and full of prejudices in favour of old ſyſtems. He was a great enemy to chemiſtry, and oppoſed the uſe of antimony and the Peruvian bark. The cures performed by the bark he aſcribed to magic; and is ſaid to have affirmed that "thoſe who uſed it committed a mortal ſin, and made an implicit pact with the divil." He wrote a book upon Emetics; and a treatiſe *De Pleuritide*; and died in 1682.

(3.) BLONDEL, Françis, M. D. was another French phyſician, who flouriſhed about the ſame time with the preceding, (N° 2.) and wrote a treatiſe on the baths of Aix La Chapelle, entitled *Thermarum Aquiſgranenſium et Porcetanarum Deſcriptio: Congruorum quoque ac ſalubrium uſuum Balneationis et potationis elucidatio*: printed at Aix in 12mo, in 1671.

(4.) BLONDEL, Francis, regius profeſſor of mathematics and architecture, was employed in ſeveral negociations, arrived at the dignity of marſhal de camp and counſellor of ſtate, and was appointed to teach the dauphin mathematics; he was alſo made member of the Academy of Sciences at Paris, and director of the Academy of Architecture. He died at Paris in 1686, aged 68

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He wrote, 1. Notes on Savot's architecture: 2. A course of Architecture: 3. A course of mathematics: 4. The art of throwing bombs: 5. A new manner of fortifying places: 6. A comparison between Pindar and Horace: 7. A history of the Roman Calendar, &c.

(5.) BLONDEL, Moses, an elder brother of David, (N. 1.) was a Calvinist minister, first at Meaux, and afterwards at London. He published a book of controversy entitled, *Jerusalem au Secours de Geneve:* printed at Sedan in 1624.—In this work, he justifies the opinions of the protestants concerning the Apocryphal writings, by the testimonies of the Jews, as well as of the fathers.

To BLONDRIN. *v. n. Obs.* to toil; to bustle, or blunder. *Chaucer.*

BLONDUS, Fluvius, an historian born at Forli, in Italy, in 1388, was secretary to Eugenius IV. and other popes. He composed a great many books; and, among others, a History from the year 400 to 1440. He died in 1463; and left all he had to his daughters, because his sons could provide for themselves.

BLONEIZ, or BLONIEZ, a town of Poland, in Warsovia, 20. m. W. of Warsaw, Lon. 20. 35. E. Lat. 52. 0. N.

* BLONKET. *n. s.* [I suppose for *blanket.*]—

Our *blonket* livery's been all too sad
For thilke same reason, when all is yclad
With pleasance. *Spenser.*

BLONT, *adj. Obs.* blunt; dull. *Chaucer.*

(I. 1.) * BLOOD. *n. s.* [*blod*, Saxon.] 1. The red liquor that circulates in the bodies of animals.—But flesh, with the life thereof, which is the *blood* thereof, shall you not eat. *Genesis.* 2. Child; progeny.—

We'll no more meet, no more see one another:
But yet thou art my flesh, my *blood*, my daughter.
Shakespeare.

3. Family; kindred.—

As many and as well born *bloods* as those,
Stand in his face, to contradict his claim. *Shak.*

O! what an happiness is it to find
A friend of our own *blood*, a brother kind. *Waller.*

—According to the common law of England, in administrations, the whole *blood* is preferred to the half *blood. Ayliffe.* 4. Descent; lineage.—Epithets of flattery, deserved by few of them; and not running in a *blood*, like the perpetual gentleness of the Ormond family. *Dryden.* 5. Blood royal; royal lineage.—

They will almost
Give us a prince o' th' *blood*, a son of Priam,
In change of him. *Shakespeare.*

6. Birth; high extraction.—

I am a gentleman of *blood* and breeding. *Shak.*

7. Murder; violent death.—

It will have *blood*; they say, *blood* will have *blood*. *Shakespeare.*

—The voice of thy brother's *blood*, crieth unto me from the ground, *Genesis*, iv. 10. 8. Life.—When wicked men have slain a righteous person in his own house, upon his bed, shall I not therefore now require his *blood* at your hand? 2 *Sam.* iv. 11. 9. *For blood.* Though his blood or life was at stake: a low phrase.—A crow lay battering upon a muscle, and could not, *for his blood*, break the shell to come at the fish. *L'Estrange.* 10. The carnal part of man.—Flesh and *blood* hath not revealed it unto thee, but my Father which is in heaven. *Matthew*, xvi. 17. 11. Temper of mind; state of the passions.—

Will you, great sir, that glory blot,
In cold *blood*, which you gain'd in hot? *Hudib.*

12. Hot spark; man of fire.—The news put divers young *bloods* into such a fury, as the ambassadors were, not without peril, to be outraged. *Bacon.* 13. The juice of any thing.—He washed his garments in wine, and his cloaths in the *blood* of grapes. *Genesis*, xliv. 11.

(2.) BLOOD appears so immediately and essentially necessary to the preservation of animal life, that in scripture it is expressly stiled *the life* of the animal. (Gen. ix. 4.) Though there is no living creature as yet known, whose life does not immediately depend upon the circulation of some kind of fluid through its vessels, yet unless such fluid is of a red colour, it does not obtain the name of *blood;* and therefore such creatures as have a colourless or milky liquor circulating through their vessels are called *exsanguious animals.*

(3.) BLOOD, ACCOUNT OF THE DENSITY, &c. OF. Blood has a different degree of thickness in different animals, and even in the same animal at different times. Though it is in all cases endowed with a considerable degree of tenacity, yet in strong animals that tenacity is remarkably greater than in weak ones; and hence the blood of bulls was made use of by the ancients as a poison, its extreme viscidity rendering it totally indigestible by the powers of the human stomach. There are also some states of the human body, in which the blood becomes vastly tenacious, so as in a great measure to refuse any intimate connection with water; and others, in which its crasis is almost totally dissolved, so as to appear, when drawn out of the body, like a fluid and halt putrid mass. See MEDICINE, INDEX. The common appearance of the blood, when drawn from a vein in the human body, is well known. It first seems an homogeneous red liquor; then it consolidates into one uniform mass; in a little time, a yellowish watery liquor begins to separate from it, which is more or less in quantity according to the state in which the blood happens to be; the red mass, in the mean time, contracts greatly in its dimensions, and increases in solidity. But this increase of solidity, is likewise proportional to the state of the blood at the time: in strong people, if attacked with a violent inflammatory disease, the solid part is exceedingly tough, insomuch that Dr Huxham says he has sometimes found it almost like a piece of flesh itself; whereas, in other diseases, the solid part is very soft and tender, breaking in pieces with the slightest touch. The spontaneous separation of the blood into crassamentum, serum, and coagulable lymph, has been already taken notice of. See ANATOMY, INDEX. It has been a general opinion, that blood, as it exists in the bodies of animals, contains a considerable quantity of common air; and indeed it is certain, that blood, after it has been drawn from the veins of any animal, and placed under the receiver of an air-pump, yields a very considerable quantity of air upon exhausting the receiver: but if a portion of any blood-vessel is tied up, so as to prevent the

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the escape of its contents, and then cut out of the body and placed under a receiver, it will not swell or shew the least sign of its containing any quantity of air whatever. Of this and every other part of the subject a very comprehensive view is taken in Mr Hunter's work, published since his death, entitled *A Treatise on Inflammation*, &c.

(4.) BLOOD, ANALYSES OF THE. The attention of physiologists has been very much engaged by inquiries into the nature and composition of the blood, and accordingly it has been examined in all possible ways. By a chemical analysis, it discovers the same principles with other animal substances; giving in distillation a great quantity of phlegm, a volatile spirit, and much fetid oil; after which, there remains a charred matter, which, when burnt in an open fire, leaves a white earth similar to calcined hartshorn. Some eminent chemists, Mr Homberg particularly, have asserted that blood contains an acid as well as an alkali, but that the former does not arise till towards the end of the distillation: but what throws no small suspicion on this account, is, that the acid and alkali, notwithstanding their great tendency on all other occasions to unite with each other, do here remain separate, so that the liquor may be even redistilled without their forming any neutral compound. An experiment in confirmation of this is recorded in the memoirs of the Royal Academy for 1712. Six pounds of human blood distilled to dryness with a gentle heat, were reduced to 1½ pound; after which, the mass was urged with a gradual fire, till the retort at last became red hot. The produce was 17 ounces of liquor; 12 of which were a red and very empyreumatic volatile spirit: the other 5 were oil. The caput mortuum was a light coal weighing 4½ ounces. On rectifying the volatile spirit in a small retort, about an ounce of a red fetid liquor remained, which had a very acid smell, and turned the juice of turnsole red. Mr Homberg now imagined, that the acid contained in the blood of animals could not disengage itself perfectly by these distillations without addition. He therefore determined to distil human blood with an admixture of some other substance; but as earths contain a salt, which might render the operation uncertain, he determined to use only the caput mortuum of a former distillation of the same substance. For this purpose, 4lb. of the coagulum of human blood being well mixed with a large quantity of this residuum, and the whole dried in the sun, it was put into a retort, and distilled with a fire raised towards the end of the operation, to the utmost violence. The oil being separated from the volatile spirit the latter was rectified; and the consequence was, that there came over 4 lb. of a red acid liquor, that turned the tincture of turnsole very red. All the distillations of the aqueous liquors already mentioned, obtained by similar processes, being mixed together, and separated from their yet remaining oil, by careful dilution with water and filtration, they were at length distilled together; the liquor that came over was clear as water, and its first quantities contained a great deal of volatile salt, but the last two ounces were found to be as sour as distilled vinegar. The same products were obtained from the blood of carnivorous animals, as well as from that of animals feeding solely upon vegetables. In Dr Lewis's notes on Newman's Chemistry we have the following account of the blood, and the parts into which it may be resolved, "Recent blood is equally fluid, and in taste somewhat saline. Viewed by a microscope, it appears composed of numerous red globules swimming in a transparent fluid. On standing for a little time it separates into a thin crassamentum and fluid serum. By agitation it continues fluid: A consistent polypous matter adheres to the stirrer, which by repeated ablution with water, becomes white. Received from the vein in warm water, it deposites a quantity of transparent filamentous matter, the red portion continuing dissolved in the water. On evaporating the fluid, a red powdery substance is left. It congeals by frost, and becomes fluid again by warmth; after liquefaction it quickly putrefies. Fluid and florid blood exposed to a temperate air, putrifies sooner than such as is more dense. Inspissated to dryness, it leaves a dark coloured mass, amounting, at a medium, to about one fourth of the weight of the blood, of a bitter saline taste, easily inflammable, burning with a bluish flame. The exsiccated blood is not soluble in acid or alkaline liquors; but gives some tincture to water and to spirit of wine, and is more powerfully acted upon by dulcified spirit of nitre. Recent blood is coagulated by the mineral acids, and by most of the combinations of them with earthy and metallic bodies. With vegetable acids, and with solutions of neutral salts, it mingles equably without coagulation. Alkalis, both fixed and volatile render it more fluid, and preserve it from coagulating. The serum of blood is more saline than the crassamentum, and does not so speedily putrefy. It freezes somewhat more difficultly than pure water; and its aqueous part evaporates, by a gentle warmth, somewhat more readily, leaving about one twelfth of the weight of the serum of a solid yellowish pellucid matter. Exposed to a heat little greater than that of the human body, it coagulates into a solid mass, without any considerable evaporation. Both this coagulum and the inspissated serum are readily inflammable in the fire, not dissoluble in water, or in spirit of wine, in acid or in alkaline liquors."

(5.) BLOOD, CIRCULATION OF THE. See § 11, and ANATOMY, INDEX.

(6.) BLOOD, ERRONEOUS OPINIONS, CONCERNING THE. The texture of the blood discoverable by a microscope, hath engaged the attention of the learned much more than the chemical analysis ever did. Lewenhoeck was the first who discovered, or fancied he discovered, that the blood, as it exists in the body of an animal, consists of a quantity of red globular particles swimming in a large quantity of transparent liquor. Each of these globules, he imagined, was composed of six smaller ones packed together. While the six continued to adhere, their colour was red; but when separated, they became yellow, and thus formed what is called the *serum*. He even pretended to have discovered, that each of the serous globules consisted of six smaller ones, and that these when broken down constituted some more subtile and penetrating liquor than the serum, &c. This was for a long time received almost universally as an undoubted

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undoubted fact; and many theories were built upon it, and elaborate calculations made, of which (we hope) no account needs now be given, as the falſity of theſe pretended diſcoveries is generally allowed. Father de Torre, with microſcopes which he pretended were capable of magnifying to an incredible degree, found that the red particles of the blood were of an annular figure, with a perforation in the middle; and that the ring itſelf was formed of ſeveral joints. Some of theſe extraordinary magnifiers, however, being ſent over to England, thoſe who were appointed by the Royal Society to make trial of them, found them totally uſeleſs, ſo that the credit of Father De Torre's diſcoveries muſt have reſted principally on his own evidence. The falſity of his hypotheſis, as well as that of Lewenhoeck, was detected by the late Mr Hewſon, of whoſe microſcopical experiment on the blood, we inſert the following account given by himſelf, in a letter to Dr Haygarth phyſician in Cheſter. See § 7.

(7.) BLOOD, EXPERIMENTS OF MR HEWSON RESPECTING THE. "The red particles of the blood, improperly called *globules*, are flat in all animals, and of various ſizes in different animals. In man they are ſmall, as flat as a ſhilling, and appear to have a dark ſpot in the middle. In order to ſee them diſtinctly, I dilute the blood with freſh ſerum. My predeceſſors, not having thought of this, could not ſee them diſtinctly.—And Lewenhoeck in particular, imagining a round figure fitteſt for motion, concluded they muſt be round in the human body; though he and others allowed that in frogs, &c. where they viewed them diſtinctly, from the blood being thinner, they were flat. Now I prove that they are flat in all animals. In the human blood, where theſe particles are ſmall, it is difficult to determine what that black ſpot is, which appears in the centre of each. Some have concluded that it was a perforation; but in a frog, where it is ſix times as large as in a man, it is eaſy to ſhew that it is not a perforation, but on the contrary a little ſolid, which is contained in the middle of a veſicle. Inſtead, therefore, of calling this part of the blood red *globules*, I ſhould call it red *veſicles*; for each particle is a flat veſicle, with a little ſolid ſphere in its centre. I find that the blood of all animals contains veſicles of this ſort. In human blood there are millions of them; and they give it the red colour. But in inſects they are white, and leſs numerous in proportion than in man and quadrupeds. As they are flat in all animals, I ſuſpect that ſhape is a circumſtance of importance, but can be altered by a mixture with different fluids. And I find that it is by a determinate quantity of neutral ſalt contained in the ſerum, that this fluid is adapted to preſerving theſe veſicles in their flat ſhape: for, if they be mixed with water they become round, and diſſolve perfectly; but add a little of any neutral ſalt to the water, and they remain in it, without any alteration in their ſhape, and without diſſolving. Now, when it is conſidered, that the blood of all animals is filled with theſe particles, we muſt believe that they ſerve ſome very important purpoſe in the animal economy; and ſince they are ſo complicated in their ſtructure, it is improbable they ſhould be made by mechanical agitation in the lungs or blood-veſſels, as has been ſuſpected, but probably have ſome organs ſet apart for their formation. This I ſhall endeavour to prove, when I have explained their ſtructure a little more particularly, and mentioned the manner in which I exhibit it. I take the blood of a toad or frog, in which they are very large; I mix it with the ſerum of human blood to dilute it; I find them appear all flat; ſo they do in the blood veſſels of this animal, as I have diſtinctly ſeen in the web between its toes, whilſt the animal was alive and fixed in the microſcope. Their appearance in theſe animals is not unlike ſlices of cucumber. I next mix a little of the blood with water, which immediately makes them all round, and then begins to diſſolve them whilſt they are round. I incline the ſtage of the microſcope, ſo as to make them roll down it; and then I can diſtinctly ſee the ſolid in the middle fall from ſide to ſide like a pea in a bladder. A neutral ſalt added to them at this time brings them back to their flat ſhape; but if the ſalt be not added, the water gradually diſſolves away the veſicle; and then the little ſphere is left naked.—Such is the compoſition of theſe particles. I have exhibited theſe experiments to a conſiderable number of my acquaintance, who all agree in their being ſatisfactory. The microſcope I uſe is a ſingle lens, and therefore as little likely to deceive us as a pair of ſpectacles, which, as is allowed by all who uſe them, do not diſfigure objects, but only repreſent them larger. From farther experiments I am convinced, that the uſe of the thymus and lymphatic glands is to make the middle ſolid pieces: and I can prove it in as ſatisfactory a manner as you can do the uſe of any viſcus in the human body; that is, by opening theſe glands, and examining the fluid contained in their cells, which I find to be full of theſe little ſolids. I moreover find, that the lymphatic veſſels take them up from thoſe glands, and convey them into the blood-veſſels which carry them to the ſpleen, in whoſe cells they have the veſicles laid over them; ſo that the thymus and lymphatic glands make the central particles, and the ſpleen makes the veſicles that ſurround them. That this is the uſe of the ſpleen appears from examining the lymph which is returned from its lymphatic veſſels; for that lymph, contrary to what is obſerved in other parts of the body, is extremely red. But beſides having theſe glands ſet apart for making the red veſicles of the blood, I find that they are alſo made in the lymphatic veſſels in different parts of the body, whoſe coats have blood-veſſels properly conſtructed for this ſecretion. So that the thymus and lymphatic glands are no more than appendages of the lymphatic ſyſtem, for making the middle particles; and the ſpleen an appendage to the lymphatic veſſels, for making the veſicles which contain the middle particles. I conjecture that it is the coagulable lymph which is converted into this red part of the blood, from a curious fact that has long been known; namely, that the blood in the ſplenic vein does not coagulate when expoſed to the air, as the blood of other veins does; ſo that it ſeems to be robbed of its coagulable lymph in paſſing through the ſpleen.—It is very remarkable, that the ſpleen can be cut

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out of an animal, and the animal do well without it. I made the experiment on a dog, and kept him a year and a half, without obſerving his health to be in the leaſt impaired. From this ſome have concluded the ſpleen to be an uſeleſs weight; which is abſurd, when we conſider that all animals with red blood have it. Therefore it is more conſiſtent with what we know of the animal economy, to conclude, that ſince an animal can do well without it, there is probably ſome part of the body that can ſupply its place. Inſects have veſicles conſtructed in a ſimilar way to ours, but differing in colour. But inſects have neither ſpleen, thymus, nor lymphatic glands; and therefore in them probably theſe veſicles are entirely fabricated in the lymphatic veſſels. But to us, and others of the more perfect animals, beſides the lymphatic veſſels, nature has given thoſe glands, that a proper quantity of thoſe important veſicles might be the better ſecured to us; juſt as ſhe has given us two ears, the better to ſecure us hearing through life, though we can hear perfectly well with one." On this hypotheſis, we ſhall only remark, that if the red globules are prepared in the manner above mentioned, and the lymphatic veſſels are excretories of thoſe glands where the red particles are formed; then if there is any veſſel where all theſe excretories unite, in that veſſel the lymph ought to appear very red, on account of the accumulated quantity of red globules brought thither from all parts of the body. But no ſuch redneſs ſeems ever to have been taken notice of by any anatomiſt; which affords an objection to Mr Hewſon's hypotheſis, perhaps, not eaſily removed.

(8.) BLOOD, HYPOTHESIS CONCERNING THE FORMATION AND COLOUR OF. Many other hypotheſes have been invented concerning the formation of the red blood, and various opinions delivered concerning its red colour. In a lecture delivered at Newcaſtle in 1773, by Dr Wilſon of that place, he aſſerts, "that it is ſelf-evidently the office of the veins to elaborate the fluids into that form and compoſition which we know by the name of *red blood*." The ſelf-evidence here, however, is by no means apparent, nor doth he at all point it out in an intelligible manner.—Dr Cullen, in his phyſiological part of The Inſtitutions of Medicine, acknowledges that we know but little of the formation of any of the animal fluids; and concerning the microſcopical obſervations, &c. on the blood, gives his opinion in the following words, § cclxv. "The red globules have been conſidered as an oily matter, and from thence their diſtinct and globular appearance has been accounted for: but there is no diſtinct proof of their oily nature; and their ready union with, and diffuſibility in water, renders it very improbable. As being microſcopical objects only, they have been repreſented by different perſons very differently. Some have thought them ſpherical bodies, but diviſible into ſix parts, (See § 6.) each of which in their ſeparate ſtate were alſo ſpherical; but other perſons have not obſerved them to be thus diviſible. To many obſervers they have appeared as perfectly ſpherical; while others judge them to be oblate ſpheroids, or lenticular. To ſome they have appeared as annular, and to others as containing a hollow veſicle. All this, with ſeveral other circumſtances relating to them, very variouſly repreſented, ſhow ſome uncertainty in microſcopical obſervations; and it leaves me, who am not converſant in ſuch obſervations, altogether uncertain with regard to the preciſe nature of this part of the blood. The chemical hiſtory of it is equally precarious; and therefore what has been hitherto ſaid of the productions and changes happening to theſe red globules, we chuſe to leave untouched.—We ſuppoſe that the red globules, when viewed ſingly, have very little colour; and that it is only when a certain number of them are laid upon one another, that the colour appears of a brighter red: but this alſo has its limits; ſo that when the number of globules laid on one another is conſiderable, the colour becomes of a darker red. Upon this ſuppoſition, the colour of the maſs of blood will be brighter or darker, as the colouring part is more or leſs diffuſed among the other parts of the maſs; and we think this appears to be truly the caſe, from every circumſtance that attends the changes which have been at any time obſerved in the colour of the blood." Concerning the uncertainty of microſcopical, as well as chemical experiments, we ſhall not diſpute; though the concluſion againſt them ſeems carried too far. But with regard to the colour of the blood, it has been known, almoſt ſince the diſcovery of the circulation, that the florid or dark colour depends on the preſence or abſence of air, and not upon any number of globules.—Thus the blood returning from the veins is of a dark colour. Though diluted with the freſh chyle from the ſubclavian vein, it continues of the ſame dark colour till it paſſes through the lungs, upon which it inſtantly aſſumes a very florid red; but it can never be proved, that the globules in the pulmonary vein are at all leſs numerous than in the pulmonary artery.—That this change of colour may be effected by the air through membranes much thicker than we can ſuppoſe the veſſels of the lungs to be, has been demonſtrated by Dr Prieſtley's expeperiments. (See DEPHLOGISTICATED AIR.) But whether the change is occaſioned by the mere ſeparation of phlogiſton from the blood, or by the abſorption of ſome other principle in its ſtead, is not yet determined, though the latter is indeed acknowledged by Dr Prieſtley himſelf to be the more probable opinion. He even ſuppoſes the redneſs to be owing to a portion of dephlogiſticated air abſorbed in the lungs; but under the above article, it will appear that this fluid cannot be abſorbed by any liquid without decompoſition. It muſt therefore be the elaſtic principle of this air which is abſorbed, while the other combined with part of the phlogiſton emitted by the blood is converted into fixed air. Upon this principle, Dr Beddoes and others have of late inſiſted much on the advantages of what they ſtile the PNEUMATIC MEDICINE, or the application of factitious airs to the lungs by a ſuitable apparatus.

(9.) BLOOD, INFLAMMABILITY OF THE.—Mr Boyle having held a piece of human blood, dried till it was almoſt pulverable, in the flame of a candle, found it would take fire, and afford a flame burning with a crackling noiſe, and here and there melting. But this inflammability appeared much better, when putting together 4 or 5 thoroughly kindled

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kindled coals, he laid on them a piece of dried blood of the bigneſs of a ſmall nutmeg; for this yielded a large and yellow flame, and when cautiouſly blown from time to time, as the effluvia evaporated in ſmoke, it continued to yield clear and yellow flames. Having cauſed ſome blood to be dried till it was reducible to fine powder, he took part of the powder, which had paſſed a fine ſearce, and caſting it on the flame of a good candle, the grains, in their quick paſſage through it, took fire; and the powder flaſhed with a noiſe, as if it had been roſin.

(10.) BLOOD, QUANTITY OF, IN THE HUMAN BODY, has been variouſly eſtimated. Dr Lower computes it in an ordinary man, at about 20 lb. Dr Moulin, by obſerving the proportion of the weight of ſeveral animals to their blood, eſtimates it at about one 20th of the weight of the whole man, which may amount to only 8 or 10 lb. Dr Keil from a calculation founded on the proportion of the coats to the diameters of the veſſels, ſhews, that in a body weighing 160 lb, 100 lb. thereof are blood; but then under blood he includes the lymph and other juices ſecreted from the blood. It is, indeed, very difficult to determine the quantity of blood in the body. Bleeding animals to death, the method uſed by Doctor Moulin and others, can never give the eſtimate of its true quantity; becauſe no animal can bleed longer than while the great artery is full, the continuance of which will be longer or ſhorter as the wounded artery is ſmaller or greater; and the aorta muſt always be the firſt veſſel that empties. The moſt certain way, in Dr Keil's opinion, is, by finding what proportion the cavities of the veſſels, of which the whole body is compoſed, bear to the thickneſs of the coat. This, in the veins and arteries, may be exactly found; but, in other veſſels we can only know the quantity of fluid they contain, by carefully evaporating as much as poſſible. Some think that at leaſt two thirds of the quantity of blood contained in an animal, is continually paſſing the capillaries and ſmall veſſels in the glandular and muſcular parts, which can never be drawn off by any thick diſcharge from cutting the large veſſels; ſince, in that caſe, the larger veſſels being emptied much faſter than they can be ſupplied from the capillaries, a defect of blood will ſoon enſue at the heart; upon which the animal falls into convulſions, and the circulation ſtops, while far the greater part of the blood ſtagnates in the ſmaller and remoter veſſels.

(11.) BLOOD, THEORIES RESPECTING THE CIRCULATION OF THE. Various opinions have been entertained, reſpecting the means by which the circulation of the blood is carried on in the living body. From the time of Harvey till very lately, this was ſuppoſed to be chiefly the muſcular power of the heart and arteries, which by ſome phyſiologiſts have been thought to be prodigiouſly great; and accordingly many calculations have been made of the force requiſite to perform this circulation. Other phyſiologiſts, however, have thought proper to take in ſeveral auxiliary helps, as the motion of the muſcles, reſpiration, &c. and from Dr Hales's experiment, (ſee § 13.) it appears that reſpiration has a conſiderable influence. It cannot, however, be the ſole cauſe, ſeeing the circulation is carried on in animals which do not reſpire. In 1773, Dr Wilſon, (in the lecture, quoted in § 8.) ſuggeſted a new principle of motion, which we believe was never uſed before, to account for the circulation of animal fluids. It is this: "As the fluids of the human body do all of them ſuffer a continual waſte, and conſequently require a conſtant ſupply in proportion, we muſt look upon their going out of the body to be the end of their motion, and on their entering into the body to be the beginning of it; and hence we are to look for the origin of all the motions of the fluids, in that part of the ſyſtem where the new ſupplies are taken in. This is the *primæ viæ*, where the lacteals abſorb a fluid from the digeſted aliment, and convey it into the blood. The power by which this is accompliſhed, is neceſſarily independent of the heart, as having not the leaſt connection with it. It has been ſaid to be the ſame with that which cauſes fluids riſe in capillary tubes; but though very probably the powers in both caſes may be the ſame, there is this remarkable difference between them, that in the capillary tubes the fluids only riſe to a certain height, and will not riſe at all unleſs the tubes are empty. In the lacteals they riſe in veſſels already full, and continue to do ſo. Neither is the force whereby this abſorption is performed to be accounted little; ſeeing the ſupply by the chyle muſt conſtantly be equal to the waſte, which is continually taking place in the fluids already contained in the veſſels. We ſee alſo, with what force an abſorption of this kind ſometimes take place in other caſes; thus ropes will abſorb water with ſuch ſtrength as to raiſe immenſe weights faſtened to them, and which no mechanical injection of water into ſmall tubes could poſſibly accompliſh. What is already ſaid of the lacteals applies alſo to the lymphatics; and from thence we are almoſt tempted to conclude, that the caſe is the ſame with the ſanguiferous veins alſo; that though there may be a continuation of ſome arteries into the veins correſponding with them, yet that for the moſt part theſe veſſels extravaſate the blood into ſmall cavities, which is then taken up by the abſorbent power of the veins, and returned to the heart. If, however, the veſſels continued abſolutely full, it would be impoſſible that any motion could be carried on in them; and to continue and regulate the circulation, the heart with its cavities is provided. Let us ſuppoſe, that by the above-mentioned power the veins are all full, and the auricles or chambers into which the veins empty themſelves are full alſo: where is the collected ſtream in the veins to go next? There is no room for more in the auricle. What muſt be done? The auricle contracts and empties itſelf. The conſequence is a ſudden vacuum equal to what the auricle could contain; the turgid veins, urged by the abſorbing power above-mentioned, ruſh their contents into the auricle to fill up the vacuum again, and all behind moving in the venous direction advances forward with ſo much force, that the veins near the heart ſuſtain a pulſation from the regurgitation of this impetuous ſtream, when the auricle ſhuts upon it to empty itſelf. In ſhort, the full auricle occupies

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a determinate quantity of ſpace in the breaſt: when it is emptied, there is a nonreſiſting vacuum of ſo much ſpace as was full before, and thither there is a mechanical niſus from the remoteſt filament of a vein over the whole body, which becomes conſpicuous in the torrent that ruſhes every other moment from the mouth of the vena cava into this vacuum." This is a ſhort abſtract of Dr Wilſon's new theory of the circulation. According to him, this abſorbing power of the veins is the principle agent, while the heart and arteries only empty themſelves of the blood with which they are filled by the veins. Even this cauſe, however, he ſays, would not be ſufficient to carry on the circulation for a ſingle moment, without the preſence of another, which he calls *life*, and does not conſider as abſolutely unmechanical, though we cannot reduce it either to mechanical rules or ideas. But as all ſpeculations concerning ſuch cauſes ſeem to be arbitrary and without foundation, we forbear to quote the Doctor's opinions farther on this ſubject.

(12.) BLOOD, VITALITY OF THE. The uſes to which the blood is ſubſervient in the animal œconomy, are ſo various, and of ſuch an important nature, that ſome have affirmed the blood to be actually poſſeſſed of a living principle, and that the life of the whole body is derived from it. This opinion was firſt broached by the celebrated Harvey, the diſcoverer of the circulation; but in this he was never much followed; and the hypotheſis itſelf, indeed, had been pretty much laid aſide and neglected, till within theſe few years, that it was revived by Mr J. Hunter, late profeſſor of anatomy in London; and adopted by Dr Corrie and others. Mr Hunter ſupports his opinion by the following arguments: 1. The blood unites living parts, in ſome circumſtances, as certainly, as the yet recent juices of the branch of one tree unite it with that of another. Were either of theſe fluids to be conſidered as extraneous or dead matters, he thinks they would act as ſtimuli, and no union would take place in the animal or vegetable kingdom. This argument, Mr Hunter imagines, is ſtill farther eſtabliſhed by the following experiment. Having taken off the teſticle from a living cock, he introduced it into the belly of a living hen. Many weeks afterwards upon injecting the liver of the hen, he injected the teſticle of the cock; which had come in contact with the liver, and adhered to it. He alledges, that in the nature of things, there is not a more intimate connection between life and a ſolid, than between life and a fluid. For although we are more accuſtomed to connect it with the one than the other, yet the only real difference which can be ſhown between a ſolid and a fluid is, that the particles of the one are leſs moveable among themſelves than thoſe of the other. Beſides, we often ſee the ſame body fluid in one caſe and ſolid in another. 2. The blood becomes vaſcular like other living parts. Mr Hunter affirms, that, after amputations, the coagula in the extremities of arteries may be injected by injecting theſe arteries; and he had a preparation in which he demonſtrated veſſels riſing from the centre of what had been a coagulum of blood, and opening into the ſtream of the circulating blood. 3. Blood taken from the arm in the moſt intenſe cold which the human body can bear, raiſes the thermometer to the ſame height as blood taken in the moſt ſultry heat. This he conſiders as a ſtrong proof of the blood being alive; as living bodies alone have the power of reſiſting great degrees both of heat and cold, and of maintaining in almoſt every ſituation, while in health, that temperature which we diſtinguiſh by the name of *animal heat*. 4. Blood is capable of being acted upon by a ſtimulus. In proof of this, he obſerves, that it coagulates from expoſure, as certainly as the cavities of the abdomen and thorax inflame from the ſame cauſe. The more it is alive, that is, the more the animal is in health, it coagulates the ſooner on expoſure; and the more it has loſt of its living principle, as in the caſe of violent inflammations, the leſs it is ſenſible to the ſtimulus produced from its being expoſed, and it coagulates the later. 5. The blood preſerves life in different parts of the body. When the nerves going to a part are tied or cut, the part becomes paralytic, and loſes all power of motion; but it does not mortify. If the artery be cut, the part dies, and mortification enſues. What keeps alive in the firſt caſe? Mr Hunter ſays it is the living principle which alone can keep it alive; and he thinks that this phenomenon is inexplicable on any other ſuppoſition, than that life is ſupported by the blood. 6. Another argument he draws from a caſe of a fractured os humeri he had occaſion to obſerve. A man was brought into St George's hoſpital for a ſimple fracture of the os humeri, and died about a month after the accident. As the bones had not united, Mr Hunter injected the arm after death. He found that the cavity between the extremities of the bones was filled up with blood which had coagulated. This blood was become vaſcular. In ſome places it was very much ſo. He does not maintain that all coagulated blood becomes vaſcular: and indeed the reaſon is obvious; for it is often thrown out and coagulated in parts where its becoming vaſcular could anſwer no end in the ſyſtem: as, for example, in the cavities of aneuriſmal ſacs. If it be ſuppoſed, that, in ſuch caſes as that juſt now mentioned, the veſſels are not formed in the coagulum, but come from the neighbouring arteries, he thinks it equally an argument that the blood is alive; for the ſubſtance into which veſſels ſhoot muſt be ſo. The very idea, that ſuch a quantity of dead matter, as the whole maſs of blood, circulates in a living body, appears abſurd. The ſyſtem, which at preſent ſtands oppoſed to that of Mr Hunter, conſiders the brain and nervous ſyſtem as the fountain of life; and that, ſo far from receiving its life from the blood, the nervous ſyſtem is capable of inſtantaneouſly changing the craſis of the blood, or any other animal fluid; and though the nervous ſyſtem cannot continue its actions for any length of time, if the action of the blood-veſſels is ſuſpended, yet the heart and blood-veſſels cannot act for a ſingle moment without the influence of the nervous fluid. Hence, ſay they, it is plain we muſt ſuppoſe the nervous ſyſtem, and not the blood, to contain properly the life of the animal, and conſequently to be the principal vital organ. The ſecretion of the vital fluid from the blood by means of the brain, is, by the

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the ſupporters of this hypotheſis, denied. They ſay, that any fluid ſecreted from the blood muſt be aqueous, inelaſtic, and inactive; whereas the nervous fluid is full of vigour, elaſtic, and volatile in the higheſt degree. The great neceſſity for the circulation of the blood through all parts of the body, notwithſtanding the preſence of the nervous fluid in the ſame parts, they ſay is, becauſe ſome degree of tenſion is neceſſary to be given to the fibres in order to fit them for the influx of the nervous fluid; and this tenſion they receive from the repletion of the blood-veſſels, which are every where diſperſed along with the nerves. To follow this diſpute through every argument uſed by both parties, would prove tedious, and in a great meaſure unneceſſary, as the following ſhort conſideration ſeems to decide the matter abſolutely againſt the patrons of the nervous ſyſtem. In the firſt place, if we can prove the life of the human body to have exiſted in, or to have been communicated from a fluid to the nervous ſyſtem, the analogical argument will be very ſtrongly in favour of the ſuppoſition that the caſe is ſo ſtill. Now, that the caſe once was ſo, is evident; for the human body, as well as the body of every other living creature, in its firſt ſtate, is a gelatinous maſs, without muſcles, nerves, or blood-veſſels. Nevertheleſs, this gelatinous matter, even at that time, contained the nervous fluid. Of this there can be no doubt, becauſe the nerves were formed out of it, and had their power originally from it; and what is remarkable, the brain is obſerved to be that part of the animal which is firſt formed. Of this gelatinous fluid we can give no other account, than that it was the nutritious matter from which the whole body appears to be formed. At the original formation of man, and other animals, therefore, the nutritious matter was the ſubſtratum of the whole body, conſiſting of muſcles, nerves, blood-veſſels, &c. nay more, it was the immediate efficient cauſe of the nervous power itſelf. Why ſhould it not be ſo now as well as then? Again, in the formation of the embryo, we ſee a vital principle exiſting as it were at large, and forming to itſelf a kind of regulator to its own motions, or a habitation in which it chooſes to reſide, rather than to act at random in the fluid. This habitation, or regulator, was undoubtedly the nervous ſyſtem, and continues ſo to this moment; but at the ſame time, it is no leſs evident, that a nutritious fluid was the immediate origin of theſe ſame nerves, and of that very nervous fluid. Now the fluid, which in the womb nouriſhes the bodies of all embryo animals, is neceſſarily equivalent to the blood which nouriſhes the bodies of adult ones; and conſequently, as ſoon as the blood became the only nutritious juice of the body, at that inſtant the vital or nervous fluid took up its reſidence there, and from the blood diffuſed itſelf along the nerves, where it was regulated exactly according to the model originally formed in the embryo. Perhaps it may be ſaid, that the vital power, when once it has taken poſſeſſion of the human or any other body, requires no addition or ſupply, but continues there in the ſame quantity from firſt to laſt. If we ſuppoſe the nervous power to be immaterial, this will indeed be the caſe, and there is an end of reaſoning upon the ſubject; but if we call this power a volatile and elaſtic fluid, it is plain that there will be more occaſion for recruits to ſuch a power, than to any other fluid of the body, as its volatility and elaſticity will promote its eſcape in great quantities through every part of the body. It may alſo be objected, that it is abſurd to ſuppoſe any fluid, or mechanical cauſe, capable of putting matter in ſuch a form as to direct its own motions in a particular way: but even of this we have a poſitive proof in the caſe of the electric fluid. For if any quantity of this matter has a tendency to go from one place to another where it meets with difficulty, through the air, for inſtance, it will throw ſmall conducting ſubſtances before it, in order to facilitate its progreſs. Alſo, if a number of ſmall and light conducting ſubſtances are laid between two metallic bodies, ſo as to form a circle, for example; a ſhock of electricity will deſtroy that circle, and place the ſmall conducting ſubſtances nearer to a ſtraight line between the two metals, as if the fluid knew there was a ſhorter paſſage, and reſolved to take that, if it ſhould have occaſion to return. (See ELECTRICITY.) Laſtly, it is univerſally allowed, that the brain is a ſecretory organ, made up of an infinite number of ſmall glands, which have no other excretories than the medullary fibres and nerves. As a conſiderable quantity of blood is carried to the brain, and the minute arteries end in their ſmall glands, it follows, that the fluid, whatever it is, muſt come from the blood. Now, there is no gland whatever, in the human, or any other body, but will diſcharge the fluid it is appointed to ſecrete, in very conſiderable quantity, if its excretory is cut. Upon the cutting of a nerve, therefore, the fluid ſecreted by the brain ought to be diſcharged; but no ſuch diſcharge is viſible. A ſmall quantity of glairy matter is indeed diſcharged from the large nerves; but this can be no other than the nutritious juice neceſſary for their ſupport. This makes it plain even to demonſtration, that the fluid ſecreted in the brain is *inviſible* in its nature; and as we know the nervous fluid hath its reſidence in the brain, it is very probable to uſe no ſtronger expreſſion, that it is the peculiar province of the brain to ſecrete this fluid from the blood, and conſequently that the blood originally contains the vital principle.

(13.) BLOOD, VIVIFYING PRINCIPLE OF THE. When it is allowed that the blood contains the vital principle, (§ 12.) it becomes another queſtion not very eaſily ſolved, Whence is this vital principle derived?—For this we can only diſcover two ſources; namely, the chyle or aliment from which the blood is prepared, and reſpiration. The latter hath been commonly held as the principal ſource of the vital principle; and, for a long time, it was generally thought that there was a kind of vivifying ſpirit in the air, which being abſorbed by the blood at each inſpiration, communicated to that fluid the quality neceſſary for preſerving animal life. As a proof of this it was urged, that life cannot be ſupported without reſpiration, and that air which hath been often breathed ceaſes to be capable of ſupporting life; becauſe when once it has been totally deprived of its vivifying ſpirit, it can communicate none to the blood, in any

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ſubſequent reſpirations. This doctrine, however, has been denied. Dr Hales brings ſeveral experiments againſt it; of which the following may ſerve for a ſpecimen. "I tied a middle ſized dog alive on a table, and, having laid bare his wind-pipe, I cut it aſunder juſt below the larynx, and fixed faſt to it the ſmall end of a common foſſet: the other end of the foſſet had a large bladder tied to it, which contained 162 cubic inches; and to the other end of the bladder was tied the great end of another foſſet, whoſe orifice was covered with a valve which opened inwards, ſo as to admit any air that was blown into the bladder, but none could return that way; yet, for further ſecurity, that paſſage was alſo ſtopped by a ſpigot. As ſoon as the firſt foſſet was tied faſt to the wind-pipe, the bladder was blown full of air through the other foſſet: when the dog had breathed the air in the bladder to and fro for a minute or two, he then breathed very faſt, and ſhowed great uneaſineſs, as being almoſt ſuffocated. Then with my hand I preſſed the bladder hard, ſo as to drive the air into his lungs with ſome force; and thereby make his abdomen riſe by the preſſure of the diaphragm, as in natural breathings; then taking alternately my hand off the bladder, the lungs with the abdomen ſubſided: I continued in this manner to make the dog breathe for an hour; during which time I was obliged to blow freſh air into the bladder every five minutes, 3 parts in 4 of that air being either abſorbed by the vapours in the lungs, or eſcaping through the ligatures upon my preſſing hard on the bladder. During this hour, the dog was frequently near expiring, whenever I preſſed the air but weakly into his lungs; as I found by his pulſe, which was very plain to be felt in the great crural artery near the groin, which place an aſſiſtant held his finger on moſt part of the time: but the languid pulſe was accelerated ſo as to beat faſt, ſoon after I dilated the lungs much by preſſing hard upon the bladder; eſpecially when the motion of the lungs was promoted by preſſing alternately the abdomen and the bladder, whereby both the contraction and dilatation of the lungs were increaſed. And I could by this means rouſe the languid pulſe whenever I pleaſed, not only at the end of every 5 minutes, when more air was blown into the bladder from a man's lungs, but alſo towards the end of the 5 minutes, when the air was fulleſt of fumes. At the end of the hour, I intended to try whether I could have by the ſame means kept the dog alive ſome time longer, when the bladder was filled with the fumes of burning brimſtone; but being obliged to ceaſe for a little time from preſſing the air into his lungs, while matters were preparing for this additional experiment, in the mean time the dog died, which might otherwiſe have lived longer, if I had continued to force the air into the lungs. Now, though this experiment was ſo frequently diſturbed, by being obliged to blow more air into the bladder 12 times during the hour; yet ſince he was almoſt ſuffocated in leſs than two minutes, by breathing of himſelf to and fro the firſt air in the bladder, he would have died in leſs than two minutes when one fourth of the old air remained in the bladder, immediately to taint the new air admitted from a man's lungs; ſo that his continuing to live through the whole hour, muſt be owing to the forcible dilatation of the lungs by compreſſing the bladder, and not to the vivifying ſpirit of the air." Dr Prieſtley at firſt concluded from his own obſervations, and no doubt very juſtly, that air which hath been often breathed becomes pernicious by its accumulated phlogiſton, ſtimulating the lungs, and making the animal fall into convulſions. Reſpiration, therefore, he ſuppoſed to be a phlogiſtic proceſs, in which the blood parts with its ſuperfluous phlogiſton. He did not ſay, that the blood receives nothing in exchange; but rather that it may receive ſome nitrous principle, which gives it the red colour: but as to a vivifying ſpirit, he doth not appear to have had the leaſt idea of any ſuch thing being received at that time. Nay, in his firſt volume, p. 277. he expreſsly adopts the other hypotheſis, namely, that the vital principle is received from the chyle. "My conjecture (ſays he) is, that animals have a power of converting phlogiſton, from the ſtate in which they receive it in their nutriment, into that ſtate in which it is called the *electrical fluid*; that the brain, beſides its other proper uſes, is the great laboratory and repoſitory for this purpoſe; that by means of the nerves this great principle, thus exalted, is directed into the muſcles, and forces them to act in the ſame manner as they are forced into action, when the electric fluid is thrown into them *ab extra*." With regard to Dr Hales's opinion, that the want of elaſticity, or preſſure, is the reaſon why phlogiſticated air cannot ſupport animal life, we apprehend it to be totally inconcluſive, becauſe it does not appear that phlogiſticated air wants elaſticity; on the contrary, from Dr Prieſtley's experiments it appears to be more elaſtic than common air. Beſides, the elaſticity of every fluid muſt always be in proportion to the preſſure upon it, as reaction is always equal to action. Suppoſing therefore the elaſticity of any portion of air to be deſtroyed, the preſſure of the ſuperincumbent atmoſphere will reduce it into a proportionably leſs bulk, and then it is equally elaſtic with the reſt; for if it is not, it would behove it ſtill to yield under the preſſure. Hence we may ſee, that as the bladder made uſe of in Dr Hales's experiment was by no means ſufficient to keep off the preſſure of the external atmoſphere, the death of the dog could not be fairly aſcribed to want of elaſticity in the tainted air. When he applied more force than the natural elaſticity of the air, he kept the dog *alive*, as he calls it, for an hour; but we can by no means allow a mechanical circulation of the blood to be *life*, any more than we can allow a dead body to be alive on account of the motion of its arm, or any other member, by mechanical means. This experiment, however, ſhows, that reſpiration is one of the immediate mechanical agents by which the circulation of the blood is carried on; but in order to prove that the dog was really kept alive by this means, he ought to have recovered from the effects of the experiment. Had Dr Hales tried a ſimilar experiment on himſelf, by taking the foſſet in his mouth, cloſing his noſtrils, and cauſing another perſon compreſs the bladder, we have not the leaſt

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doubt that he would have felt such a method of breathing, not to be a way of preſerving life, but of deſtroying it. As to Dr Prieſtley's concluſions, it has been argued, that "though he found air diminiſhed by admitting phlogiſton to it, Dr Prieſtley finds the mere acceſſion of any material ſubſtance can never diminiſh, but muſt increaſe, its bulk. The diminution, therefore, on the acceſſion of phlogiſton, is an evident proof that ſome part of the air is actually taken away. That the phlogiſton received is not incorporated with the air, is likewiſe evident, as well as that it takes up ſpace in the tainted air, becauſe, by agitation and water, the phlogiſtic matter ſeparates from the air, and enters into the water. The conſequence of this is, that the air is ſtill farther diminiſhed in bulk; and what remains is pure air, fit for ſupporting animal life, and of being farther diminiſhed by phlogiſton as before. It appears alſo certain, that phlogiſton is not endowed with any inherent power by which it can expand itſelf; otherwiſe it would fly off *in vacuo*, which it is never known to do. Another circumſtance we muſt alſo attend to is, that the action of phlogiſton ſeems to be entirely confined to a particular part of the atmoſphere; namely, that which is now ſo well known by the name of *fixed air*. This it entirely deprives of its elaſtic principle, ſo that it is actually no longer air, but becomes a ſolid ſubſtance, making a part, and that no inconſiderable one, of innumerable terreſtrial ſubſtances, as chalk, limeſtone, &c." That the juſtneſs of the concluſion to be drawn from Dr Prieſtley's experiments may be more apparent, the phenomena were ſummed up in the two following propoſitions. "1. Phlogiſton cannot act by itſelf without the aſſiſtance of air. 2. The emiſſion of phlogiſton is attended with the total deſtruction of the elaſticity of a certain quantity of fixed air, which then ceaſes to be fluid. Hence we affirm, that it is not the phlogiſtic ſubſtance which acts upon the air, but the elaſtic principle in the fixed air contained in the common atmoſphere, that acts on the phlogiſtic ſubſtance. This elaſtic principle, entering the phlogiſtic body, diſplaces a quantity of phlogiſton equivalent to its own quantity, and takes its place; and hence proceeds the firſt diminution of the air, not from an acceſſion of phlogiſton, but from an eſcape of the elaſtic principle belonging to fixed air. The phlogiſton and fixed particles of the air now hang looſe like ſmoke or vapour, and are ready to be attracted by any thing capable of imbibing them; and hence proceeds the ſecond diminution by agitation in water. Now to apply this reaſoning, The blood is found to emit phlogiſton from the lungs at every exſpiration; therefore we affirm it has received a proportional quantity of elaſtic vapour which it had not before. Again: The air expelled from the lungs is found to contain much of the fixable part floating looſe, and incapable of being attracted by lime-water, &c. therefore we ſay, this elaſtic principle hath come from that part of the atmoſphere. But, to put the matter beyond doubt, the very inſpection of arterial and venous blood ſhows, that the firſt has a quantity of elaſtic matter in it which the laſt wants: and as the brain as well as all other parts of the body are ſupplied with arterial blood, we think it abundantly evident, that this elaſtic principle is abſolutely and eſſentially neceſſary to life; that it is continually expended thereon; and that it may be ſaid with the utmoſt propriety, that every time we draw the air into our lungs, we receive a portion of vivifying or vital ſpirit from it into our blood. Add to all this, that many ſubſtances, which are commonly obſerved to phlogiſticate air, appear to receive an elaſtic ſpirit by ſo doing. Putrefying bodies ſwell; they would not do ſo *in vacuo*; and therefore we muſt conclude, that they receive this elaſtic principle which ſwells them from the external air, and experience ſhows that it is communicated by this fixable part of the atmoſphere. The foregoing reaſoning leads to a very important diſcovery in natural philoſophy, *viz.* That it is to the atmoſphere, and to that particular part of it which goes by the name of *fixed air*, that we are every moment indebted for that vital ſpirit which animates our bodies, and is the immediate bond of union betwixt our immaterial ſpirit and this viſible world. It may be aſked indeed, If fixed air is capable of ſupplying this ſpirit in ſuch plenty, how comes it to be ſo inſtantaneouſly fatal when breathed? The reply to this, however, is obvious: it communicates too great a degree of elaſticity to the blood; whence the circulation is ſtopped, and inſtant death enſues. That this is really the caſe, appears from the following account of the ſymptoms obſerved on the diſſection of perſons who have been ſuffocated by this kind of air. 1. The veſſels of the brain are gorged with blood, and the ventricles of that viſcus are filled ſometimes with a frothy, ſometimes with a bloody ſerofity. 2. The trunk of the pulmonary artery is much diſtended, and the lungs appear nearly in a natural ſtate. 3. The right ventricle and auricle of the heart, the venæ cavæ, and jugular veins, are full of frothy blood. 4. Bloody ſerofity is often found in the bronchiæ. 5. The trunk of the pulmonary veins, and the left auricle, are either empty, or almoſt empty, of blood. 6. The blood found in the places that have been mentioned is generally fluid, and as it were in a diſſolved ſtate. It is eaſily extravaſated into the cellular texture of the head particularly, becauſe it is in this part that it abounds moſt. 7. The epiglottis in ſuffocated perſons is raiſed, and the glottis open and free. 8. The tongue is much ſwelled and can hardly be contained within the mouth. 9. The eyes protrude, and preſerve their luſtre to the ſecond or third day. They are often even brighter than natural. 10. The body preſerves its heat for a long time. Nay the heat is ſometimes greater than it is during life, or at leaſt conſiſtently with health. 11. The limbs are flexible for a long time after death. 12. The face is more ſwelled, and often more red than uſual. 13. The neck and upper extremities are ſometimes ſo much ſwelled, that they appear to be inflamed. Theſe ſwellings, however, do not, like œdematous ones, preſerve the impreſſions of the finger. This theory ſeemed much in favour of what had been advanced concerning the action of fixed air: and it was obſerved, that this elaſtic principle would ſeem to be the cauſe of animal heat; for as the blood evidently received a vaſt quantity of elaſtic fluid, it alſo received a much

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greater proportion of heat than uſual. Such was the mode of reaſoning adopted ſome years ago, derived from the diſcoveries which had then been made in AEROLOGY. Succeeding diſcoveries, however, have made it evident, that fixed air is not one of the natural component parts of our atmoſphere, but that it conſiſts of two different fluids; one of which is commonly called PHLOGISTICATED, the other DEPHLOGISTICATED, AIR. It is the latter which ſupplies the vital principle; and the above reaſoning ſtill holds good, only ſubſtituting the words *dephlogiſticated air* for *fixed air*. The poiſonous quality of the latter ſeems alſo ſtill to depend on its too eaſy decompoſition; by which means the elaſtic principle is diſcharged into the blood in ſuch quantity as to burſt the ſmall veſſels, as has been obſerved. This is ſhown indeed by the remedies moſt proper for the recovery of thoſe who have ſuffered from the noxious qualities of fixed air. Theſe conſiſt in evacuation, and eſpecially ſprinkling the body with cold water, in order to take off the ſuperfluous heat, and produce an univerſal contraction of the veſſels.

(14.) BLOOD, USES OF, IN ANTIQUITY. Among the ancients blood was uſed for the ſealing and ratifying covenants and alliances, which was done by the contracting parties drinking a little of each other's blood; and for appeaſing the manes of the dead, in order to which, blood was offered on their tombs as part of the funeral ceremony.

(15.) BLOOD, USES OF, IN ARTS. The principal uſe of blood in the arts is for making Pruſſian blue, or ſometimes for clarifying certain liquors; it is alſo recommended in agriculture as an excellent manure for fruit trees. A mixture of blood with lime makes an exceedingly ſtrong cement; and hence it is of uſe in the preparation of ſome chemical lutes, the making floors, &c. See ARCHITECTURE, § 242.

(16.) BLOOD, USES OF, IN DIET. As a food, it hath been diſputed whether blood really affords any nouriſhment or not. The beſt judges now, however, are generally agreed that it is very nutritious; and though out of the body, like the white of an egg, it is very inſoluble, yet, like that too *in* the body it is commonly of eaſy digeſtion. It is, however, highly alkaleſcent in hot climates; on which account the prohibition of it to the Iſraelites was very proper. Even in this country, when blood was uſed as food in great quantity, the ſcurvy was more frequent than at other times; but to a moderate uſe of it here no ſuch objection takes place. In ſome countries we are told, that the barbarians were accuſtomed to intoxicate themſelves by drinking the warm blood of animals; and as it has been ſhown (§ 12.) that this fluid is the immediate reſervoir of the vital principle, it ſeems by no means improbable, that it may be poſſeſſed of an inebriating quality. Some expreſſions in Scripture ſeem to countenance this hypotheſis. The eating of blood is ſuppoſed to have been prohibited to the Jews, principally with a view to the uſe of ſacrifices, in divine worſhip, and as a token of reſpect to the altar, at which the blood of every victim was preſented before God. The prohibition was repeated by the apoſtles at the council of Jeruſalem, confirmed and defended by all the fathers, except St Auguſtin, and the univerſal practice, both of the eaſtern and weſtern churches, till his time; and, in many churches, even of the weſt, much longer, as low as the middle of the 10th, ſome ſay of the 11th century. The queſtion is, whether the apoſtolic precept to abſtain from blood, was only a temporary ſort of accommodation to the weakneſs of the Jewiſh converts; or a perpetual precept founded on moral principles, and conſequently ſtill obligatory? The former opinion ſeems the more probable; though the advocates for the latter urge, that blood is prohibited, becauſe it tends to make men ſavage; that the prohibition is joined with that of fornication, which is an immorality; that on theſe accounts it was prohibited to Noah, and that God has enjoined abſtinence from blood on all Chriſtians, to manifeſt his ſupreme power over all their enjoyments. See BAPTISTS, § 13. x.

(17.) BLOOD, USES OF, IN MEDICINE. Blood was formerly held in great eſteem as a medicine for ſome particular diſeaſes. Baths of the blood of infants have been recommended as an infallible remedy for the elephantiaſis, &c. and the blood of goats and ſome other animals was uſed by the Galeniſts, and is recommended by Dr Mead in pleuriſies: but the firſt inhuman medicine, as well as the other, is now deſervedly exploded.

(18.) BLOOD, USES OF, IN RELIGION. The blood of victims was anciently the portion of the gods; and accordingly was poured or ſprinkled on the altar in oblation to them. The prieſts made another uſe of blood, viz. for divination: the ſtreaming of blood from the earth, fire, and the like, was held a prodigy or omen of evil. The Roman prieſts were not unacquainted with the uſe of blood in miracles; they had the fluxes of blood from images, ready to ſerve a turn; witneſs that ſaid to have ſtreamed from the ſtatue of Minerva at Modena, before the battle at that place. But we know not whether in this their ſucceſſors have not gone beyond them. How many relations in eccleſiaſtical writers of Madonas, cruciſixes, and wafers, bleeding? The liquefaction of the blood of St Januarius at Naples, repeated annually for ſo many ages, ſeems to tranſcend by far all the frauds of the Grecian or Roman prieſthood. But the chemiſts at laſt got into the ſecret; and we find M. Neumann at Berlin, performed the miracle of the liquefaction of dried blood, with all the circumſtances of the Neapolitan miracle. Among the ſchoolmen, we find a famous diſpute, under Pope Pius II. whether the blood of Chriſt, which fell from him in the three days of paſſion, retained or loſt by the hypoſtatic union; and conſequently whether it was the proper object of adoration. The Dominicans maintained the former, the Franciſcans the latter. The dominican doctrine gained the aſcendant, as being fitteſt to favour the profits of the monks; who becoming poſſeſſed of a few drops of this precious liquor, were ſecured of ample offerings from the deluded laity, who flocked to pay their homage to the ſacred relic. Joſeph of Arimathea is ſaid to have firſt brought into Britain two ſilver veſſels filled with the blood of Chriſt, which by his order was buried in his tomb. King Henry III. had a cryſtal bottle, containing a portion of the ſame blood, ſent him by the

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ſhe maſter of the temple at Jeruſalem, atteſted by the ſeals of the patriarch; which treaſure the king committed to the church of St. Peter's Weſtminſter, and obtained from the biſhops an indulgence of ſix years and 116 days to all that ſhould viſit it. Mat. Paris even aſſures us, that the king's ſummoning his nobles and prelates to celebrate the feaſt of St Edward in St Peter's church, was chiefly *pro veneratione ſancti ſanguinis Chriſti nuper adepti*, "in veneration of the holy blood of Chriſt lately acquired." Divers others of our monaſteries were poſſeſſed of this profitable relic; as the college of Bons Hommes at Aſhridge, and the abbey of Hales, to whom it was given by Henry, ſon of Richard duke of Cornwall, and king of the Romans. To it reſorted a great concourſe of people for devotion and adoration; till in 1538, as the reformation took place, it was perceived to be only honey clarified and coloured with ſaffron, as was ſhown at St Paul's croſs by the biſhop of Roche ſter. The like diſcovery was made of the blood of Chriſt, found among the relics in the abbey of Feſcamp in Normandy, pretended to have been preſerved by Nicodemus, when he took the body from the croſs, and given to that abbey by William duke of Normandy: it was buried by his ſon Richard, and again diſcovered in 1171, and attended with different miracles; but the cheat, which had been long winked at, was at length expoſed, the relation of which is given by Speed.

(II.) BLOOD, in alchemy and chemiſtry, is a denomination given to ſeveral artificial compoſitions, on account of their red colour. Alchemiſts chiefly apply it to tinctures.

(III.) BLOOD, in farriery, denotes a diſtemper in the back of a horſe, which makes him in going draw his head aſide, or after him: the cure is by ſlitting the length of two joints under the tail, and thus letting the beaſt bleed plentifully.

(IV.) BLOOD, in law, (See § I. 1. *Def.* 3.) is diſtinguiſhed, as either HALF BLOOD, or WHOLE BLOOD.

1. BLOOD, HALF, is applied to perſons deſcended from one common anceſtor, either on the father's or mother's ſide, by two different marriages.

2. BLOOD, WHOLE, is applied to perſons deſcended from the ſame couple of anceſtors.

(V.) BLOOD, in pharmacy, is applied to ſome vegetable juices; ſuch as DRAGON'S BLOOD, &c.

(VI.) BLOOD, Thomas, commonly called *Colonel Blood*; was a diſbanded officer of Oliver Cromwell's, famous for his daring crimes and his good fortune. He was firſt diſtinguiſhed by engaging in a conſpiracy to ſurpriſe the caſtle of Dublin; which was defeated by the vigilance of the D. of Ormond, and ſome of his accomplices were executed. Eſcaping to England, he meditated revenge againſt Ormond; and actually ſeized him one night in his coach at St James's Street, where he might have finiſhed his purpoſe if he had not ſtudied refinements in his vengeance. He bound him on horſeback behind one of his aſſociates, reſolving to hang him at Tyburn, with a paper pinned to his breaſt: but when they got into the fields, the duke threw himſelf and the aſſaſſin, to whom he was faſtened, to the ground; and while they were ſtruggling in the mire, he was reſcued by his ſervants; but the authors of this attempt were not then diſcovered. After living a conſiderable time among the malcontents in Ireland, he went to Holland; where he became intimate with ſome of the principal perſons of the republic, particularly the famous admiral De Ruyter. He returned thence to England, with recommendations to the republican party; whence he went to Scotland, where he contributed much to the breaking out of the inſurrection; and was preſent in the action of Pentland Hills, on the 27th Nov. 1666; in which the inſurgents were routed, and about 500 killed. He returned to England, where he reſcued his friend Captain Maſon from a party of ſoldiers, who were conducting him to his trial. In 1671, Blood formed a deſign of carrying off the crown and regalia from the tower; a deſign, to which he was prompted, as well by the ſurpriſing boldneſs of the enterprize, as by the views of profit. He was very near ſucceeding. He had bound and wounded Edwards the keeper of the jewel office, and had got out of the tower with his prey; but was overtaken and ſeized, with ſome of his aſſociates. One of them was known to have been concerned in the attempt upon Ormond; and Blood was immediately concluded to be the ringleader. When queſtioned, he frankly avowed the enterprize; but refuſed to diſcover his accomplices. "The fear of death, he ſaid, ſhould never engage him either to deny a guilt, or betray a friend." All theſe extraordinary circumſtances made him the general ſubject of converſation; and the king was moved with an idle curioſity to ſee and ſpeak with a perſon ſo noted for his courage and his crimes. Blood wanted not addreſs to improve this opportunity of obtaining a pardon. He told Charles, that he had been engaged, with others, in a deſign to kill him with a carabine above Batterſea, where his majeſty often went to bathe: that the cauſe of this reſolution was the ſeverity exerciſed over the conſciences of the godly, in reſtraining the liberty of their religious aſſemblies: that when he had taken his ſtand among the reeds, full of theſe bloody reſolutions, he found his heart checked with an *awe of majeſty*; and he not only relented himſelf, but diverted his aſſociates from their purpoſe: that he had long ago brought himſelf to an entire indifference about life, which he now gave for loſt; yet he could not forbear warning the king of the danger which might attend his execution; that his aſſociates had bound themſelves by the ſtricteſt oaths to revenge the death of any of their confederacy; and that no precaution nor power could ſecure any one from the effects of their deſperate reſolutions. Whether theſe conſiderations excited fear or admiration in the king, they confirmed his reſolution of granting a pardon to Blood; but he thought it a requiſite point of decency firſt to obtain the D. of Ormond's conſent. Arlington came to Ormond in the king's name, and deſired that he would not proſecute Blood, for reaſons which he was commanded to give him. The duke replied, that his majeſty's commands were the only reaſon that could be given; and being ſufficient, he might therefore ſpare the reſt. Charles carried his kindneſs

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neſs to Blood ſtill farther; he granted him an eſtate of L. 500 a year in Ireland; he encouraged his attendance about his perſon; he ſhowed him great countenance; and many applied to him for promoting their pretenſions at court. And while old Edwards, who had bravely ventured his life, and had been wounded, in defending the crown and regalia, was forgotten and neglected, this man, who deſerved to be hanged, became a kind of favourite. Blood enjoyed his penſion about 10 years, till being charged with fixing an imputation of a ſcandalous nature on the D. of Buckingham, he was thrown into priſon; yet, though the damages were laid at L. 10,000, Blood found bail. He died however ſoon after, on the 24th Aug. 1680. But the public had now got ſuch a notion of the reſtleſs ſpirit of Blood, that they would not believe he could reſt even in the grave. Nor did they indeed permit him to do ſo; for a ſtory being circulated that his death and burial was only a new trick, preparatory to ſome extraordinary exploit, it gained credit to ſuch a degree, that the body was obliged to be taken up and the coroner's inqueſt to ſit upon it, and to call witneſſes to prove the identity of the Colonel's corpſe, before the public could be fully perſuaded, that ſo extraordinary a genius was actually dead.

* *To* BLOOD. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To ſtain with blood.—

Then all approach the ſlain with vaſt ſurpriſe,
And, ſcarce, ſecure, reach out their ſpears afar,
And *blood* their points, to prove their partnerſhip in war. *Dryden's Fables.*

—He was *blooded* up to his elbows by a couple of Moors, whom he butchered with his own imperial hands. *Addiſon.* 2. To enter; to enure to blood, as a hound.—

Fairer than faireſt, let none ever ſay,
That ye were *blooded* in a yielded prey.
Spenſer's Sonnets.

3. To *blood*, is ſometimes to let blood medically. 4. To heat; to exaſperate.—When the faculties intellectual are in vigour, not drenched, or, as it were, *blooded* by the affections. *Bacon's Apophthegms.*—By this means, matters grew more exaſperate; the auxiliary forces of French and Engliſh were much *blooded* one againſt another. *Bacon's Henry* VII.

BLOOD, AVENGER OF, among the Jews, was the next of kin to the perſon murdered, who was to purſue the murderer.

* BLOOD-BOLTERED. *adj.* [from *blood* and *bolter.*] Blood ſprinkled.—

The *blood-bolter'd* Banquo ſmiles upon me.
Macbeth.

(1.) BLOOD, DRAGON'S, [*ſanguis draconis,*] is uſed by the Arabs for the juice of the ANCHUSA.

(2.) BLOOD, DRAGON'S. See DRAGON'S BLOOD.

BLOOD, EFFUSION OF, in canon law, is ſuppoſed to pollute all concerned with it, however innocently; and therefore eccleſiaſtical judges retire, when judgment is to be given in *caſes of blood*, by reaſon the church is ſuppoſed to abhor blood. It condemns no perſon to death; and its members become irregular, or diſabled from their functions, by the effuſion of blood.

BLOOD, FIELD OF. See ACELDAMA. It ſtill ſerves for a burial-ground, in which all pilgrims, who die in their pilgrimage at Jeruſalem, are interred.

(1.) * BLOODFLOWER. *n. ſ.* [*hæmanthus,* Lat.] A plant.

(2.) BLOOD-FLOWER. See HÆMANTHUS.

* BLOODGUILTINESS. *n. ſ.* [from *blood* and *guilty.*] Murder; the crime of ſhedding blood.—

And were there rightful cauſe of difference,
Yet wer't not better, fair it to accord,
Than with *bloodguiltineſs* to heap offence,
And mortal vengeance join to crime abhorr'd.
Fairy Queen.

* BLOOD-HOT. *adj.* [from *blood* and *hot.*] Hot in the ſame degree with blood.—A good piece of bread firſt to be eaten, will gain time to warm the beer *blood-hot*, which then he may drink ſafely. *Locke.*

(1.) * BLOODHOUND. *n. ſ.* [from *blood* and *hound.*] A hound that follows by the ſcent, and ſeizes with great fierceneſs.—

Hear this, hear this, thou tribune of the people,
Thou zealous, publick *bloodhound*, hear and melt.
Dryden.

Where are theſe rav'ning *bloodhounds*, that purſue
In a full cry, gaping to ſwallow me? *Southern.*

—A *bloodhound* will follow the track of the perſon he purſues, and all hounds the particular game they have in chace. *Arbuthnot on Aliments.*—

And though the villian 'ſcape a while, he feels
Slow vengeance, like a *bloodhound*, at his heels.
Swift.

(2.) BLOOD-HOUND, in zoology, the CANIS SAGAX of Linnæus (ſee CANIS), *le chien courant* of Buffon, the *ſlow hound* of the Scots: The hound or dog, with long, ſmooth, and pendulous ears. It was a dog of great uſe, and in high eſteem with our anceſtors: its employ was to recover any game that had eſcaped wounded from the hunter, or been killed and ſtole out of the foreſt. It was remarkable for the acuteneſs of its ſmell, tracing the loſt beaſt by the blood it had ſpilt; from whence the name is derived. This ſpecies could, with the utmoſt certainty, diſcover the thief by followng his footſteps, let the diſtance of his flight be ever ſo great, and through the moſt ſecret and thickeſt coverts: nor would it ceaſe its purſuit till it had taken the felon. They were likewiſe uſed by Wallace and Bruce during the civil wars. The poetical hiſtorians of the two heroes frequently relate very curious paſſages on this ſubject; of the ſervice theſe dogs were to their maſters, and the eſcapes they had from thoſe of the enemy. The blood-hound was in great requeſt on the confines of England and Scotland; where the borderers were continually preying on the herds and flocks of their neighbours. The true blood-hound was large, ſtrong, muſcular, broad breaſted, of a ſtern countenance, of a deep tan-colour, and generally marked with a black ſpot above each eye.

* BLOODILY. *adv.* [from *bloody.*] With diſpoſition to ſhed blood; cruelly.—

I told the purſuivant,
As too triumphing, how mine enemies,
To-day at Pomfret, *bloodily* were butcher'd.
Shakeſp. Rich. III.

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This day, the poet, *bloodily* inclin'd,
Has made me die, full ſore againſt my mind.
Dryden.

* BLOODINESS. *n. ſ.* [from *bloody*.] The ſtate of being bloody.—It will manifeſt itſelf by its *bloodineſs*; yet ſometimes the ſkull is ſo thin as not to admit of any. *Sharp's Surgery.*

* BLOODLESS. *adj.* [from *blood*.] 1. Without blood; dead.—

He cheer'd my ſorrows, and, for ſums of gold,
The *bloodleſs* carcaſe of my Hector ſold. *Dryd.*

2. Without ſlaughter.—

War brings ruin where it ſhould amend;
But beauty, with a *bloodleſs* conqueſt, finds
A welcome ſov'reignty in rudeſt minds. *Waller.*

* *To* BLOOD-LET.† *v. n.* [from *blood* and *let*.] To bleed; to open a vein medicinally.—The chyle is not perfectly aſſimilated into blood, by its circulation through the lungs, as is known by experiments in *blood-letting*. *Arbuthnot on Aliments.*

* BLOOD-LETTER. *n. ſ.* [from *blood-let*.] A phlebotomiſt; one that takes away blood medically.—This miſchief in aneuriſms, proceedeth from the ignorance of the *blood-letter*, who, not conſidering the errour committed in letting blood, binds up the arm careleſsly. *Wiſeman.*

BLOOD-LETTING, *n. ſ.* The operation of bleeding, or letting blood.

(1.) BLOOD OF CHRIST, a pretended relic. See BLOOD, § 18.

(2.) BLOOD OF CHRIST, the name of a military order inſtituted at Mantua in 1608. The number of knights was reſtricted to 20, beſides the grand maſter. Their device was, *Domine, probaſti me*; Lord, thou haſt proved me: or, *Nihil hoc triſte recepto*; Fortified by this, no evil can prevail.

BLOOD OF MERCURY, in alchemy, the tincture of mercury.

BLOOD OF ST JANUARIUS. See BLOOD, § 18.

BLOOD OF SULPHUR, [*ſanguis ſulphuris*,] a preparation of liver of ſulphur, ground with oil of tartar *per deliquium*, and digeſted with dulcified ſpirit of nitre. It was reputed a good pectoral and diuretic, but is ſeldom preſcribed.

BLOOD, PRECIOUS, a denomination given to a reformed congregation of Bernardine nuns at Paris, firſt eſtabliſhed under that name in 1661.

BLOOD-RED HEAT, the laſt degree of heat given by ſmiths to iron in the forge.

BLOOD-RUNNING ITCH, in farriery, a diſeaſe in a horſe, proceeding from an inflammation of the blood by over heating, hard riding, or other ſevere labour; which, getting between the ſkin and fleſh, makes the beaſt rub and bite himſelf; and, if not cured, ſometimes turns to a grievous mange, highly infectious to all nigh him.

BLOOD, SALAMANDER'S, the redneſs remaining in the receiver, after diſtilling the ſpirit of nitre.

BLOOD, SATYRION, a ruddy liquor produced from the roots of ſatyrium, baked with bread; and liquified, as it were, into blood, by a long digeſtion.

* BLOOD-SHED. *n. ſ.* [from *blood* and *ſhed*.] 1. The crime of blood, or murder.—

Full many miſchiefs follow cruel wrath;
Abhorred *bloodſhed*, and tumultuous ſtrife,
Unmanly murder, and unthrifty ſcath. *P. Queen.*

All murders paſt do ſtand excus'd in this;
And this ſo ſole, and ſo unmatchable,
Shall prove a deadly *bloodſhed* but a jeſt,
Exampl'd by this heinous ſpectacle. *Shak. K. J.*

—A man under the tranſports of a vehement rage, paſſes a different judgment upon murder and *bloodſhed*, from what he does when his revenge is over. *South.* 2. Slaughter; waſte of life.—

So by him Cæſar got the victory,
Through great *bloodſhed*, and many a ſad affray. *Fairy Queen.*

Of wars and *bloodſhed*, and of dire events,
I could with greater certainty foretel. *Dryden.*

* BLOODSHEDDER. *n. ſ.* [from *bloodſhed*.] Murderer.—He that taketh away his neighbour's living, ſlayeth him; and he that defraudeth the labourer of his hire is a *bloodſhedder*. *Eccluſ.* xxxiv. 22.

(1.) * BLOODSHOT. } *adj.* [from *blood* and
* BLOODSHOTTEN. } *ſhot*.] Filled with blood burſting from its proper veſſels.—

And that the winds their bellowing throats would try,
When redd'ning clouds reflect his *bloodſhot* eye. *Garth.*

(2.) BLOOD-SHOTTEN. See OPHTHALMIA.

BLOOD-SNAKE, the Engliſh name of the HÆMORRHUS.

BLOOD-SPAVIN. See FARRIERY.

BLOOD, SPITTING OF, or HÆMOPTOE. See MEDICINE, INDEX.

(1.) * BLOOD-STONE. *n. ſ.* [*hæmatites*; from *blood* and *ſtone*.] The name of a ſtone.—There is a ſtone, which they call the *blood-ſtone*, which, worn, is thought to be good for them that bleed at the noſe; which, no doubt, is by aſtriction, and cooling of the ſpirits. *Bacon.*—The *blood-ſtone* is green, ſpotted with a light blood-red. *Woodward on Foſſils.*

(2.) BLOOD-STONE. See HÆMATITES.

* BLOODSUCKER. *n. ſ.* [from *blood* and *ſuck*.] 1. A leech; a fly; any thing that ſucks blood. 2. A cruel man; a murderer.—

God keep the prince from all the pack of you;
A knot you are of damned *bloodſuckers!*
Shakeſp. Rich. III.

—The nobility cried out upon him, that he was a *bloodſucker*, a murderer, and a parricide. *Hayward.*

* BLOOD-THIRSTY. *adj.* [from *blood* and *thirſt*.] Deſirous to ſhed blood.—

And high advancing his *blood-thirſty* blade,
Struck one of thoſe deformed heads. *Fairy Q.*

† *Dr* JOHNSON *appears to have no authority for inſerting* TO BLOOD LET, *as an* Engliſh verb. *In his quotation from Dr* ARBUTHNOT, blood-letting *is not a* participle, *but a* ſubſtantive noun, *expreſſing a branch of ſurgery*. Participles *always imply* time. *We have not met with the verb* blood-let *in any medical or ſurgical work whatever. Neither do we find it in any other Dictionary, except that of Dr* ASH, *who ſays it is* "not much uſed." *We are perſuaded he might have ſaid, it is* never *uſed. Phyſicians and ſurgeons often mention* BLOOD-LETTING, *but they do not ſpeak of* having blood-letted *a patient, or of ordering one* to be blood-letted. *The verbs* TO BLEED *and* TO BLOOD, *and the expreſſions* TO draw blood, TO let blood, *and* TO loſe blood, *entirely ſuperſede the neceſſity of ſuch a verb as* TO BLOOD LET.

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—The image of God, the *blood-thirſty* have not; for God is charity and mercy itſelf. *Raleigh's Hiſt.*

(1.) * BLOOD-VESSEL. *n. ſ.* [from *blood* and *veſſel*.] A veſſel appropriated by nature to the conveyance of the blood.—The ſkins of the forehead were extremely tough and thick, and had not in them any *blood-veſſel* that we were able to diſcover. *Addiſon's Spectator.*

(2.) BLOOD-VESSELS. See ANATOMY, INDEX; and *Plates* VII. VIII. and IX.

(1.) * BLOODWIT. *n. ſ.* A fine anciently paid as a compoſition for blood.

(2.) BLOOD-WIT, or BLOOD-WITE, [from *blud*, Sax. blood, and *wite*, a fine,] denotes an exemption from the penalty (N° 1.) granted by the king to certain perſons and communities as a ſpecial favour. K. Henry II. granted to all tenants within the honour of Wallingford—*Ut quieti ſint de hidagio et bloodwite et bredwite.* The word is alſo written *blodwite*, *blodwita*, *blodwyta*, *bloudwit*, and *bluidweit*.

BLOOD-WOOD, Log-wood. See HÆMATOXYLON.

(1.) * BLOODWORT. *n. ſ.* A plant.

(2.) BLOODWORT, in botany. See RUMEX.

* BLOODY. *adj.* [from *blood*.] 1. Stained with blood. 2. Cruel; murderous; applied either to men or facts.—By continual martial exerciſes without blood, ſhe made them perfect in that *bloody* art. *Sidney.*—

Falſe of heart, light of ear, *bloody* of hand.
Shakeſp. K. Lear.

I grant him *bloody*,
Luxurious, avaricious, falſe, deceitful.
Shakeſp. Macbeth.

Thou *bloodier* villain,
Than terms can give thee out. *Shakeſp. Mach.*

Alas! why gnaw you ſo your nether lip?
Some *bloody* paſſion ſhakes your very frame;
Theſe are portents: but yet I hope, I hope,
They do not point on me. *Shakeſ. Othello.*

The *bloody* fact
Will be aveng'd; and th' other's faith approv'd,
Loſe no reward; tho' here thou ſee him die,
Rolling in duſt and gore. *Milton's Par. Loſt.*

The *bloodieſt* vengeance which ſhe could purſue,
Would be a triſle to my loſs of you.
Dryden's Indian Emp.

Proud Nimrod firſt the *bloody* chace began,
A mighty hunter, and his prey was man.
Pope's W. Foreſt.

BLOODY BAY, a harbour on the Sound of the Iſle of Mull, on the coaſt of Argyllſhire.

BLOODY CRIME, [*ſanguinem crimen*,] in writers of the middle age, that which is puniſhed with the blood or life of the offender.

(1.) * BLOODY FLUX. *n. ſ.* The dyſentery; a diſeaſe in which the excrements are mixed with blood.—Cold, by retarding the motion of the blood, and ſuppreſſing perſpiration, produces giddineſs, ſleepineſs, pains in the bowels, looſeneſs, *bloody fluxes*. *Arbuthnot on Air.*

(2.) BLOODY FLUX. See MEDICINE, INDEX.

BLOODY HAND, in law, a treſpaſſer apprehended in a foreſt with his hands or other parts bloody; which is a circumſtantial proof of his having killed the deer, though he be not found hunting them.

BLOODY LAWS, a ſmall hill of Scotland, in Roxburghſhire, in the pariſh of Oxnam, ſo named from its having been anciently a ſcene of frequent and bloody feuds between the Scots and Engliſh borderers.

* BLOODY-MINDED. *adj.* [from *bloody* and *mind*.] Cruel; inclined to bloodſhed.—I think you'll make me mad; truth hath been at my tongue's end this half hour, and I have not the power to bring it out, for fear of this *bloody-minded* colonel. *Dryden's Spaniſh Fryar.*

BLOODY RAIN. See RAIN.

BLOODY SWEAT. Many inſtances of this are recorded, owing either to bodily diſorder, or extreme mental agitation and agony. See particularly *Ariſtotle's Hiſt. Animal. lib.* iii. *cap.* 19. *apud Oper. tom.* i. *Thuanus Hiſt. Temp. &c. lib.* ii. *apud Oper. tom.* i. *Melanges d'Hiſtoire et de Literature, &c. par M. V. Marville, tom.* iii. *p.* 149. *Acta Phyſico Med. Norimbergæ, vol.* i. *p.* 84. and *vol.* viii. *p.* 428.

BLOODY URINE. See MEDICINE, INDEX.

(1.) * BLOOM. *n. ſ.* [*blum*, Germ. *bloem*, Dutch.] 1. A bloſſom; the flower which precedes the fruit.—

How nature paints her colours, how the bee,
Sits on her *bloom*, extracting liquid ſweet.
Paradiſe Loſt.

A medlar tree planted by;
The ſpreading branches made a goodly ſhow,
And full of opening *blooms* was ev'ry bough.
Dryden.

Haſte to yonder woodbine bow'rs;
The turf with rural dainties ſhall be crown'd,
While opening *blooms* diffuſe their ſweets around. *Pope.*

2. The ſtate of immaturity; the ſtate of any thing improving, and ripening to higher perfection.—

Were I no queen, did you my beauty weigh,
My youth in *bloom*, your age in its decay.
Dryden's Aurengzebe.

3. The blue colour upon plums and grapes newly gathered. 4. [in the iron works.] A piece of iron wrought into a maſs, two feet ſquare.

(2.) BLOOM, in the iron works, (§ 1. *def.* 4.) has yet to undergo many hammerings before it become iron fit for the ſmith's uſe, and be made what they call the *ancony*. See ANCONY.

(3.) BLOOM, HALF, a round maſs of metal, which comes out of the finery of an iron work. See BLOMARY.

* *To* BLOOM. *v. n.* [from the noun.] 1. To bring or yield bloſſoms.—The rod of Aaron for the houſe of Levi was budded, and brought forth buds, and *bloomed* bloſſoms, and yielded almonds. *Numbers* xvii. 8.—It is a common experience, that if you do not pull off ſome bloſſoms the firſt time a tree *bloometh*, it will bloſſom itſelf to death. *Bacon's Natural Hiſtory.* 2. To produce, as bloſſoms.—Rites and cuſtoms, now ſuperſtitious, when the ſtrength of virtuous, devout, or charitable affection *bloomed* them, no man could juſtly have condemned as evil. *Hooker.* 3. To be in a ſtate of youth and improvement.—

Beauty, frail flow'r, that every ſeaſon fears,
Blooms in thy colours for a thouſand years.
Pope's Epiſtles.

O greatly

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O greatly bleſs'd with every *blooming* grace!
With equal ſteps the paths of glory trace.
Pope's Odyſſey.

BLOOMARY. See BLOMARY.

* BLOOMY. *adj.* [from *bloom.*] Full of blooms; flowery.—

O nightingale! that on yon *bloomy* ſpray
Warbleſt at eve, when all the woods are ſtill.
Milton.

Departing ſpring could only ſtay to ſhed
Her *bloomy* beauties on the genial bed,
But left the manly ſummer in her ſtead. *Dryd.*

Hear how the birds, on ev'ry *bloomy* ſpray,
With joyous muſick wake the dawning day.
Pope.

BLOOSM, *n. ſ. obſ.* bloſſom. *Spenſer.*

BLOOT, Peter, a Flemiſh painter, whoſe works are ſeldom ſeen in Britain: nor are they eaſily purchaſed in Holland, being highly eſteemed and carefully preſerved in private collections. The ſubjects he painted were boors drinking, feaſting, dancing, or quarrelling; ſhepherds piping, the marriages of villagers, &c. He was a faithful but too ſervile imitator of nature; never departing from the attitudes, or draperies of his models. He underſtood the chiaroſcuro, and perſpective; he had a delicate manner of penciling, and his colouring was mellow; but he had no idea of elegance: yet his pictures have in many reſpects great merit, and his defects ſeem rather imputable to the taſte of his country, than to want of genius; ſome of his works being, for the lightneſs of the touch, the neatneſs of handling, and tranſparence of colour, equal to the beſt of his time. He died in 1667.

BLOOTELING. See BLOTELING.

* BLORE. *n. ſ.* [from *blow.*] Act of blowing; blaſt: an expreſſive word, but not uſed.—

Out ruſht, with an unmeaſur'd roar,
Thoſe two winds, tumbling clouds in heaps; uſhers to either's *blore.* *Chapman's Iliad.*

BLORE-HALL, a village in Staffordſhire, near Okeover.

BLORE-HEATH, a village in Staffordſhire, near Shropſhire.

(1.) * BLOSSOM. *n. ſ.* [*bloſme*, Sax.] The flower that grows on any plant, previous to the ſeed or fruit. We generally call theſe flowers *bloſſoms*, which are not much regarded in themſelves, but as a token of ſome following production.—

Cold news for me;
Thus are my *bloſſoms* blaſted in the bud,
And caterpillars eat my leaves away.
Shakeſp. Henry IV.

Merrily, merrily, ſhall I live now,
Under the *bloſſom* that hangs on the bough.
Shakeſp. Tempeſt.

To his green ears your cenſure you would ſuit,
Nor blaſt the *bloſſom*, but expect the fruit.
Dryden.

(2.) BLOSSOM, in a particular ſenſe, is reſtrained to the flowers of trees, which they put forth in the ſpring as the forerunners of their fruit, otherwiſe called their BLOOM. The office of the bloſſom is partly to protect, and partly to draw nouriſhment to, the embryo, fruit, or ſeed. See FLOWER.

(3.) BLOSSOM, or PEACH-COLOURED, in the manege, a term applied to a horſe that has his hair white, but intermixed all over with ſorrel and bay hairs. Such horſes are ſo inſenſible and hard both in the mouth and the flanks, that they are ſcarce valued; beſides they are apt to turn blind.

* *To* BLOSSOM. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To put forth bloſſoms.—

This is the ſtate of man: to-day he puts forth
The tender leaves of hope; to-morrow, *bloſſoms*,
And bears his bluſhing honours thick upon him.
Shakeſp. Henry VIII.

—Although the fig-tree ſhall not *bloſſom*, neither ſhall fruit be in the vines, yet will I rejoice in the Lord. *Habb.* iii. 17.—The want of rain at *bloſſoming* time, often occaſions the dropping off of the *bloſſoms*, for want of ſap. *Mortimer.*

(1.) BLOSSOMING, MIRACULOUS, OF PLANTS. The *pious* bloſſoming of the Glaſtonbury thorn on Chriſtmas morning, is a vulgar error. The fact is, that the plant, beſides its uſual bloſſoming in the ſpring, ſometimes puts forth a few white tranſient bloſſoms in the middle of winter. The bloſſoming of the roſe of Jericho on the ſame day, as it is ſaid in England, or in the time of midnight maſs, as it was believed in France, during the prevalence of prieſtcraft, is ſomewhat more than an error, being really a fraud on one ſide, and a ſuperſtition on the other. This roſe, whoſe leaves are only cloſed in winter, will, at any time, upon ſetting its pedicle in water, expand and bloſſom anew; becauſe the pedicle being ſpongy imbibes the fluid apace, and thus fills and ſwells out the ſhrivelled leaves: which property ſome monks have turned to good account.

BLOSSOMING. See BLISSOMING.

BLOSTENHIM, a village in Cornwall, NW. of Saltaſh.

* BLOT. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. An obliteration of ſomething written.—

Let flames on your unlucky papers prey,
Your wars, your loves, your praiſes, be forgot,
And make of all an univerſal *blot.* *Dryd. Juv.*

2. A blur; a ſpot upon paper. 3. A ſpot in reputation; a ſtain; a diſgrace; a reproach.—

Make known,
It is no vicious *blot*, murder, or foulneſs,
That hath depriv'd me. *Shakeſp. K. Lear.*

—A lie is a foul *blot* in a man; yet it is continually in the mouth of the untaught. *Eccluſ.* xx. 24. —A diſappointed hope, a *blot* of honour, a ſtrain of conſcience, an unfortunate love, will ſerve the turn. *Temple.* 4. [At Backgammon.] When a ſingle man lies open to be taken up; whence *to hit a* blot.—He is too great a maſter of his art to make a *blot* which may ſo eaſily be hit. *Dryden's Dedication, Æneid.*

* *To* BLOT. *v. a.* [from *blottir*, Fr. to hide.] 1. To obliterate; to make writing inviſible by covering it with ink.—

You that are king
Have caus'd him by new act of parliament,
To *blot* out me, and put his own ſon in.
Shakeſp. Henry VI.

Ev'n copious Dryden wanted, or forgot,
The laſt and greateſt art, the art to *blot.* *Pope.*

—A man of the moſt underſtanding will find it impoſſible to make the beſt uſe of it, while he writes in conſtraint, perpetually ſoftening, correcting

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recting, or *blotting* out expreſſions. *Swift.* 2. To efface; to eraſe.—

O Bertram, oh! no more my foe, but brother:
One act like this *blots* out a thouſand crimes.
Dryden.

—Theſe ſimple ideas, offered to the mind, the underſtanding can no more refuſe, nor alter, nor *blot* out, than a mirrour can refuſe, alter or obliterate, the images which the objects produce. *Locke.* 3. To make black ſpots on a paper; to blur.—Heads overfull of matter, be like pens overfull of ink, which will ſooner *blot*, than make any fair letter. *Aſcham.*—

O ſweet Portia!
Here are a few of the unpleaſanteſt words
That ever *blotted* paper. *Shak. Merch. of Venice.*

4. To diſgrace; to diſtigure.—

Unknit that threat'ning unkind brow;
It *blots* thy beauty. *Shak. Tam. of the Shrew.*

5. To darken.—

He ſung how earth *blots* the moon's gilded wane,
Whilſt fooliſh men beat ſounding braſs in vain.
Cowley.

* BLOTCH. *n. ſ.* [from *blot.*] A ſpot or puſtule upon the ſkin.—Spots and *blotches*, of ſeveral colours and figures, ſtragging over the body; ſome are red, others yellow, or black. *Harvey.*

* *To* BLOTE. *v. a.* To ſmoke, or dry by the ſmoke; as *bloted* herrings or red herrings.

BLOTED CHINA WARE, a ſort of china, loaded with colour in an irregular manner. This pleaſes ſome, but it is a defective ſort of ware, the large blotches of colours having been only laid on to cover the blemiſhes in the firſt baking.

BLOTELING, or BLOOTELING, Abraham, a deſigner and engraver of Amſterdam, flouriſhed about 1670. From the ſtyle of his etchings, which have great merit, he is ſuppoſed to have frequented the ſchool of the Viſſchers. He came to England about 1672, or 1673, at the time the French invaded Holland; but he did not reſide long. He both etched and ſcraped ſeveral mezzotintos, which were much eſteemed. Vertue informs us, that whilſt he was in England, he received 30 guineas for an etching of the duke of Norfolk.—From hence he returned to Amſterdam, where, in all probability, he died. In 1685, he publiſhed at Amſterdam, the *gems* of Leonardo Auguſtino, and etched the plates himſelf.

BLOTTING BOOK, a book uſed by merchants, who under a preſs of buſineſs, haſtily to enter their accounts, which are copied into the journal at night.

BLOTTING PAPER, a ſpecies of paper made without ſize or ſtiffening, ſerving to imbibe the wet ink in books of account, &c. and prevent its blotting the oppoſite page.

BLOUDWIT. See BLOODWIT.

(1.) BLOUNT, Charles, younger brother of Sir Thomas (N° 3.) had an excellent capacity, and was an eminent writer. His *Anima Mundi*, or, *An hiſtorical narration of the opinions of the ancients, concerning man's ſoul after this life, according to unenlightened nature*, gave great offence, and was complained of to the biſhop of London. But the work which rendered him moſt known, was his tranſlation of Philoſtratus's *Life of Apollonius Tyaneus*, publiſhed in 1680; which was ſoon ſuppreſſed, as an attack on revealed religion. Another work of the ſame complexion he publiſhed the ſame year, called *Great is Diana of the Epheſians*, &c. in which, under colour of expoſing ſuperſtition, he ſtruck at revelation. In 1684, he printed a kind of *Introduction to Polite Literature*. In the warmth of his zeal for the Revolution, he wrote a pamphlet to prove K. William and queen Mary *conquerors*; which was condemned to be burnt by both houſes of parliament. The cloſe of his life was very unhappy. For, after the death of his wife, he became enamoured of her ſiſter, whoſe only objection was their prior connection by the marriage; on which he writ a letter on the ſubject, as the caſe of a third perſon, with great learning and addreſs. But the Abp. of Canterbury and other divines deciding againſt him, and the lady on this growing inflexible, it threw him into a phrenzy, in which he ſhot himſelf, in 1693.—After his death, his miſcellaneous pieces were collected and publiſhed.

(2.) BLOUNT, Sir Henry, an Engliſh writer, born at Tittenhanger, in Hertfordſhire, in 1602. After a regular education, he ſet out on his travels in 1634; and getting acquainted with a janizary at Venice, he accompanied him into the Turkiſh dominions. Having been abroad two years, he returned and publiſhed a relation of his travels in the Levant, which went through ſeveral editions. He was knighted by Charles I. and was at the battle of Edge-hill; but after the king's death, was employed by the parliament, and by Cromwell. Yet after the reſtoration, he was appointed high ſheriff of Hertfordſhire, and from that time lived as a private gentleman above 20 years. He publiſhed, 1. An account of his travels. 2. Six comedies written by John Lilly, under the title of *Court Comedies*. 3. The exchange walk, a ſatire; and 4. An epiſtle in praiſe of tobacco. He died October 9, 1682.

(3.) BLOUNT, Sir Thomas Pope, bart. an eminent writer, and the eldeſt ſon of Sir Henry (N° 2.) was born at Upper Holloway, in Middleſex, 12th Sept. 1649. He diſtinguiſhed himſelf as a lover of liberty, a ſincere friend to his country, and a true patron of learning. He was made a baronet by Charles II. in whoſe reign he was elected burgeſs for St Alban's in two parliaments, and was knight of the ſhire in 3 parliaments after the revolution. He wrote in Latin, 1. A critique on the moſt celebrated writers. 2. Eſſays on ſeveral ſubjects. 3. A natural hiſtory, extracted out of the beſt modern writers; and 4. Remarks upon poetry, with characters and cenſures of the moſt conſiderable poets, whether ancient or modern. He died June 30, 1697.

(4.) BLOUNT, Thomas, a learned Engliſh writer of the 17th century, born at Bordeſley in Worceſterſhire. He had not an univerſity education; but by ſtrength of genius and great application, made a conſiderable progreſs in literature. Upon the breaking out of the popiſh plot in the reign of Charles II. being much alarmed on account of his being a zealous Roman-catholic, he contracted a palſy; and died in December 1679, aged 61. He wrote, 1. The academy of eloquence, containing a complete Engliſh rhetoric. 2. Gloſſographica, or a dictionary interpreting ſuch hard words, whether

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whether Hebrew, Greek, Latin, Italian, &c. as are now uſed in our refined Engliſh tongue, &c. 3. Boſcobel; or the hiſtory of his majeſty's eſcape after the battle of Worceſter. 4. A law Dictionary. 5. Animadverſions upon Sir Richard Baker's chronicle, 6. *Fragmenta Antiquitatis*; and other works.

BLOUNTSVILLE, a poſt town of the United States, in N. Carolina. It is 30 miles SSE. of Halifax, and 413 from Philadelphia.

(1.) BLOW, Dr John, a famous muſician and compoſer, was a native of N. Coiſingham in Nottingham; and was one of the firſt ſet of chapel boys after the Reſtoration. He was bred up under Capt. Henry Cook, and alſo a pupil of Hingeſton, and Dr Chriſtopher Gibbons. Upon the death of Purcell in 1695, he became organiſt of Weſtminſter Abbey, and in 1699, compoſer to the king. Dr Blow was a compoſer of anthems while a chapel boy, and was diſtinguiſhed by Charles II, for his merit. A little duett of Cariſſimi was admired very much by the king, and the ſubject of this article was requeſted to imitate it: the duett begins with "Dite o Cieli,"—Blow with peculiar modeſty anſwered, "he would try, but he was doubtful."—His attempt was however perfectly ſucceſsful. He compoſed in the ſame meaſure and the ſame key, (D. with a minor third) that beautiful ſong, "Go perjur'd man." He ſet to muſic an ode for St Cecilia's day, in 1684, the words by Mr Oldham, publiſhed with one of Purcell. In imitation of Purcell's *Orpheus Britannicus*, he publiſhed a work entitled *Amphion Anglicus*, in 1700, containing compoſitions for 1, 2, 3, and 4 voices, with a thorough baſs for the organ, harpſichord, or the orbulute: to this book a variety of commendatory verſes are fixed, and among them an ode, in the ſecond ſtanza of which are the following lines:

His Gloria Patri long ago reach'd Rome,
Sung and rever'd too, in St Peter's dome,
A Canon, will outlive her jubilees to come.

The Canon here meant is that fine one, to which the Gloria Patri, in Dr Blow's gamut ſervice is ſet. He likewiſe publiſhed a collection of leſſons for the harpſichord, and Mr Dryden's ode on the death of Purcell. There are alſo extant of his compoſition ſundry hymns printed in the *Harmonia Sacra*, and a great number of catches in the latter editions of the *Muſical Companion*.—He died in 1708.

(2.) * BLOW. *n. ſ.* [*blowe*, Dutch.] 1. The act of ſtriking. 2. A ſtroke.—

A moſt poor man, made tame to fortune's *blows*. *Shak. King Lear.*

4. An act of hoſtility; *blows* are uſed for combat or war.—

Be moſt abated captives to ſome nation
That won you without *blows*. *Shakeſ.*
Unarm'd if I ſhould go,
What hope of mercy from this dreadful foe,
But woman-like to fall, and fall without a *blow*
Pope.

5. A ſudden calamity; an unexpected evil.—People is broken with a grievous *blow*. *Jeremiah.*—

To all but thee in fit's he ſeem'd to go,
And 'twas my miniſtry to deal the *blow*. *Parnel.*

6. A ſingle action; a ſudden event.—Every year they gain a victory, and a town; but if they are once defeated, they loſe a province at a *blow*. *Dryden.* 7. The act of a fly, by which ſhe lodges eggs in fleſh.—

I muſt fear, leaſt with the *blows* of flies,
His braſs inflicted wounds are fill'd. *Chapm.*

(3.) BLOW, in fencing, differs from a thruſt, as the former is given by ſtriking, the latter by puſhing.

(4.) BLOW, in law. See BATTERY, § I. & III.

(5.) BLOW, MILITARY, [*alapa militaris*,] that given with a ſword on the neck or ſhoulder of a candidate for knighthood, in the ceremony of dubbing him. It ſeems to have taken its riſe from the ancient ceremony of manumiſſion. In giving the blow, the prince uſed the formula, *Eſto bonus miles*, "Be a valiant ſoldier;" upon which the party roſe a complete knight, and qualified to bear arms in his own right.

(1.) * *To* BLOW, *v. a.* 1. To drive by the force of the wind: with a particle to fix the meaning.—

Though you unite the winds,
Though bladded corn be lodg'd, and trees *blown down*,
Though caſtles topple on their warders heads.
Macb. th.
Fair daughter, *blow away* thoſe miſts and clouds,
And let thy eyes ſhine forth in their full luſtre.
Denham.

—Theſe primitive heirs of the chriſtian church could not eaſily *blow off* the doctrine of paſſive obedience. *South.* 2. To inflame with wind.—I have created the ſmith that *bloweth* the coals. *Iſaiah.*—A fire not *blown* ſhall conſume him. *Job.* 3. To ſwell; to puff into ſize.—

No *blown* ambition doth our arms incite,
But love, dear love, and our ag'd father's right.
K. Lear.

4. To form into ſhape by the breath.—Spherical bubbles, that boys ſometimes *blow* with water, to which ſoap hath given a tenacity. *Boyle.* 5. To ſound an inſtrument of wind muſick.—*Blow* the trumpet among the nations. *Jeremiah.*—

Where the bright ſeraphim, in burning row,
Their loud uplifted angel trumpets *blow*. *Milt.*

6. To warm with the breath.—

When the iſicles hang by the wall,
And Dick the ſhepherd *blows* his nail,
And Tom bears logs into the hall,
And milk come frozen home in pail. *Shakeſ.*

7. To ſpread by report.—

But never was there man of his degree,
So much eſteem'd, ſo well belov'd as he:
So gentle of condition was he known,
That through the court his courteſy was *blown*.
Dryden.

8. *To blow out.* To extinguiſh by wind or the breath.—

Your breath firſt kindled the dead coal of war,
And brought in matter, that ſhould feed this fire:
And now 'tis far too huge to be *blown out*,
With that ſame weak wind which enkindled it.
Shakeſ.
Moon, ſlip behind ſome cloud, ſome tempeſt riſe,
And *blow out* all the ſtars that light the ſkies. *Dryd.*

9. *To*

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4. *To blow up.* To raise or swell with breath.—A plague of sighing and grief! it *blows* a man *up* like a bladder. *Shakespeare.*—Before w. had exhausted the receiver, the bladder appeared as full as if *blown up* with a quill. *Boyle.*—

It was my breath that *blew* this tempest *up*,
Upon your stubborn usage of the pope. *Shakes.*

—An empty bladder gravitates no more than when *blown up*, but some less; yet descends more easily, because with less resistance. *Grew.* 10. *To blow up.* To inflate with pride.—*Blown up* with the conceit of his merit, he did not think he had received good measure from the king. *Bacon.* 11. *To blow up.* To kindle.—

His presence soon *blows up* th' unkindly fight,
And his loud guns speak thick like angry men.
Dryden.

12. To move by *afflatus.*—When the mind finds herself very much inflamed with devotion, she is too much inclined to think that it is *blown up* with something divine within herself. *Addison.* 13. *To blow up.* To burst with gunpowder; to raise into the air.—The captains hoping, by a mine, to gain the city, approached with soldiers ready to enter upon *blowing up* of the mine. *Knolles's Hist. of the Turks.*—

Their chief *blows up* in air, not waves expir'd,
To which his pride presum'd to give the law.
Dryden.

—Not far from the said well, *blowing up* a rock, he formerly observed some of these. *Woodward.* 14. To infect with the eggs of flies. I know not how this sense belongs to the word.—

I would no longer endure
This wooden slavery, than I would suffer
The flesh-fly *blow* my mouth. *Shakes.*
Blow me into abhorring. *Shakes.*

15. *To blow upon.* To make stale.—I am wonderfully pleased, when I meet with any passage in an old Greek or Latin author, that is not *blown upon*, and which I have never met with in any quotation. *Addison.*—He will whisper an intrigue that is not yet *blown upon* by common fame. *Addison.*

(2.) * *To* BLOW. *v. n.* pret. *blew*; particip. pass. *blown.* [*blawan*, Sax.] 1. To make a current of air.—At his sight the mountains are shaken, and at his will the south wind *bloweth. Eccles.* xliii. 16.—Fruits, for long keeping, gather before they are full ripe, and in a dry day, towards noon, and when the wind *bloweth* not south; and when the moon is in decrease. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*

By the fragrant winds that *blow*
O'er the Elysian flow'rs. *Pope's St Cæcilia.*

2. This word is sometimes impersonally with *it.*—*It blew* a terrible tempest at sea once, and there was one seaman praying. *L'Estrange.*—If *it blows* a happy gale, we must set up all our sails, though it sometimes happens, that our natural heat is more powerful than our care and correctness. *Dryden.* 3. To pant; to puff; to be breathless. Here's Mrs Page at the door, sweating and *blowing*, and looking wildly. *Shakespeare.*—

Each aking nerve refuse the lance to throw,
And each spent courser at the chariot *blow. Pope.*

4. To breathe.—Says the satyr, if you have gotten a trick of *blowing* hot and cold out of the same mouth, I've e'en done with ye. *L'Estrange.*

5. To sound with being blown.—

Nor with less dread the loud
Ethereal trumpet from on high 'gan *blow.*
Paradise Lost.

There let the pealing organ *blow*,
To the full-voic'd quire below. *Milton.*

6. To sound, or play musically by wind.—The priests shall *blow* with the trumpet. *Joshua.* 7. *To blow over.* To pass away without effect.—The storm is *blown over. Granville.* 8. *To blow up.* To fly into the air by force of gun-powder.—The enemy's magazines *blew up. Tatler.*

(3) * *To* BLOW. *v. n.* [*blowan*, Saxon.] To bloom; to blossom.—

We lose the prime to mark how spring
Our tender plants, how *blows* the citron grove,
What drops the myrrh. *Milton*

(1.) * BLOWER. *n. s.* [from *blow.*] A melter of tin.—Add his care and cost in buying wood, and in fetching the same to the blowing-house, together with the *blowers*, two or three months extreme and increasing labour. *Carew.*

(2.) BLOWER, [*souffleur,*] an appellation of contempt sometimes given to an alchemist.

BLOWFIELD, a village 4 m. NE. of Norwich.

(1.) BLOWING, [*exsufflatio,*] a ceremony, in the ancient administration of baptism, whereby the *catechumen*, upon rehearsing the renunciation, blew three blasts with his mouth, to signify that he rejected the devil. Something like this is still retained in the Russian church. In the sacramentary of St Gregory, the priest who administers baptism, is enjoined to blow thrice on the child's face, making the sign of the cross and pronouncing the words, *exi ab eo satan.* Justin Martyr, Tertullian, St Cyril, and St Augustin speak of this ceremony as used in their times.

(2.) BLOWING, in gardening, the action of flowers, whereby they open and display their leaves. The regular blowing season is in the spring; though some plants have other extraordinary times and manners of blowing, as the Glastenbury thorn. See BLOSSOMING, § 1. Some flowers also, as the tulip, close every evening, and blow again in the morning. Annual plants blow sooner or later as their seeds are put in the ground; whence the curious in gardening sow some every month in summer, and have a constant succession of flowers. The blowing of roses may be retarded by shearing of the buds as they expand.

(3.) BLOWING AIR INTO FURNACES. See FURNACE.

(4.) BLOWING OF GLASS, one of the methods of forming various kinds of works in the glass manufacture. It is performed by dipping the point of an iron blowing pipe into melted glass, and blowing through it with the mouth, according to the circumstances of the glass to be blown. See GLASS.

(5.) BLOWING OF TIN denotes the melting its ore, after being first burnt, to destroy the mundic.

(6.) BLOWING SNAKE, in zoology, a name given in Virginia to a species of serpent, resembling the European viper, but considerably larger, and remarkable for inflating and extending the surface of its head before it bites. Its wound is fatal.

* BLOWN. The *participle passive* of *blow.*—All

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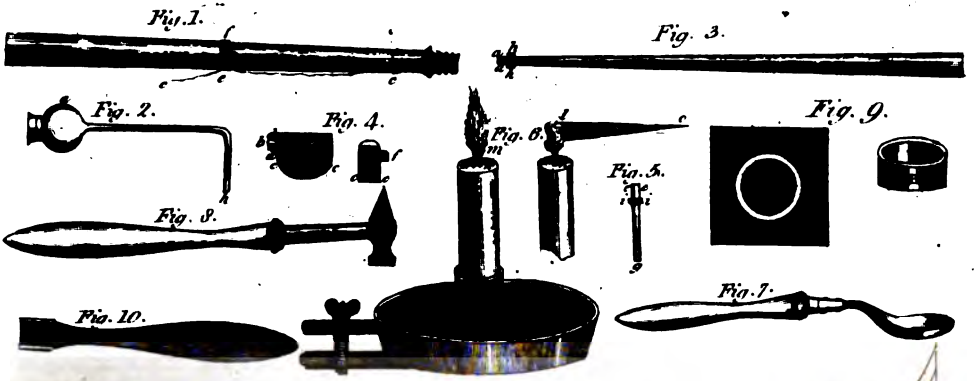

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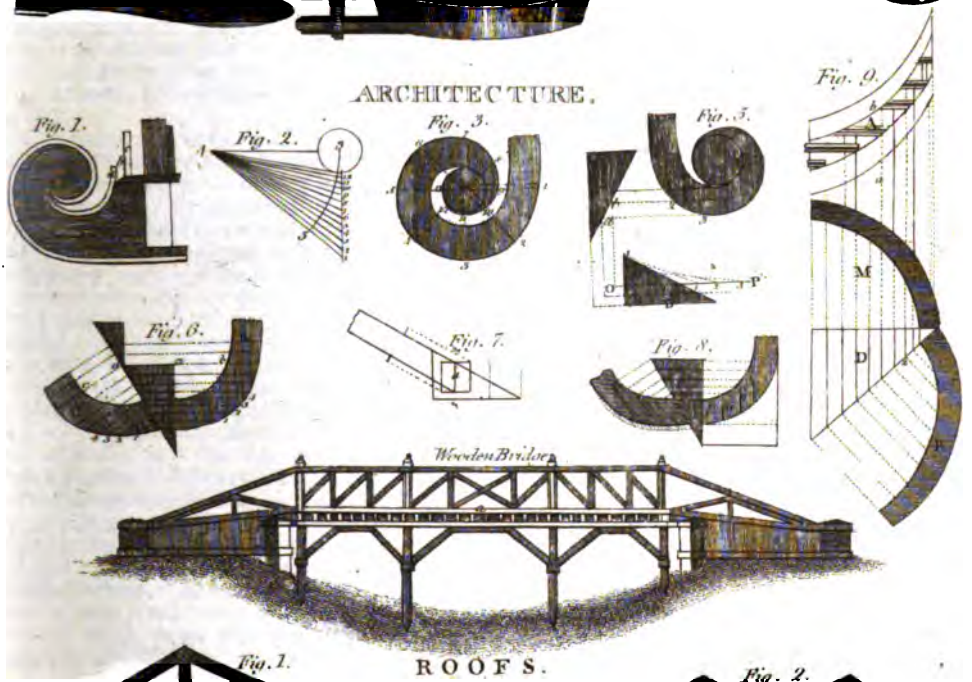

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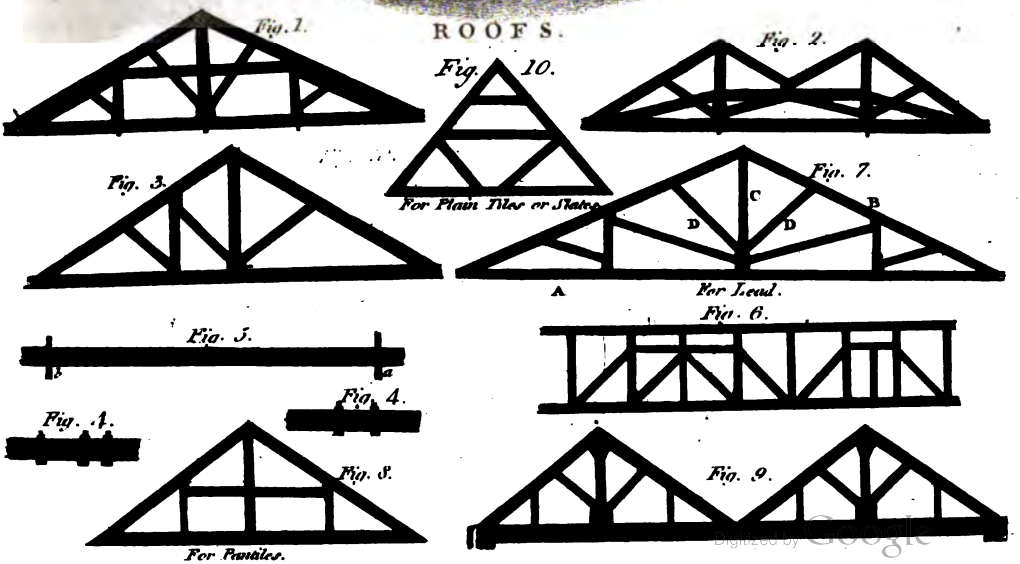

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—All the ſparks of virtue, which nature had kindled in them, were ſo *blown* to give forth their uttermoſt heat, and juſtly it may be affirmed, they inflamed the affections of all that knew them. *Sidney.*—

The trumpets ſleep, while cheerful hours are *blown*,
And arms employ'd on birds and beaſts alone. *Pope.*

(2.) BLOWN, in heraldry, [*eſpanoui*,] is applied to a *fleur de lys* when its leaves are opened, ſo that buds appear among the *fleurons*.

BLOW-NORTON, a village in Norfolkſhire, NE. of Harling.

(1.) BLOW-PIPE, in chemiſtry and mineralogy, an inſtrument by which the blaſt of the breath may be direct upon the flame of a lamp or candle, in ſuch a manner as to vitrify any ſmall portion of mineral ſubſtance; and thus the proceſs of aſſaying in the dry way may be performed in a very ſhort time, where either want of inſtruments, or of opportunity, prevent other methods from being uſed.

(2.) BLOW-PIPE, ADVANTAGES OF THE. The late Sir Torbern Bergman obſerved that this inſtrument is extremely uſeful to chemiſts, as many experiments are daily neglected, either becauſe they require furnaces and a large apparatus of veſſels; from the want of time to examine them in the ordinary way; or from the quantity required in the common way for examination, when the matter may be too ſcarce or too dear. In all theſe caſes the blow-pipe may be advantageouſly uſed; as, 1. Moſt of the experiments which can be performed in the large way may alſo be done with the blow-pipe. 2. The experiments which in the large way require many hours, may in this method be finiſhed in a few minutes; and, 3. The ſmalleſt particle is ſufficient. The only defect is, that the proportions cannot be determined with any preciſion; and therefore where the experiments can be tried on a large ſcale, it is always preferred. "But the firſt inquiry to be made," ſays Sir Torbern, "is, *what* a ſubſtance contains, not *how much*; and I have learned by the experience of many years, that theſe trials in ſmall quantities ſuggeſt the proper methods of inſtituting experiments in large. Theſe experiments beſides have ſome advantage over thoſe conducted in crucibles, *viz.* we can ſee all the phenomena from beginning to end, which wonderfully illuſtrates the ſeries of operations and their cauſes. Experiments made in crucibles are often fallacious, as the ſubſtance of the veſſel itſelf is corroded. We ſuppoſe that lime or magneſia melted with fixed alkali are united with it in the way of ſolution; but the globule, when well fuſed in the ſpoon; by its tranſparency permits us plainly to ſee that, except the ſiliceous part, it is only mechanically mixed. The moſt intenſe degree of heat may in this way be obtained in a few minutes, which can ſcarcely be done in a crucible in many hours."

(3.) BLOW-PIPE, IMPROVEMENTS OF THE. The blow-pipe was firſt introduced into the chemical apparatus about 50 years ago, by the celebrated Swediſh metallurgiſt, Dr Andreas Swab; and was afterwards greatly improved by Meſſrs Cronſtedt, Rinman, &c. Dr Engeſtroem has an expreſs treatiſe upon the ſubject. Bergman propoſes that the tube ſhould be made of pure ſilver, to prevent it from being injured by ruſt; with the addition of a ſmall quantity of platina, to give a neceſſary hardneſs. It conſiſts of 3 parts, which may be occaſionally joined: An handle, fig. 3. PLATE XXIII. terminated in a truncated conical apex *a a*, which may, by twiſting, be ſo adapted to the aperture *b*, fig. 4. as to ſhut it more cloſely than can be done by a ſcrew. It was an improvement of former chemiſts to have a hollow ball on the tube, to collect the moiſture of the breath, which, if ſuffered to accumulate, would greatly diminiſh the intenſity of the flame. Inſtead of this, Mr Bergman made uſe of the little box, fig. 4. formed of an elliptical plate, ſo bended through the centre that the oppoſite ſides become parallel, and are joined round by a plate equal in breadth to *c c*. Such a box collects the moiſture of the breath as well as the ſphere, and is beſides attended with the advantage of a compreſſed figure and ſmaller circumference. The aperture *b* is ſomewhat conical, and hollowed out of the ſolid piece; and has no margin turned inward, leſt the efflux of the fluid collected after long blowing, or the cleanſing of the internal parts, ſhould in any degree be prevented. The tube, fig. 5. is very ſmall, and its ſhorter conical end *e e* exactly fitted to the aperture *f*, ſo that no air can eſcape except through the orifice *g*. Many of thoſe tubes ſhould be provided with orifices of different diameters, to be applied on different occaſions: the orifice *g* itſelf ought to be ſmooth and circular, otherwiſe the cone of flame hereafter to be mentioned will be divided. The bands *h h*, fig. 3, and *i i*, fig. 5. prevent the conical apices, *aa*, *ee*, from being thruſt in too far, and alſo ſerve another purpoſe; for when theſe apices are, by repeated attrition, at laſt ſo much diminiſhed as to fall out ſpontaneouſly, by filling away a little of the bands they may again be made tight.

(4.) BLOW-PIPE, METHOD OF USING THE. The greateſt difficulty in the uſe of the blow-pipe is the ſupplying it with a conſtant ſtream of air by the breath; for to ſuch as are unaccuſtomed to it, it appears a contradiction to think of blowing a ſtream of air out by the mouth, at the ſame time that we are drawing it in by the noſtrils to ſupply the neceſſary functions of reſpiration. An uninterrupted ſtream of air, however, is abſolutely neceſſary; and "to ſucceed in this operation, (ſays Sir Torbern) without inconvenience, ſome labour and practice are neceſſary." The whole art, however, conſiſts in this, that while the air is inſpired through the noſtrils, that which is contained in the mouth be forced out through the tube by the compreſſion of the cheeks. To ſome perſons this is extremely difficult; but frequent trials will eſtabliſh the habit; ſo that a continual ſtream of air can be ſupplied for a quarter of an hour or more, without any other inconvenience than the laſſitude of the lips compreſſing the tube. To thoſe to whom it may appear difficult, the following may be a proper arrangement of introductory experiments;—to breathe with the ſame advantage to the ſyſtem through the noſtrils entirely, is the firſt ſtep to be obtained:

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obtained: this ſeems extremely eaſy, indeed ſo much ſo, as almoſt to be unneceſſary to mention as a beginning; but the teacher of any art ought to begin with the ſimpleſt movement. This being completely effected, let the learner transfer the air into his mouth, allowing his cheeks to diſtend as the air arrives through the poſterior noſtrils, and then let him make two or three moderate inſpirations and expirations without allowing it to eſcape by the lips;—this alſo is ſo eaſy that a very little practice will compleat it. Our learner having effected this, let the nut with the ſmalleſt aperture be fixed on the curved tube of the inſtrument, and introduce the mouth piece between the lips, then fill the cheeks with air, and continue breathing eaſily by the noſtrils, till nearly the whole of the air is paſſed through the tube from the mouth. Renew the breath as before, and after the practice of a day or two, the muſcles employed will be accuſtomed to this new exertion, and an uniform current may be produced, without any extraordinary exhauſtion. A very great and obvious improvement, however, is ſtill ſuggeſted by Dr Berkenhout, viz. to apply the tube to the windbag of a bagpipe; which being firſt blown full, may eaſily be kept ſo; and being compreſſed by the arm, will produce a blaſt either ſtrong or weak as we have a mind. It will be a ſtill farther improvement to ſupply this bag by means of a ſmall bellows inſtead of blowing into it with the mouth: for thus the air will be more free from moiſture, and alſo fitter for the ſupport of flame, in other reſpects: as there is always a conſiderable quantity, of fixed air produced at every reſpiration, which, according to that quantity, muſt unfit the air for keeping up the flame, and conſequently render the heat leſs intenſe. With regard to the flame proper to be choſen, Mr Bergman directs a ſlender candle, either of wax or tallow, fig. 6. with a cotton wick, *k l*. The burned top muſt be cut at ſuch a length, that the remainder may be dent a little, *l m*. The orifice, *g*. fig. 5. is to be held above and near to this arch, perpendicular to, *l m* fig. 6. and the air equally expreſſed. The flame being forced to one ſide by the violence of the blaſt, exhibits two diſtinct figures; the internal figure, *l n*, conical, blue, and well defined; at the apex of this, *n*, the moſt violent heat is excited, the external flame, *l o*, browniſh, vague, and indetermined; which is ſpoiled of its phlogiſton by the ſurrounding atmoſphere, and occaſions much leſs heat at its extremity, *o*, than the inferior flame does.

(5.) BLOW-PIPES, CONSTRUCTIONS, &c. OF. Dr Black and all other eminent chemiſts greatly recommend the uſe of the blow-pipe for chemical experiments on minerals. The conſtruction recommended by him differs not from that already deſcribed; only he ſays, that it may be made of tin, a cheaper material than ſilver; though formerly they were made of glaſs. The ſmall ſtream of air iſſuing from the extremity of the tube, being more intimately mixed with the flame, and agitated with it, occaſions a more complete conſumption of the vapour ariſing from the candle, and makes it produce much more heat; ſo that any ſmall body expoſed to the extremity of the flame is heated to a ſurpriſing degree. Several artiſts who work in metals, as the goldſmiths, &c. find this inſtrument uſeful in ſoldering pieces of metal together; and it is alſo uſed by the chemiſts in examining the effects of violent heat upon ſmall bodies. Some of the artiſts who uſe it much, ſupply the ſtream of air with a pair of bellows placed under the table, with a pipe riſing up through it, and to which the blow-pipe is fixed. In the examination of ores, the more ſimple inſtrument is preferred; and by a little practice it is eaſy to blow a continued ſtream of air with the mouth, by keeping it always full, and drawing in the air by the noſtrils, which anſwers the ſame purpoſe as the upper part of a double bellows. Mr Cronſtedt uſed the blow-pipe much in making the experiments on which his ſyſtem of mineralogy is founded, blowing air through a bit of charcoal; and though the ſpecimens are ſmall, we can ſee the changes they undergo as well as if they were larger; and the eye can be aſſiſted by a magnifying glaſs. The reaſon of the intenſe heat produced by the blow-pipe is, that in the ordinary way of burning, the air acts only upon the external ſurface of the fuel, ſo that it is not completely inflamed. The blow-pipe uſed by Mr Cronſtedt is compoſed of two parts; and this for the facility both of making, carrying it along, and cleaning it in the inſide when neceſſary. The two parts are repreſented ſeparate, fig. 1. and 2; the figure of the inſtrument, when theſe are put together, may be eaſily conceived. The globe *a*, fig. 2. is hollow, and made on purpoſe to condenſe the vapours, which are always in the blow-pipe when it has been uſed ſome time: if this globe was not there, the vapours would go directly with the wind out into the flame, and thereby cool the aſſay. The hole in the ſmall end *b*, through which the wind comes out, ought not to be larger than the ſize of the fineſt wire. This hole may now and then happen to be ſtopped up by ſomething coming into it, ſo as to hinder the force of the wind: one ought therefore to have a piece of the fineſt wire, to clear it with when required; and, in order to have this wire the better at hand, it may be faſtened round the blow-pipe, in ſuch a manner as is repreſented in fig. 1.: *c* is the wire faſtened round the blow-pipe, and afterwards drawn through a ſmall hole at *e*, made in the ring *f*, to keep it more ſteady. This inſtrument ſhould neither be made ſo large as to require too much wind, nor ſo ſmall as to be too ſoon filled with it. The canal throughout the pipe, but particularly the hole at the ſmall end, muſt be made very ſmooth, ſo that there be no inequalities in it: elſe the wind will be divided, and conſequently the flame made double. That blow-pipe is to be reckoned the beſt, through which can be formed the longeſt and moſt pointed flame from off a common ſized candle. Theſe blow-pipes are commonly made of braſs or ſilver. There are two different kinds of matter made uſe of for the ſupport of thoſe ſubſtances uſually examined by the blow-pipe: the one is charcoal of fir, or beech, cut into the form of a parallelopiped; the other a ſilver, or, which is better, a golden ſpoon, fitted with a wooden handle. The former is generally uſed, excepting where phlogiſton is to be avoided, or the ſubject of examination is apt to be abſorbed by the

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the charcoal. The golden ſpoon, fig. 7. ſhould not be large, as the bulk of the ſupport prevents the heat from being raiſed to a proper degree. To prevent the fine light particles from being carried off by the blaſt, a ſmall cavity ſhould be hollowed out in the charcoal; in which, being partly protected by another ſmaller piece of charcoal, they may be expoſed to the apex of the flame. Were it poſſible to procure a ſufficient quantity of dephlogiſticated air, experiments with the blow-pipe could be rendered ſtill more important than they are, as we might by this mean be able to fuſe and vitrify ſubſtances *per ſe*, which we are now ſcarce able to do with the moſt powerful fluxes. The difficulty of procuring this kind of air, however, has as yet, in a great meaſure, excluded the uſe of it from chemiſtry, though M. le Blond, in a letter to the editor of the *Journal de Phyſique* for February 1787, propoſes, inſtead of blowing through the tube, to adopt to the wide end of it a leathern bag, the ſize of an ox's bladder, filled with pure air. Were this bag made to communicate, by means of a pair of ſmall bellows, and a reſervoir containing a conſiderable quantity of this dephlogiſticated air, there is no doubt that many chemical operations might by its means be very advantageouſly performed; and we are already aſſured, that, by the uſe of this kind of air, platina itſelf may be melted. As dephlogiſticated air, however, has not yet come into uſe, we can only expect ſuch effects as may be produced by a violent blaſt of the common atmoſpheric air; and for this purpoſe we muſt accommodate ourſelves with proper fluxes. See FLUX.

* BLOWPOINT. *n. ſ.* A child's play, perhaps like *puſhpin*.—

Shortly boys ſhall not play
At ſpancounter or *blowpoint*, but ſhall pay
Toll to ſome courtier. *Donne.*

* BLOWTH. *n. ſ.* [from *blow*.] Bloom, or bloſſom.—Ambition and covetouſneſs being but green, and newly grown up, the ſeeds and effects were as yet but potential, and in the *blowth* and bud. *Raleigh.*

* BLOWZE. *n. ſ.* A ruddy fat-faced wench.

* BLOWZY. *adj.* [from *blowze*.] Sun burnt; high coloured.

BLOXHAM, two villages; 1. in Lincolnſhire, near Sleaford: 2. in Oxfordſhire, near Banbury.

BLOXWICH, a village in Staffordſhire, NW. of Walſall.

BLOXWORTH, a town in Dorſetſhire, 4 m. E. of Bere.

(1.) * BLUBBER. *n. ſ.* [See BLOB.] The part of a whale that contains the oil.

(2.) BLUBBER is the name of the fat of large ſea animals, as well as of whales, whereof train oil is made. It is properly the *adeps* of the animal: it lies immediately under the ſkin, and over the muſcular fleſh. In the porpoiſe it is firm and full of fibres, and inveſts the body about an inch thick. In the whale, its thickneſs is ordinarily ſix inches; but about the under lip, it is 2 or 3 feet thick. The whole quantity yielded by one of theſe animals ordinarily amounts to 40 or 50, ſometimes 80 cwt. or even more. The uſe of the blubber to the animal ſeems to be partly to poiſe the body, and render it equiponderant to the water; partly to keep off the water at ſome diſtance from the blood, the immediate contact whereof would be apt to chill it; and partly alſo for the ſame uſe that clothes ſerve us, to keep the fiſh warm, by reflecting or reverberating the hot ſteams of the body, and ſo redoubling the heat; ſince all fat bodies are, by experience, found leſs ſenſible of the impreſſions of cold than lean ones. Its uſe in trade and manufactures is to furniſh train-oil, which it does by boiling down. Formerly this was performed aſhore, in the country where the whales were caught: but now the fiſhers bring the blubber with them ſtowed in caſks, and boil it down at home.

(3.) BLUBBER, SEA. See MEDUSA and URTICA.

(1.) * *To* BLUBBER. *v. a.* To ſwell the cheeks with weeping.—Fair ſtreams repreſent unto me my *blubber'd* face; let tears procure your ſtay; *Sidney.*—

The wild wood gods arriv'd in the place,
There find the virgin doleful, deſolate
With ruffled raiment, and fair *blubber'd* face;
As her outrageous foe had left her late.
Fairy Queen.

Tir'd with the ſearch, not finding what ſhe ſeeks,
With cruel blows ſhe pounds her *blubber'd* cheeks. *Dryden.*

(2.) * *To* BLUBBER, *v. n.* [from the noun.] To weep in ſuch a manner as to ſwell the cheeks.—

Even ſo lies ſhe
Blubb'ring and weeping, weeping and *blubb'ring*!
Shak. Romeo and Juliet.

—A thief came to a boy that was *blubbering* by the ſide of a well, and aſked what he cried for. *L'Eſtrange.*—

Soon as Glumdalclitch miſs'd her pleaſing care,
She wept, ſhe *blubber'd*, and ſhe tore her hair.
Swift.

* BLUBBERED. *particip. adj.* [from *To blubber*.] Swelled; big; applied commonly to the lip.

Thou ſing with him, thou booby! never pipe
Was ſo profan'd, to touch that *blubber'd* lip.
Dryden.

* BLUDGEON. *n. ſ.* A ſhort ſtick, with one end loaded, uſed as an offenſive weapon.

(1.) * BLUE. *adj.* [*blæw*, Sax. *bleu*, Fr.] One of the ſeven original colours.—

There's gold, and here,
My *blueſt* veins to kiſs; a hand that kings
Have lipt and trembled kiſſing. *Shakeſpeare.*

Where fires thou find'ſt unrak'd, and hearths unſwept,
There pinch the maids as *blue* as bilberry. *Shak.*

O coward conſcience! how doſt thou afflict me?
The lights burn *blue*.—Is it not dead midnight?
Cold fearful drops ſtand on my trembling fleſh.
Shakeſpeare.

Why does one climate, and one ſoil endure
The bluſhing poppy with a crimſon hue;
Yet leave the lily pale, and tinge the violet *blue*?
Prior.

—There was ſcarce any other colour ſenſible beſides red and *blue*; only the *blues*, and principally the ſecond *blue*, inclined a little to green. *Newton.*

(2.) BLUE

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(2.) BLUE is one of the 7 colours into which the rays of light divide when refracted through a glaſs priſm.—For an account of the particular ſtructure of bodies by which they appear of a blue colour, ſee CHROMATICS.—The principal blues uſed in painting are Pruſſian blue, bice, Saunders blue, azure, or ſmalt, verditer, &c. for the preparation of which, ſee COLOUR-MAKING.—In dyeing, the principal ingredients for giving a blue colour, are indigo and woad. See DYEING.

(3.) BLUE, in geography, a ſmall river of the United States, in the North Weſtern Territory. It riſes near the head of Silver Creek, and after running SW. for ſeveral miles, turns S. by E. and falls into the Ohio about 30 miles below the river Salt. It is 20 yards wide at its mouth.

To BLUE, *v. a.* To make a blue colour; to give a bluiſh caſt. *Aſh.*

BLUE ASHES, [*Cendre blue*, Fr. by corruption, Saunders blue,] are much uſed in water-colours, and ſome are very lively; but in oil they grow greeniſh, being of the nature of verdigriſe. They are found in the form of a ſoft ſtone, in places where there are copper mines, and water only is uſed in levigating them, to reduce them to a fine powder. This kind of blue ought to be uſed in works to be ſeen by candle light, as in ſcene painting; for though a great deal of white is mixed with it, it appears very beautiful, notwithſtanding it has a greeniſh caſt.

BLUE, AZURE. See AZURE, § 1 & 2.

BLUE BICE. See BICE, § 1 & 2.

BLUE BIRD. See MOTACILLA.

(1.) * BLUEBOTTLE. *n. ſ.* [*cyanus*; from *blue* and *bottle*.] 1. A flower of the bell ſhape; a ſpecies of *bottleflower*.—If you put *bluebottles*, or other blue flowers, into an ant-hill, they will be ſtained with red: becauſe the ants thruſt their ſtings, and inſtil into them their ſtinging liquor. *Ray.* 2. A fly with a large blue belly.—

Say, fire of inſects, mighty Sol,
A fly upon the chariot-pole
Cries out, What *blue-bottle* alive
Did ever with ſuch fury drive? *Prior.*

(2.) BLUE-BOTTLE, in botany. See CYANUS.

BLUE-CAP. See BLEW-CAP.

BLUE COLOUR OF THE SKY. See SKY.

* BLUE-EYED, *adj.* [from *blue* and *eye*.] Having blue eyes.—

Riſe then, fair *blue-ey'd* maid, riſe and diſcover
Thy ſilver brow, and meet thy golden lover.
Craſhaw.

Nor to the temple was ſhe gone, to move,
With prayers, the *blue-ey'd* progeny of Jove.
Dryden.

BLUE, FLANDERS, is a colour ſeldom uſed but in landſcapes, being apt to turn green. The French call it *cendre verte*, or green aſhes.

BUE FISH. See CORYPHÆNA.

* BLUEHAIRED. *adj.* [from *blue* and *hair*.] Having blue hair.—

This place,
The greateſt and the beſt of all the main,
The quarters to his *blue-hair'd* deities. *Milton.*

BLUE-HILLS, a poſt town of the united States, in the diſtrict of Maine, and county of Hancock, E. of the Penobſcot; 344 miles from Boſton, and 624 from Philadelphia.

BLUE JAPAN, RECEIPT FOR MAKING. Take gum-water, and white lead, a ſufficient quantity; grind them well upon a porphyry: then take iſinglaſs ſize, and the fineſt and beſt ſmalt, ſufficient quantities; mix them well, and add, of the white-lead, before ground, ſo much as may give it a ſufficient body. Mix all theſe together to the conſiſtence of a paint.

BLUE JOHN, among mariners, a kind of mineral which is fabricated into vaſes and other ornamental figures. It is of the ſame quality with the cubical ſpar, with reſpect to its fuſibility in the fire. It loſes its colour, and becomes white in a moderate heat: the weight of a cubic foot of the blueſt kind is 3180 ounces, and that of the leaſt blue is 3140 ounces. This ſubſtance began firſt to be uſed above 30 years ago at ODIN mine in Derbyſhire, where the greateſt quantities are ſtill found. The largeſt pieces are ſold for 9 l. a ton, the middle-ſized for 6 l. and the leaſt for 50 s.

* BLUELY. *adv.* [from *blue*.] With a blue colour.—

This 'ſquire he drop'd his pen full ſoon,
While as the light burnt *bluely*. *Swift.*

BLUE-MANTLE, in heraldry, the title of a purſuivant at arms.

(1.) BLUE MOUNTAIN, a high and extenſive ridge of the APPALACHIAN mountains, which is about 4000 feet high, and extends through the N. parts of New Jerſey into Pennſylvania, as far as the Suſquehanna. See ALLEGANY, and AMERICA, § 42.

(2.) BLUE MOUNTAIN. See CAIRNGORM.

* BLUENESS. *n. ſ.* [from *blue*.] The quality of being blue.—In a moment our liquor may be deprived of its *blueneſs*, and reſtored to it again, by the affuſion of a few drops of liquours. *Boyle on Colours.*

BLUE NUNS, [*filles blues*,] a title of thoſe of the order of the annunciation. See ANNUNCIADA.

BLUE, PRUSSIAN, or BERLIN BLUE, is conſiderably in uſe among painters, though inferior to the ultramarine blue. It is a modern invention, and was diſcovered by accident, about the beginning of this century. A chemiſt of Berlin, having ſucceſſively thrown upon the ground, ſeveral liquors from his laboratory, was ſurpriſed to ſee it ſuddenly ſtrained with a moſt beautiful colour. Recollecting the liquors he had thrown on each other, he made a ſimilar mixture in a veſſel, and produced the ſame colour. He did not publiſh his proceſs, but prepared and ſold his *blue*, which was ſubſtituted for *ultramarine*. The account of it was firſt publiſhed in the Berlin Memoirs, 1710; but without the deſcription of its proceſs. See CHEMISTRY, INDEX.

BLUE RIVER. See AZUL, and BLUE, N° 3.

BLUE, SAXON, a dye made by diſſolving indigo in oil of vitriol, by which the indigo becomes of a much more lively colour, and is extended to ſuch a degree, that it will go very far in dyeing. See COLOUR-MAKING.

BLUE, STONE OR POWDER, uſed to linen after being waſhed, either in the lump, or powered, is the ſame with ſmalt. See SMALT, and CHEMISTRY, *Index.*

BLUE, TURNSOLE, is uſed in painting on wood. It is made of the ſeed of that plant, by boiling 4 ounces

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ounces of turnſole in a pint and a half of water wherein lime has been ſlacked.

BLUE, ULTRAMARINE, [*q. d.*] beyond ſea, from its being firſt brought into Europe out of India, and Perſia,] one of the richeſt and moſt valuable colours, uſed in painting, is prepared from lapis Lazuli, by firſt calcining the ſtone in an iron pot; then grinding it very fine on prophyry; then mixing it up with a paſte made of wax, pitch, maſtich, turpentine, and oil; and at laſt waſhing the paſte well in clear water, to ſeparate the colouring part from the reſt, which precipitates to the bottom, in form of a ſubtile, beautiful, blue powder. The water is then poured off, and the powder is dried in the ſun.

* BLUFF. *adj.* Big; ſurly; bluſtering.—

Like thoſe whom ſtature did to crowns prefer,
Black-brow'd and *bluff*, like Homer's Jupiter.
Dryden.

BLUFF-HEADED, among ſailors is applied to a ſhip that has an upright ſtern.

(1.) BLUING, the act or art of communicating a blue colour to bodies otherwiſe deſtitute thereof. Landreſſes blue their linens with ſmalt; dyers their ſtuffs and wools with woad or indigo.

(2.) BLUING OF IRON, a method of beautifying that metal ſometimes practiſed; for mourning buckles, ſwords, and the like. The manner is this: Take a piece of grind-ſtone or whet-ſtone, and rub hard on the work, to take off the black ſcurf from it: then heat it in the fire; and as it grows hot, the colour changes by degrees, coming firſt to light, then to a darker gold colour, and laſtly to a blue. Sometimes alſo they grind indigo and ſallad oil together: and rub the mixture on the work with a woollen rag, while it is heating leaving it to cool of itſelf.

(3.) BLUING OF OTHER METALS is performed by heating them in the fire, till they aſſume a blue colour; particularly practiſed by gilders, who blue their metals before they apply the gold and ſilver leaf. Among ſculptors, bluing a figure of bronze, means the heating it, to prepare it for the application of the gold leaf.

* BLUISH. *adj.* [from *blue.*] Blue in a ſmall degree.—Side ſleeves and ſkirts, round underborne, with a *bluiſh* tinſel. *Shakeſpeare.*—

At laſt, as far as I could caſt my eyes
Upon the ſea, ſomewhat, methought, did riſe
Like *bluiſh* miſts. *Dryden.*
Here, in full light, the ruſſet plains extend,
There, wrapt in clouds, the *bluiſh* hills aſcend.
Pope.

* BLUISHNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *blue.*] A ſmall degree of blue colour.—I could make, with crude copper, a ſolution without the *bluiſhneſs* that is wont to accompany its vulgar ſolutions. *Boyle.*

BLUNDASHELAY, a village in Dorſetſhire, in the pariſh of Whitchurch.

* BLUNGER. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] A groſs or ſhameful miſtake.—It was the advice of Schomberg to an hiſtorian, that he ſhould avoid being particular in the drawing up of an army, and other circumſtances in the day of battle; for that he had obſerved notorious *blunders* and abſurdities committed by writers not converſant in the art of war. *Addiſon.*—It is our own ignorance that makes us charge theſe works of the Almighty as defects or *blunders*, as ill contrived or ill made. *Denham.*

(1.) * *To* BLUNDER. *v. a.* To mix fooliſhly or blindly.—He ſeems to underſtand no difference between titles of reſpect and acts of worſhip; between expreſſions of eſteem and devotion; between religious and civil worſhip; for he *blunders* and confounds all theſe together; and whatever proves one, he thinks, proves all the reſt. *Stillingfl.*

(3.) * *To* BLUNDER. *v. n.* [*blunderen*, Dutch; perhaps from *blind.*] 1. To miſtake groſsly; to err very widely; to miſtake ſtupidly. It is a word implying contempt.—It is one thing to forget matter of fact, and another to *blunder* upon the reaſon of it. *L'Eſtrange.*—The grandees and giants in knowledge, who laughed at all beſides themſelves as barbarous and inſignificant, yet *blundered*, and ſtumbled, about their principal concern. *South.* 2. To flounder; to ſtumble.—

He who now to ſenſe, now nonſenſe leaning,
Means not, but *blunders* round about a meaning.
Pope.

(1.) * BLUNDERBUSS. *n. ſ.* [from *blunder.*] A gun that is charged with many bullets, ſo that, without any exact aim, there is a chance of hitting the mark.—There are *blunderbuſſes* in every loop-hole, that go off of their own accord at the ſqueaking of a fiddle. *Dryden.*

(2.) BLUNDERBUSSES are generally made ſhort and have wide bores.

* BLUNDERER. *n. ſ.* [from *blunder.*] A man apt to commit blunders; a blockhead.—Another ſort of judges will decide in favour of an author, or will pronounce him a mere *blunderer*, according to the company they have kept. *Watts.*

* BLUNDERHEAD. *n. ſ.* [from *blunder* and *head.*] A ſtupid fellow.—At the rate of this thick-ſkulled *blunderhead*, every plow-jobber ſhall take upon him to read upon divinity. *L'Eſtrange.*

BLUNDESDON, a village in Suffolk, NW. of Leoſtoff.

BLUND's COURT, in Oxfordſhire, SW. of Henley.

BLUNGOED, a town in Monmouthſhire, 6 miles NW. of Abergavenny.

BLUNHAM, in Bedfordſhire, 4 miles W. of Potton.

BLUNKET. *adj. obſ.* Light blue. *Bailey.*

BLUNDSON, BROAD, BLUNDSON-BURY, and BLUNSDON-ST ANDREWS, } 3 villages in Wiltſh. between Cricklade and Berkſhire.

(1.) * BLUNT. *adj.* [etymology uncertain.] 1. Dull on the edge or point; not ſharp.—Thanks to that beauty, which can give an edge to the *bluntеſt* ſwords. *Sidney.*—If the iron be *blunt*, and he do not whet the edge, then muſt he put to more ſtrength. *Eccl. ſ.* 2. Dull in underſtanding; not quick.—

Valentine being gone, I'll quickly croſs,
By ſome ſly trick, *blunt* Thurio's dull proceeding.
Shakeſpeare.

3. Rough; not delicate; not civil.—Whitehead, a grave divine, was of a *blunt* ſtocial nature; one day the queen happened to ſay, I like thee the better, becauſe thou liveſt unmarried. He anſwered; Madam, I like you the worſe. *Bacon.*—The mayor or the town came to ſeize them in a

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blunt manner, alledging a warrant to ſtop them *Wotton.*—

'Tis not enough your counſel ſtill be true;
Blunt truths more miſchiefs than nice falſehoods do. *Pope.*

4. Abrupt; not elegant.—To uſe too many circumſtances, ere one come to the matter, is wearyſome; to uſe none at all, is *blunt. Bacon.* 5. Hard to penetrate. This uſe is improper.—I find my heart hardened and *blunt* to new impreſſions; it will ſcarce receive or retain affections of yeſterday, *Pope.*

(2.) BLUNT, *n. ſ.* in fencing, a foil.

* *To* BLUNT. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To dull the edge or point.—

So ſicken waining moons too near the ſun,
And *blunt* their creſcents on the edge of day.
Dryden.

Earthly limbs and groſs allay,
Blunt not the beams of heav'n, and edge of day.
Dryden.

He had ſuch things to urge againſt our marriage,
As, now declar'd, would *blunt* my ſword in battle,
And daſtardize my courage. *Dryden.*

2. To repreſs, or weaken any appetite, deſire, or power of the mind.—

Blunt not his love;
Nor loſe the good advantage of his grace,
By ſeeming cold. *Shakeſpeare.*

BLUNTISH, *adj.* Somewhat blunt.

* BLUNTLY. *adv.* [from *blunt.*] 1. In a blunt manner; without ſharpneſs. 2. Coarſely; plainly; roughly.—I can keep honeſt counſels, marr a curious tale in telling it, and deliver a plain meſſage *bluntly. Shakeſpeare.*—

A man of honeſt blood,
Who to his wife, before the time aſſign'd
For childbirth came, thus *bluntly* ſpoke his mind.
Dryden.

* BLUNTNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *blunt.*] 1. Want of edge or point; dulneſs; obtuſeneſs; want of ſharpneſs.—

The crafty boy, that had full oft eſſay'd
To pierce my ſtubborn and reſiſting breaſt,
But ſtill the *bluntneſs* of his darts betray'd.
Suckling.

3. Coarſeneſs; roughneſs of manners; rude ſincerity.—His ſilence grew wit, his *bluntneſs* integrity, his beaſtly ignorance, virtuous ſimplicity. *Sidney.*—Manage diſputes with civility; whence ſome readers will be aſſiſted to diſcern a difference betwixt *bluntneſs* of ſpeech and ſtrength of reaſon. *Boyle.*—

Falſe friends, his deadlieſt foes, could find no way,
But ſhows of honeſt *bluntneſs* to betray. *Dryd.*

BLUNTSHAM, a village in Huntingdonſhire, S. of Erith.

* BLUNTWITTED. *adj.* [from *blunt* and *wit.*] Dull; ſtupid.—

Bluntwitted lord, ignoble in demeanour.
Shakeſpeare.

* BLUR. *n. ſ.* [*borra*, Span. a blot, *Skinner.*] A blot; a ſtain; a ſpot.—Man, once fallen, was nothing but a great *blur*; a total univerſal pollution. *South.*

* *To* BLUR. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To blot; to obſcure; without quite effacing.—

Such an act,
That *blurs* the grace and bluſh of modeſty. *Shak.*

2. To blot; to ſtain; to ſully.—

Saracaſm's may eclipſe thine own,
But cannot *blur* my loſt renown. *Hudibras.*

BLURHITCH, a diſtrict in Dumbartonſhire.

* *To* BLURT. *v. a.* without etymology.] To ſpeak inadvertantly; to let fly without thinking; commonly with *out* intenſive.—Others caſt out bloody and deadly ſpeeches at random, and cannot hold, but *blurt out* thoſe words, which afterwards they are forced to eat. *Hakewill.*—They had ſome belief of a Deity, which they, upon ſurprizal, thus *blurt out. Gov. of the Tongue.*—

They bluſh if they *blurt out*, ere well aware,
A ſwan is white, or Queenſbury is fair. *Young.*

BLURTON, a village in Staffordſhire, 2 miles SE. of Newcaſtle under Lyne.

(1.) * BLUSH. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. The colour in the cheeks, raiſed by ſhame or confuſion.—

The virgin's wiſh, without her fears, impart,
Excuſe the *bluſh*, and pour out all the heart.
Pope.

2. A red or purple colour. 3. Sudden appearance; a ſignification that ſeems barbarous, yet uſed by good writers.—All purely identical propoſitions, obviouſly, and at firſt *bluſh*, appear to contain no certain inſtruction in them. *Locke.*

(2.) BLUSH OF A BUSINESS, is one of the many bombaſtic metaphors, which modern affectation has of late introduced into the Engliſh language. The late Prof. BEATTIE has juſtly expoſed this, along with many ſimilar faſhionable innovations, in his humorous dialogue between Dean Swift, a London bookſeller, and Mercury. After introducing the bookſeller as "ſpeaking Engliſh *of the very neweſt and beſt pattern*," he makes the Dean apply to Mercury "to interpret ſome of this learned perſon's gibberiſh:"—whereupon the god among other directions "to make Engliſh *as well nearly* as this learned bookſeller," tells him,—"Always when you can, prefer *figurative* to *proper* expreſſion, and be not nice in the *choice* of your figures, nor give yourſelf much trouble about their *conſiſtency*."—Thus "inſtead of—He ſpoke an hour on various topicks, you muſt ſay, *He was an hour upon his legs, and went into a variety of matter:* an idiom which is now very common and much admired, becauſe it is *figurative, verboſe*, and *ambiguous*; three qualities of ſtyle, which are now, among faſhionable writers and ſpeakers, indiſpenſable. Inſtead of—He undervalues his enemies, ſay, *He ſets no ſtore by thoſe who are inimical to him.*—Inſtead of—At firſt view, you muſt ſay, *At the firſt Bluſh of the buſineſs*," &c.

(1.) * *To* BLUSH. *v. a.* To make red. Not uſed.—

Pale and bloodleſs,
Being all deſcended to the lab'ring heart,
Which with the heart there cools, and ne'er returneth
To *bluſh* and beautify the cheek again. *Shakeſ.*

(2.) * *To* BLUSH. *v. n.* [*bloſen*, Dutch.] 1. To betray ſhame or confuſion, by a red colour on the cheek or forehead.—

I have

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I have mark'd
A thouſand *bluſhing* apparitions
To ſtart into her face; a thouſand innocent ſhames,
In angel whiteneſs, bear away theſe *bluſhes*.
Shakeſpeare.

—All theſe things are graceful in a friend's mouth, which are *bluſhing* in a man's own. *Bacon.*—Shame cauſeth *bluſhing*; *bluſhing* is the reſort of the blood to the face; although *bluſhing* will be ſeen in the whole breaſt, yet that is but in paſſage to the face. *Bacon.*—

Bluſh then, but *bluſh* for your deſtructive ſilence,
That tears your ſoul. *Smith.*

2. To carry a red colour, or any ſoft and bright colour.—

To-day he puts forth
The tender leaves of hope; to-morrow bloſſoms,
And bears his *bluſhing* honours thick upon him.
Shakeſpeare.

3. It has *at* before the cauſe of ſhame.—

He whin'd, and roar'd away your victory,
That pages *bluſh'd at* him; and men of heart
Look'd wond'ring at each other. *Shakeſpeare.*

—You have not yet loſt all your natural modeſty, but *bluſh at* your vices. *Calamy's Sermons.*

BLUSHING is generally excited by a ſenſe of ſhame, from conſciouſneſs of ſome failing or imperfection. It is ſuppoſed to be produced from a ſympathy between ſeveral parts of the body, occaſioned by the ſame nerve being extended to them all. Thus the 5th pair of nerves being branched from the brain to the eye, ear, muſcles of the lips, cheeks, palate, tongue, and noſe; a thing ſeen or heard that is ſhameful, affects the cheeks with bluſhes, driving the blood into their minute veſſels, at the inſtant that it affects the eye and ear. For the ſame reaſon, Mr Derham obſerves, a ſavoury thing ſeen or ſmelt affects the glands of the mouth: if a thing heard be droll, it affects the muſcles of the face with laughter; if melancholy, it exerts itſelf on the glands of the eyes, and occaſions weeping, &c. And to the ſame cauſe Dr Willis aſcribes the pleaſure of kiſſing.

* BLUSHY. *adj.* [from *bluſh*.] Having the colour of a bluſh.—Bloſſoms of trees, that are white, are commonly inodorate; thoſe of apples, crabs, peaches, are *bluſhy*, and ſmell ſweet. *Bacon.*—Stratonice entering, moved a *bluſhy* colour in his face; but deſerting him, he relapſed into paleneſs and languour. *Harvey on Conſumptions.*

* BLUSTER. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. Roar of ſtorms. Tempeſt.—

The ſkies look grimly,
And threaten preſent *bluſters*. *Shakeſpeare.*
To the winds they ſet
Their corners; when with *bluſter* to confound
Sea, air, and ſhore. *Milton.*

2. Noiſe; tumult.—

So, by the brazen trumpet's *bluſter*,
Troops of all tongues and nations muſter. *Swift.*

3. Turbulence: fury.—

Spare thy Athenian cradle, and thoſe kin,
Which in the *bluſter* of thy wrath muſt fall
With thoſe that have offended. *Shakeſpeare.*

4. Boaſt; boiſterouſneſs.—A coward makes a great deal more *bluſter* than a man of honour. *L'Eſtrange.*

* *To* BLUSTER. *v. n.* [ſuppoſed from *blaſt*.] 1. To roar as a ſtorm; to be violent and loud.—

Earth his uncouth mother was,
And *bluſt'ring* Æolus his boaſted ſire. *Spenſer.*
So now he ſtorms with many a ſturdy ſtoure;
So now his *bluſtring* blaſt each coaſt doth ſcour.
Spenſer.

2. To bully; to puff; to ſwagger; to be tumultuous.—My heart's too big to bear this, ſays a *bluſtering* fellow; I'll deſtroy myſelf. Sir, ſays the gentleman, here's a dagger at your ſervice: ſo the humour went off. *L'Eſtrange.*—Either he muſt ſink to a downright confeſſion, or muſt huff and *bluſter*, till perhaps he raiſe a counter-ſtorm. *Gov. Tongue.*—Virgil had the majeſty of a lawful prince, and Statius only the *bluſtering* of a tyrant. *Dryd.*—

There let him reign the jailor of the wind;
With hoarſe commands his breathing ſubjects call,
And boaſt and *bluſter* in his empty hall. *Dryd.*

* BLUSTERER. *n. ſ.* [from *bluſter*.] A ſwaggerer; a bully; a tumultuous noiſy fellow.

* BLUSTROUS. *adj.* [from *bluſter*.] Tumultuous; noiſy.—

The ancient heroes were illuſtrious
For being benign, and not *bluſtrous*. *Hudibras.*

To BLYN. *v. n. obſ.* To eaſe.

To BLYNCH, *v. n. obſ.* To keep off: to look aſquint. *Chauc.*

BLYSOOG, a river of Pembrokeſhire.

BLYSWORTH, a village between Northampton and Towceſter.

BLYSYNGE, *adj. obſ.* Blazing. *Chauc.*

BLYTHBOROUGH. See BLITHBOROUGH.

BLYTH, a ſea port town of Northumberland, which has obtained a ſtate of conſequence ſince the reformation: previous to that period, there were ſcarcely any houſes in it. In 1728 its trade had ſo much increaſed that above 200 veſſels cleared from its port, that year, and it has been increaſing rapidly ſince; it is conſidered merely as a creek, when compared with Newcaſtle, and though it is no more in compariſon, and only poſſeſſes 183 houſes, and 1170 inhabitants, yet it has the advantage of a cuſtom houſe, which is denied to North Shields and South Shields, each of which contain more than 15,000 inhabitants! ſee theſe articles. Blyth is 14 miles NE. of Newcaſtle, and 288 N. of London: it has a ſmall market on Saturdays. About 4 miles S. of this is Seaton Delaval; for an account of which, and its curious dock, ſee SEATON SLUICE."

BLYTHE, the name of 3 rivers. See BLITH, § 3—5.

BLYVE, *adv. obſ.* Immediately. *Chauc.*

* BMI. *n. ſ.* A note in muſick.—

Gamut I am, the ground of all accord,
Bmi, Bianca, take him for thy lord. *Shakeſp.*

BMOLLARRE, } *n. ſ.* in muſic, ſignifies B flat,
BMOLLE, } or B ſoft.

BNIZOMENÆ, an ancient tribe of Arabs. See ARABIA, § 5.

* BO. *interj.* A word of terrour; from *Bo*, an old northern captain, of ſuch fame, that his name was uſed to terrify the enemy. *Temple.*

(I.) BOA, in ancient geography, or BOAE-ARUM, an iſland on the coaſt of Illyricum, over-againſt Tragurium: A place of baniſhment for condemned

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ed perſons; now called *Bua*, an iſland in the Adriatic, joined to the continent and to Tragurium, now *Tran*, by a bridge.

(II.) BOA, in zoology, a genus of ſerpents belonging to the order of amphibia. Mr Chambers ſays, the name is derived from ſome of the ſpecies following cows and ſucking their teats. The characters are, that the belly and tail are both furniſhed with ſcuta. Their bite is not poiſonous. See SERPENT. There are 10 ſpecies, *viz.*

1. BOA CANINA, has 203 ſcuta on the belly, and 77 on the tail; it is greeniſh, and variegated with white belts. It is a native of America, lodges in the hollow trunk of trees, and is about two feet long.

2. BOA CENCHRIA, has 263 ſcuta on the belly, and 57 on the tail. It is of a yellow colour, with white eye-like ſpots. It is a native of Surinam.

3. BOA CONSTRICTOR, has 240 ſcuta on the belly, and 60 on the tail. This is an immenſe animal: it often exceeds 36 feet in length; the body is very thick, of a duſky white colour, and its back is interſperſed with 24 large pale irregular ſpots: the tail is of a darker colour: and the ſides are beautifully variegated with pale ſpots. Beſides the whole body interſperſed with ſmall brown ſpots. See Pl. XLI. fig. 9. The head is covered with ſmall ſcales, and has no broad laminæ betwixt the eyes, but has a black belt behind them. It wants the large dog fangs. The tongue is fleſhy, and very little forked. Above the eyes, on each ſide, the head riſes high. The ſcales of this ſerpent are all very ſmall, roundiſh and ſmooth. The tail does not exceed one 8th of the whole length of the animal. The Indians, who adore this monſtrous animal, uſe the ſkin for cloaths, on account of its ſmoothneſs and beauty. There are ſeveral of theſe ſkins of the above dimenſions preſerved, and to be ſeen in the different muſeums of Europe, particularly in the library and botanic garden of Upſal in Sweden, which has of late been greatly enriched by count Grillinborg. The fleſh of this ſerpent is eat by the Indians and the negroes of Africa. Piſo, Margraave, and Kempfer, give the following account of its method of living and catching its prey. It frequents caves and thick foreſts, where it conceals itſelf, and ſuddenly darts out upon ſtrangers, wild beaſts, &c. When it chooſes a tree for its watching place, it ſupports itſelf by twiſting its tail round the trunk or a branch, and darts down upon ſheep, goats, tigers, or any animal that comes within its reach. When it lays hold of animals, eſpecially any of the larger kinds, it twiſts itſelf ſeveral times round their body, and by the vaſt force of its circular muſcles bruiſes and breaks all their bones. After the bones are broke, it licks the ſkin of the animal all over, beſmearing it with a glutinous kind of ſaliva. This operation is intended to facilitate deglutition, and is a preparation for ſwallowing the whole animal. If it be a ſtag, or any horned animal, it begins to ſwallow the feet firſt, and gradually ſucks in the body, and laſt of all the head. When the horns happen to be large, it has been obſerved to go about for a long time with them ſticking out from its mouth. As the animal digeſts, the horns putrify and fall off. After this ſerpent has ſwallowed a ſtag or a tiger, it is unable for ſome days to move; the hunters who are well acquainted with this circumſtance, always take this opportunity of deſtroying it. When irritated, it makes a loud hiſſing noiſe. It is ſaid to cover itſelf over with leaves in ſuch places as ſtags or other animals frequent, in order to conceal itſelf from their ſight, and that it may the more eaſily lay hold of them. One of them, which was killed in the reign of Claudius, was found with a child whole in its belly.

4. BOA CONTORTRIX, has 150 ſcuta on the belly, and 40 on the tail: the head is broad, very convex, and has poiſon bags in the mouth but no fang, for which reaſon its bite is not reckoned poiſonous: the body is aſh-coloured, interſperſed with large duſky ſpots; and the tail is about one 3d of the length of the body. This ſerpent is found in Carolina.

5. BOA ENYDRIS, has 270 ſcuta on the belly, and 105 on the tail. The colour is a duſky white, and the teeth of the lower jaw very long. It is a native of America.

6. BOA HIPNALE is of a dull yellow colour, and is found in Aſia. It has 179 ſcuta on the belly, and 120 on the tail.

7. BOA HORTULANA, has 290 ſcuta on the belly, and 128 on the tail. It is of a pale colour, interſperſed with livid wedge-like ſpots. It is a native of America.

8. BOA MURINA, has 254 ſcuta on the belly, and 65 on the tail. The colour of it is a light blue, and round ſpots on the back. It is a native of America.

9. BOA OPHRIAS, has 281 ſcuta on the belly, and 64 on the tail; the colour is nearly the ſame with that of the conſtrictor, (N° 3.) but browner. The place where this ſerpent is to be found is not known.

10. BOA SCYTALE has 250 ſcuta on the belly, and 70 on the tail. The body is aſh-coloured and bluiſh, with round black ſpots on the back, and black lateral rings edged with white. It is a native of America; and, like the conſtrictor, (N° 3.) though not ſo long, twiſts itſelf about ſheep, goats, &c. and ſwallows them whole.

BOADADA BASHAW, in the Turkiſh military orders, an officer of the janizaries, whoſe buſineſs it is to walk every day about the principal parts of the city, with a number of janizaries, to keep order, and to ſee that all things are regular, even to the dreſs. This office is for 3 months, and from this the perſon is uſually advanced to be a ſerach.

BOADICEA, or VOADICEA, a valiant Britiſh queen in the time of Nero the emperor, wife to Praſutagus king of the Iceni in Britain, who by his will left the emperor and his own daughters, co-heirs to his great treaſures, in expectation of procuring by that means Nero's protection for his family and people: but he was no ſooner dead, than the emperor's officers ſeized all. Boadicea oppoſed theſe unjuſt proceedings; which was reſented to ſuch a pitch of brutality, that they ordered the lady to be publickly whipped, and her daughters to be raviſhed by the ſoldiers. The Britons took arms, to the number of 120,000, with Boadicea at their head, to ſhake off the Roman yoke; and made a general and bloody maſſacre of about 80,000

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Fig. 6. BLOCK of the IRON BRIDGE. SUNDERLAND.

Fig. 2. Buphaga Africana. African Beef eater.

Fig. 1. Buceros the Red Hornbill.

Fig. 4. BALISTES VETULA, the Old Wife.

Fig. 5. Bradypus Didactylus the Two toed Sloth.

Fig. 3. BALISTES MONOCEROS the Unicorn Fish.

Fig. 8. Byrrhus.

Fig. 7. Bruchus.

Fig. 10. BALAENA Mysticetus the Whale.

Fig. 9. BOA CONSTRICTOR.

Engraved for Encyclopaedia Perthensis.

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80,000 Romans. The whole province of Britain would have been loſt, if Suetonius Paulinus had not haſtened from the iſle of Mona to London, and with 10,000 men engaged the Britons. The battle was fought for a long time with great vigour and doubtful ſucceſs, till at laſt victory inclined to the Romans. Boadicea, who had behaved with all the bravery imaginable, diſpatched herſelf by poiſon, A. D. 61.

BOAE-ARUM. See Boa, N° I.

BOANERGES, [from בני and רעש, Syr. *i. e.* ſons of thunder,] a title given by our Saviour to the apoſtles James and John.

(1.) * BOAR. *n. ſ.* [*bar*, Saxon; *beer*, Dutch.] The male ſwine.—

To fly the *boar*, before the *boar* purſues,
Were to incenſe the *boar* to follow us. *Shakeſ.*
She ſped the *boar* away;
His eyeballs glare with fire, diffus'd with blood;
His neck ſhuts up a thickeſt thorny wood;
His briſtled back a trench impal'd appears.
Dryden.

(2.) Boar. See Sus.

(3.) Boar, WILD, among huntſmen, has ſeveral names, according to its different ages: the firſt year, it is called *a pig of the ſaunder*; the ſecond it is called *a bog*; the third, *a bog-ſteer*; and the fourth, *a boar*; when leaving the ſaunder, he is called a *ſingler* or *ſangler*. The boar generally lives to 25 or 30 years, if he eſcapes accidents. The time of rutting is in December, and laſts about 3 weeks. Boars feed on all ſorts of fruits, and on the roots of many plants, particularly fern. When near the ſea-coaſts, they will deſcend to the ſhores and demoliſh the tenderer ſhell-fiſh in very great numbers. Their general places of reſt are among the thickeſt buſhes that can be found: and they are not eaſily put up out of them, but will ſtand the bay a long time. In April and May they ſleep more ſound, than at any other time of the year. This is therefore the ſucceſsful time for taking them in the toils. When a boar is rouzed out of the thicket, he always goes from it, if poſſible, the ſame way by which he came to it; and when he is once up, he will never ſtop till he comes to ſome place of more ſecurity. If it happens that a ſaunder of them are found together, when any one breaks away, the reſt all follow the ſame way. When the boar is hunted in the wood where he was bred, he will ſcarce ever be brought to quit it; he will ſometimes make towards the ſides to liſten to the noiſe of the dogs, but retires into the middle again, and uſually dies or eſcapes there. When a boar runs a head, he will not be ſtopped or put out of his way, by man or beaſt, ſo long as he has any ſtrength left. He makes no doubles nor croſſings when chaſed. An old boar when killed makes no noiſe; the ſows and pigs ſqueak when wounded. The ſeaſon for hunting the wild boar begins in September, and ends in December, when they go to rut. If it be a large boar, and one that has lain long at reſt, he muſt be hunted with a great number of dogs, and thoſe ſuch as will keep cloſe to him; and the huntſman, with his ſpear, ſhould always be riding in among them, and charging the boar as often as he can, to diſcourage him: ſuch a boar as this, with 5 or 6 couples of dogs, will run to the firſt place of ſhelter, and there ſtand at bay, and make at them as they attempt to come up with him. There ought always to be relays alſo ſet of the beſt and ſtauncheſt hounds in the kennel; for if they are of young eager dogs, they will be apt to ſeize him, and be killed or ſpoiled before the reſt come up. Collars with bells about the dogs necks are a great ſecurity for them; for the boar will not ſo ſoon ſtrike at them when they have theſe, but will rather run before them. The huntſmen generally kill the boar with their ſwords or ſpears: but great caution is neceſſary in making the blows; for he is very apt to catch them upon his ſnout or tuſks; and if wounded and not killed, he will attack the huntſman in the moſt furious manner. The places to give the wound with the ſpear is either between the eyes in the middle of the forehead, or in the ſhoulder; both theſe places make the wound mortal. When this animal makes at the hunter, there is nothing for it but courage and addreſs; if he flies, he is ſure to be overtaken and killed. If the boar comes ſtraight up, he is to be received at the point of the ſpear: but if he makes doubles and windings, he is to be watched very cautiouſly, for he will attempt getting hold of the ſpear in his mouth; and if he does, nothing can ſave the huntſman, but another perſon attacking him behind; he will on this attack the ſecond perſon, and the firſt muſt then attack him again: two people will thus have enough to do with him; and were it not for the forks of the boar-ſpears that make it impoſſible to preſs forward upon them, the huntſman who gives the creature his death's wound would ſeldom eſcape falling a ſacrifice to his revenge. The modern way of boar-hunting is generally to diſpatch the creature by all the huntſmen ſtriking him at once: but the ancient Roman way was, for a perſon on foot, armed with a ſpear, to keep the creature at bay; and in this caſe the boar would run of himſelf upon the ſpear to come at the huntſman, and puſh forward till the ſpear pierced him through. The hinder claws of a boar are called *guards*. In the corn, he is ſaid to *feed*; in the meadows or fallow-fields, to *rout*, *worm*, or *fern*; in a cloſe, to *graze*. The boar is farrowed with as many teeth as he will ever have: his teeth increaſing only in bigneſs, not in number: among theſe there are 4 called *tuſhes*, or *tuſks*; the two higheſt of which do not hurt when he ſtrikes, but ſerve only to whet the other two loweſt, with which the beaſt defends himſelf, and frequently kills, as being greater and longer than the reſt. Theſe creatures in the Weſt Indies are ſubject to the ſtone: few of them are abſolutely free from it, yet ſcarce any of them have the ſtones of any conſiderable ſize. It is common to find a great number in the ſame bladder. They are uſually of about a ſcruple weight, and are angular and regular, each having 5 angles. Among the Romans, boar's fleſh was a delicacy; one has been ſometimes ſerved up whole, as a diſh of ſtate. The boar was ſometimes the military enſign of the Roman armies, in lieu of the eagle. Among phyſicians, a boar's bladder has been reputed a ſpecific for the epilepſy. The tuſh of the wild boar ſtill paſſes with ſome as of great efficacy in quinzies and pleuriſies.

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To BOAR, in the menage, is ſpoke of a horſe when he ſhoots out his noſe as high as his ears, and toſſes his noſe in the wind.

(I.) * BOARD. *n. ſ.* [*baurd*, Goth. *bræd*, Sax.] 1. A piece of wood of more length and breadth than thickneſs.—With the ſaw they ſundred trees in *boards* and planks. *Raleigh.*—Every houſe has a *board* over the door, whereon is written the number, ſex, and quality of the perſons living in it. *Temple.*—

Go now, go truſt the wind's uncertain breath,
Remov'd four fingers from approaching death;
Or ſeven at moſt, when thickeſt is the *board*.
Dryden.

2. A table. [from *burdd*, Welch.]—

Soon after which, three hundred lords he ſlew,
Of Britiſh blood, all ſitting at his *board*. *Fair. Q.*
In bed he ſlept not, for my urging it;
At *board* he fed not, for my urging it. *Shak.*
I'll follow thee in fun'ral flames; when dead,
My ghoſt ſhall thee attend at *board* and bed.
Sir J. Denham.

—Cleopatra made Anthony a ſupper, which was ſumptuous and royal; howbeit there was no extraordinary ſervice upon the *board*. *Hakewill.*—

May ev'ry god his friendly aid afford;
Pan guard thy flock, and Ceres bleſs thy *board*.
Prior.

3. Entertainment; food. 4. A table at which a council or court is held.—Both better acquainted with affairs, than any other who ſat then at that *board*. *Clarendon.* 5. An aſſembly ſeated at a table; a court of juriſdiction.—I wiſh the king would be pleaſed ſometimes to be preſent at that *board*; it adds a majeſty to it. *Bacon.* 6. The deck or floor of a ſhip; *on board* ſignifies in a ſhip.

Now *board* to *board* the rival veſſels row,
The billows leave the ſkies, and ocean groans below.
Dryden.

—Our captain thought his ſhip in ſo great danger, that he confeſſed himſelf to a capuchin, who was *on board*. *Addiſon.*—He ordered his men to arm long poles with ſharp hooks, wherewith they took hold of the tackling, which held the mainyard to the maſt of their enemy's ſhip; then, rowing their own ſhip, they cut the tackling, and brought the mainyard by the *board*. *Arbuthnot on Coins.*

(II.) BOARD, [*Bureau*,] a public office, where accounts are taken, payments ordered, and the like; ſuch as the board of works, board of ordnance, board of treaſury, &c.

(III.) BOARD, in architecture and commerce, a long piece of timber, ſawed thin for building and ſeveral other purpoſes. See TIMBER. Deal boards are generally imported into England, ready ſawed, becauſe done cheaper, as we want ſaw-mills. *Clapboards* are imported from Sweden and Dantzic; oak boards chiefly from Sweden and Holland; ſome from Dantzic. We alſo import white boards for ſhoemakers; mill and ſcale boards, &c. for divers artificers. Scale boards are a thinner ſort, uſed for the covers of primers, thin boxes, &c. and are made with large planes.

(IV.) BOARD, in gaming, is applied to a machine, or frame, uſed in certain games, as a draught-board, a cheſs-board, &c.

(V.) BOARD, in mechanic arts, a table or bench, whereon artificers perform their work; ſuch as a work-board, ſhop board, taylor's board, &c.

(VI.) BOARD, in the language of ſeamen, admits of various ſignifications, according to the words conjoined with it. Thus

1. BOARD, A GOOD. A ſhip is ſaid to *make* a good board, when ſhe gets up much to windward, or advances much at one tack and ſails upon a ſtraight line.

2. BOARD, A LONG, is when the ſhip ſtands a great way off, before ſhe tacks.

3. BOARD AND BOARD is when two ſhips come ſo near as to touch one another, or when they lie ſide by ſide.

4. BOARD, A SHORT, is when ſhe ſtands off a little.

5. BOARD, BACK, the ſame with ASTERN.

6. *To* BOARD IT UP, is to beat it up, ſometimes upon one tack and ſometimes upon another.

7. BOARD, TO GO ON, OR TO GO ABOARD, ſignifies to go into the ſhip.

8. BOARD, TO MAKE A, is to turn to windward; and the longer your boards are, the more you work into the wind.

9. BOARD, TO SLIP OF THE, is to ſlip down by the ſhip's ſide.

10. BOARD, WEATHER, the windward ſide.

(VII. 1.) BOARD OF AGRICULTURE, a public-ſpirited Society, eſtabliſhed by act of Parliament, 17th May 1793, and conſtituted by royal charter, 23d Auguſt following, for the encouragement of Agriculture and Internal Improvement. See § 2-7.

(2.) BOARD OF AGRICULTURE, ACCOUNT OF THE ORIGIN OF THE. "The circumſtances" (ſays Sir J. Sinclair, the preſident and founder of this excellent inſtitution,) "which led to the eſtabliſhment of a board, ſo likely to be of material ſervice both to this county, and to ſociety at large, cannot fail to be intereſting, not only to the Members of that board, but to the Public."—In enumerating theſe, Sir John mentions, that, "in 1786, he undertook an extenſive journey through the moſt intereſting parts of Europe, to obtain political information, to aſcertain the ſtate of other countries, and to diſcover every mean, which had been ſanctioned by the experience of other nations, that could be ſucceſsfully introduced for the improvement of Great Britain:" that "in the courſe of that tour," (wherein he travelled 7500 miles in 7½ months,) he became acquainted with the moſt diſtinguiſhed authors, the ableſt ſtateſmen, and the moſt zealous patriots, that Europe could then boaſt of:" and that he "returned full of ardour, to eſtabliſh, in his own country, all the beneficial inſtitutions, which were ſcattered over others; and to make this iſland the centre of the various improvements of which political ſociety was capable, more eſpecially thoſe of an agricultural nature. But that circumſtances having occaſioned a coldneſs with the miniſter, he found that any attempt, to carry ſuch meaſures into effect, was not likely to be ſucceſsful in parliament, and thence was under the neceſſity of waiting for a more favourable opportunity." Sir John next informs us, that when he publiſhed the 2d vol. of his Hiſtory of the Revenue, he "had intended to have concluded it with a chapter on the political circum-

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circumſtances of the country; but after taking all poſſible pains to become maſter of the ſubject; all the information he could obtain was extremely defective; and he then ſaw the neceſſity of forming ſome inſtitution, for the expreſs purpoſe of collecting uſeful political information, the public having felt the moſt ſerious inconveniences and loſſes, from information of that nature not being any where to be obtained." This ſuggeſted the idea of "beginning that uſeful and extenſive work, *the Statiſtical Account of Scotland*, which is now concluded in 21 vols. 8vo. and to the completion of which 900 individuals of intelligence and ability have contributed their aſſiſtance." About the ſame time, Sir John having received information reſpecting the celebrated wool of the Shetlands iſles, and of the dangers to which their flocks were expoſed, he was led, not only to lay a ſtate of theſe facts before the Highland Society, who gave every aſſiſtance in their power, but to get a new ſociety erected, entitled the BRITISH WOOL SOCIETY, for the ſpecial purpoſe of improving Britiſh wool. The buſineſs of that Society was carried on with ſuch energy and ſucceſs, that in ſummer 1792, "the greater part of this iſland had been ſurveyed, by perſons ſkilled in the management of ſheep, whoſe obſervations were circulated over the kingdom." It was in the preface to an account publiſhed by that Society of one of theſe tours, that Sir John firſt hinted at the eſtabliſhment of a Board of Agriculture. After ſtating that "they had eſtabliſhed many important facts; that they had proved that the fineſt breeds of Spain or of England will thrive in the wildeſt of the Cheviot hills, and that very fine woollen breeds may be propagated in the moſt mountainous diſtricts of Scotland:" he added, "But unleſs this object is thought worthy of public attention and encouragement; *unleſs a* BOARD OF AGRICULTURE *is conſtituted*, for the ſole purpoſe of ſuperintending the improvements of the ſheep and wool of the country and other objects connected, either with the cultivation or paſturage of the ſoil, the exertions of any private ſociety muſt ſoon ſlacken, and its labours become uſeleſs and inefficient; whereas, under the protection of the government of the country, and the ſuperintendance of ſuch a board, properly conſtituted, (more eſpecially if formed of perſons, who *gratuitouſly* devoted their ſervices to promote ſuch valuable and truly national intereſts,) every field would ſoon be cultivated to the beſt advantage, and every ſpecies of ſtock would ſoon be brought to their greateſt poſſible perfection." Impreſſed with theſe ideas, Sir John went up to London in December 1792, reſolved without farther delay to attempt the eſtabliſhment of ſuch a Board, although he ſays, "being at the time, in oppoſition to the miniſter, the proſpect of ſucceeding was not very promiſing." See § 5.

(3.) BOARD OF AGRICULTURE, ADVANTAGES OF THE. On the 15th May 1793, Sir John Sinclair made his motion in parliament for the eſtabliſhment of this Board; which he introduced with a ſuitable ſpeech, ſetting forth the great advantages that would ariſe from ſuch an inſtitution. "We had heard much (he ſaid) of other ſources of national proſperity, but we ſeem to forget that no nation could be permanently happy and powerful, that did not unite a judicious ſyſtem of agriculture to the advantages of domeſtic manufacturing induſtry, and the benefits of foreign commerce." "It is ſuppoſed, that there are 67 millions of acres in Britain, of which 7 millions are occupied with houſes, roads, rivers, lakes, &c. There remained 60 millions, of which 5 millions only were employed in raiſing grain; 25 millions were appropriated to paſturage, and there remained 30 millions either completely waſte, or under a very defective ſyſtem of huſbandry. That was an object of aſtoniſhing importance. Diſgraceful indeed it was, that nearly one half of the kingdom, which might furniſh ſubſiſtence to above 10 millions of people, ſhould remain in ſuch a ſtate." He then pointed out the advantages that would ariſe from the propoſed eſtabliſhment. "The ſtock of the farmer might be rendered infinitely more valuable, without requiring a greater quantity of food, or any additional care or expence." The additional value of black cattle, of which it is ſuppoſed there are 5 millions in the iſland, he eſtimated, at 20s. a head, would add 5 millions per annum to the national wealth. There are at leaſt 20 millions of ſheep in Britain. By improving the fleece, 1s. per ſheep might be added to the value of the wool, which would produce one million: the manufacturer of the wool can treble the value; hence an addition of other 5 millions per annum; and the profits ariſing from improving the carcaſe would be ſtill more conſiderable. "Great improvements might alſo be made in other kinds of ſtock. Great ſavings would ariſe by the uſe of improved inſtruments of huſbandry, while by following judicious ſyſtems adapted to the different ſoils, ground would be cultivated at much leſs expence and with greater advantage. Theſe improvements would furniſh the means of healthful occupations to many thouſands, almoſt millions of people, who, from the integrity of their private conduct, and the vigour of their conſtitutions, ſhould as much as poſſible be multiplied." To ſecure theſe advantages, a Board of Agricultue was abſolutely neceſſary, 1. As a general magazine for agricultural knowledge. 2. As the beſt means of collecting and circulating that knowledge, and exciting a ſpirit of experiment. 3. As the moſt certain method of eſtabliſhing an extenſive foreign correſpondence, to procure the moſt ſpeedy information of agricultural improvements and diſcoveries, in all quarters of the globe. 4. As a public body, capable of being entruſted with the privilege of franking, to render its correſpondence leſs expenſive. 5. As the only medium, through which any general improvement of ſtock could be expected, the authority and influence of a public board far ſurpaſſing the exertions of private ſocities, however active, in removing deep rooted prejudices, and concentrating the knowledge of many individuals of different profeſſions. And, 6. As the beſt means of obtaining a Statiſtical Account of England, and giving a view of the real ſituation of that country: ſuch as had already been nearly completed in Scotland, and which might ſoon be univerſally followed in other countries: "And thus the principles of political ſociety, and the ſources of national improvement, would be more completely aſcertained, than in any for-

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mer period of hiſtory." By way of contraſt to theſe advantages, Sir J. Sinclair argued, "That when perſons talked with raptures of the great wealth brought into this country by commerce, they did not conſider that the nation in many caſes loſt as much by neglecting agriculture, as they gained by commerce; of which a ſtronger inſtance could not be given than this—that in the northern parts of England, in the courſe of laſt harveſt (1792) grain to a very conſiderable amount, actually periſhed, for want of labourers to gather in the crop; all the hands in the neighbourhood being employed in manufactures." See farther § 5—7.

(4.) BOARD OF AGRICULTURE, CONSTITUTION OF THE. Without attempting to enumerate the privileges and powers granted by the royal charter, it is only neceſſary to mention here, that by that deed, the Board is appointed to conſiſt of a Preſident, Treaſurer, Secretary, Under-Secretary, two or more ſurveyors, one or more clerks, with ſuch other officers as may be neceſſary, and 30 ordinary members: beſides the Abps. of Canterbury and York, the Lord Chancellor, or Lord keeper of the Great Seal, Lord Preſident, Lord Privy Seal, Lord Treaſurer, or firſt Commiſſioner of the Treaſury, Lord High Admiral, or firſt Lord Commiſſioner of the Admiralty, the Bps. of London and Durham, the two Secretaries of State, the Maſter of Ordnance, the Speaker of the Houſe of Commons, the Preſident of the Royal Society, the Surveyor General of Woods and Foreſts, and the Surveyor of the Crown Lands, for the time being; who are all members *ex officiis*. The annual election of Officers and Members takes place on the 25th of March, when 5 of the ordinary members go out, and 5 others are choſen. At all meetings of the Board 7 is a quorum for doing buſineſs, the preſident or the deputy being always one. The number of honorary members is unlimited.

(5.) BOARD OF AGRICULTURE, HISTORY OF THE. From the circumſtances above-mentioned (§ 2.), Sir J. Sinclair's friends had ſo little hopes of his ſucceſs in getting the Board eſtabliſhed, that Mr Arthur Young, afterwards appointed Secretary to the Board, betted a copy of his *Annals of Agriculture*, againſt a ſet of Sir John's *Statiſtical Account*, that he would not ſucceed. And when he afterwards informed him, that he had an appointment with Mr Pitt to explain the advantages of the meaſure, and that he ought to ſend his Annals to the binder, Mr Young wrote him—"When you come from Mr Pitt I ſhall have won the wager. Pray don't give Miniſters more credit than they deſerve. In Manufactures and Commerce, you may bet ſecurely, but they *never did, and never will* do any thing for the Plough. Your Board will be *a Board in the Moon*." Sir John, however, took every prudent meaſure to inſure ſucceſs. Mr Dundas early promiſed his aſſiſtance, notwithſtanding their political differences; and Mr Pitt aſſured him, "that he would not oppoſe the meaſure, but that his ſupport would depend on what he judged was the ſenſe of the houſe." To ſatisfy the houſe of the beneficial tendency of ſuch a meaſure, Sir John, previous to his motion in parliament, (See § 3.) circulated a printed paper among the members, containing a plan of the Board, its objects, advantages, (§ 3.) and probable expences. Still, however, a few members, ſuſpecting ſome deep ſcheme of corruption or miniſterial influence to be at the bottom, oppoſed it vehemently; notwithſtanding which it was carried by a majority of 75; 101 voting for it and 26 againſt it. Mr Sheridan and others, who then oppoſed it, have ſince very handſomely expreſſed their conviction of the utility of the meaſure, and their wiſhes for its ſucceſs. But although the Board was eſtabliſhed by Act of Parliament, on the 17th May 1793, and L.3000 per annum voted for its ſupport, the charter (§ 4) was not drawn up and ultimately ſanctioned by the Great Seal, till the 23d of Auguſt, although the high fees paid for it, which amounted to no leſs than L.1189:12:2, might, one would think, have expedited the buſineſs more quickly. The Board, of conſequence, could not be aſſembled till the 4th of Sept. and the regular meetings did not commence till Jan. 23. 1794. One of the firſt objects of the attention of the Board was to collect materials for a Statiſtical Account of England. Accordingly ſpecimens of parochial reports were printed, with a view of rouſing the clergy of the church of England to exertions ſimilar to thoſe of their brethren in Scotland. But it was afterwards thought proper, on various accounts, to prefer *general* to *particular* inquiries, and to procure *county* inſtead of *parochial* reports. Accordingly ſurveys have been made within theſe 3 years, and reports printed of the State of Agriculture, in all the counties of the United kingdoms: and many of the gentlemen employed, having executed their taſks gratis, the charge of collecting this maſs of information, and ſurveying the whole Iſland, has not exceeded the inconſiderable ſum of L.2170. The expences of printing the reports, however, being great, ſubſcriptions of 10 guineas have been procured from thoſe who wiſhed for copies of reports.—As a ſpecimen of the expedition with which the buſineſs of the board has been carried on, it is worth mentioning, that no fewer than 74 of theſe reports were given in, and either printed or in the preſs, within little more than 6 months after its 2d meeting; that during the firſt Seſſion above 80,000 papers had been printed and circulated, of which above 100 had been returned with valuable hints and obſervations wrote in the margins, before the 29th July 1794: and that by the end of the 2d Seſſion, the ſurvey of the whole kingdom had been nearly completed, and the reprinting of ſome of the reports had actually commenced. Such a quantity of important buſineſs, begun and executed within ſo ſhort a period, we are perſuaded is not to be found parallelled in the annals of any public ſociety. Nor were theſe the only exertions made by the Board within that period. Through their recommendation and influence extraordinary merit was rewarded, L. 1000 being granted by parliament, to Mr Joſeph Elkington, who had carried the art of draining land to a degree of perfection hitherto unknown; and the intereſts of a moſt uſeful claſs of the community, viz. the common labours, had been attended to, by introducing and paſſing the "act for the more effectual prevention of the uſe of defective weights, and falſe and unequal balances." And

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And there is every reaſon to believe, that in conſequence of the recommendations of the Board, in Jan. 1795, 50,000 additional acres were planted with potatoes, and a famine of conſequence prevented by thus providing 6 months proviſions for about a million of people. The crop of wheat however, in 1795, proving defective, the preſident recommended to the Board, an extra-cultivation of that neceſſary grain, in a letter which was ſent to all the members, and to the quarter ſeſſions of the counties, as well as inſerted in 50 different Newſpapers, in conſequence whereof a greater quantity of wheat was ſown, and, with the advantage of a favourable ſeaſon, a more productive and plentiful crop was reaped in Autumn 1796, than perhaps at any former period in the annals of Britiſh agriculture.

(6.) BOARD OF AGRICULTURE, OBJECTS OF THE. We ſhould ſwell this article beyond all bounds, were we to enumerate all the objects of this truly patriotic inſtitution. We ſhall, therefore, after giving the great outlines of inveſtigation, as ſtated by Sir J. Sinclair to the Board, in his "General View of the Inquiries eſſential for the internal improvement of the kingdom," only mention one or two important particulars, which are now objects of their attention. The former are thus ranked by the preſident. "I. The riches to be obtained from the ſurface of the national territory. II. The mineral or ſubterraneous treaſures of which the country is poſſeſſed. III. The wealth to be derived from its ſtreams, rivers, canals, inland navigations, coaſts and fiſheries: and IV. The means of promoting the improvement of the people in regard to their health, induſtry, and morals, founded on a ſtatiſtical ſurvey of every parochial diſtrict in the kingdom, and the circumſtances of its inhabitants. Under one or other of theſe heads, every point of real importance, that can tend to promote the general happineſs of a great nation, ſeems to be included" Amongſt the almoſt infinite variety of important objects, comprehended under theſe general heads, it muſt give pleaſure to every benevolent mind to find, that the melioration of the condition of the lower orders of the people occupies the attention of the Board, and that a committee has been already appointed upon "this important branch of duty." Three objects of attention have been pointed out on this ſubject: 1. To promote improvements in the conſtruction of cottages, and to aſcertain the means of leſſening the conſumption of fuel. 2. To recommend the annexing of a large garden to each cottage; and 3. To encourage the extenſion of Friendly Societies. Another important object, which by the exertions of the Board and their preſident, is now under the conſideration of parliament, is to procure an act for the incloſure and cultivation of the waſte lands in Great Britain: and thus to

——"Cut off thoſe legal bars,
"Which cruſh the culture of our fruitful iſle.
"Were they removed, unbounded wealth would
"flow:
"Our waſtes would then with varied produce
"ſmile.
"And England ſoon a ſecond Eden prove."

(See § 3.) In a word the great objects of the Board are to collect and condenſe every particle of information, that can be intereſting either to individuals or ſociety. It will then be eaſy for rulers to know (as Sir John obſerves) how the happineſs of the people they govern may be beſt ſecured, and ſchemes of public felicity realized.—"When the principles of improved huſbandry are once clearly aſcertained, and when by wiſe laws every obſtacle to improvement ſhall be removed, the farmer will be enabled to raiſe at leſs expence, a much greater quantity of proviſions, and conſequently will have it in his power to ſell them at a lower rate to the public. The people, having thus the neceſſaries of life cheaper, muſt be better ſatisfied with the government under which they live than they otherwiſe would be, and muſt have more money to lay out on ſuperfluities, the taxes on which are the principal ſources of the revenue. Hence both the peace of the country and the reſources of the State depend upon the progreſs of our agricultural improvements." "Theſe are objects, (as Gen. Waſhington juſtly obſerves, in his letter to Sir John,) truly worthy the attention of a great mind, and every friend to the human race muſt readily lend his aid towards their accompliſhment."

(7.) BOARD OF AGRICULTURE, PHILANTHROPIC PROSPECTS ARISING FROM THE SUCCESS OF THE. We cannot cloſe our account of this public-ſpirited inſtitution, without giving another quotation or two from the preſident's account of it (already ſo often cited); which breathe the true ſpirit of humanity and univerſal philanthropy. In his addreſs to the board, 24th May, 1796, Sir John obſerves, "that a ſingle additional acre, cultivated at home, is more truly valuable than the moſt extenſive poſſeſſions acquired abroad, at an enormous expence of treaſure and of blood, and retained with difficulty and danger." And in a former addreſs, on the 29th July, 1794, after ſtating that the probable addition to the national capital by the improvement of 22,351,000 acres of waſte lands would amount at 30 years purchaſe to L. 905,215,500; beſides L. 30,193,850 of additional national income; he allows an objection may be urged, that the improvement of theſe 22,351,000 acres at L. 4 per acre would occaſion an expence of L. 89,404,000. To this, after replying, that "in a national account this expence is no object;—that the public, inſtead of loſing, gains by the expenditure; and that the money thus laid out might have lain dormant; might have been waſted, or deſtined for the cultivation of diſtant territories, with all the riſk of being taken by an enemy;" &c. he adds—"That here it is impoſſible not to advert to the aſtoniſhing difference between ſpending 89 millions in improvements at home, or in foreign conqueſt. After the expenditure of that ſum in war, it would be accounted a moſt fortunate means of reimburſement, if we could ſecure any territory, by a commercial intercourſe with which, 5 million per annum could be gained; whilſt, at the ſame time, it would be neceſſary to pay at leaſt 5 millions of additional taxes. But if that money were laid out at home, or rather, if individuals were encouraged to expend a part of their wealth, in the internal improvement of the country, inſtead of new taxes being

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being neceſſary, the old ones would become lighter and more eaſily paid; and inſtead of dragging 5,000,000 per annum from an enormous diſtance, with much riſk and expence, 30 millions would be produced within our own domain, and always at our command" But the moſt philanthropic propoſal is that with which Sir J. Sinclair cloſes his Account of the Board. After ſtating that notwithſtanding the war, much uſeful information had been received from, and communicated to, foreign countries, by the Board, he propoſes a "*Plan of an agreement among the Powers of Europe and the United States of America, for rewarding Diſcoveries of general Benefit to Society.*" The general outlines are, "that each power ſhould agree to pay a ſum according to its revenue, for rewarding thoſe who make any uſeful diſcovery in rural œconomy, medicine, or the arts; and that ſuch diſcoveries ſhall be rapidly extended to the different countries; and brought to their ultimate ſtate of perfection. The attention of mankind being thus directed to ſuch objects, it is impoſſible to ſay, to what perfection the arts neceſſary for their comfort and ſuſtenance might be carried. The deſire for fame and emolument, and the emulation of many nations rivalling each other in ſuch arts would produce diſcoveries, the importance of which can hardly be eſtimated. And ſuch an undertaking might have the effect of rendering wars leſs frequent and ferocious." He concludes, "If the meaſures above hinted at were adopted, a new ſcene in politics might be the happy conſequence, and rulers of nations might in future boaſt,—not of their numerous fleets,—not of their gallant armies,—not of extended commerce,—of ſplendid or luxurious arts, or acquiſitions by intrigue or conqueſt,—*But of* THIS—*That within their reſpective dominions, a greater number of human beings enjoyed all the bleſſings of political ſociety, in greater perfection, than hitherto they had ever been enabled to attain, in any former period of hiſtory.*"

(VIII.) BOARD OF GREEN CLOTH, a court of juſtice held in the compting houſe of the king's houſehold, for taking cognizance of all matters of government within the king's court, and for correcting the ſervants that offended. It had alſo the authority of preſerving the peace for 12 miles round the king's court, wherever it ſhould be, excepting at London. The judge of this court was the Lord Steward who was aſſiſted by a Treaſurer, Comptroller, Coffierer, Clerks, &c. It took its name from a green cloth ſpread over the board where they ſat. It was aboliſhed in 1782.

(IX.) BOARD OF TRADE, [*bureau de commerce.*] an office in the French polity, eſtabliſhed in 1723, compoſed of eight perſons of undoubted knowledge in arts, commerce, navigation, and manufactures; it was their duty to inſpect plans of public advantage; to promote by liberal rewards the full, and complete diſcloſure of monopulations in the arts and manufactures; and thus to facilitate the circulation of uſeful facts, in every channel of induſtry. It is owing to the exertions of this board, and ſimilar inſtitutions in France, that their manufactures ſo ſoon received the aid of chemical inveſtigation, and conſequent improvement,—the operations of practical men were under the inſpection, and open to the examination of ſcientific enquirers; the effect was, that whilſt each was labouring to benefit himſelf, rewards for improvements, the liberal purchaſing of inventions or ſecrets, and the approbation of royalty itſelf, turned *private*, into a grand *national*, advantage. It is much to be lamented, that Sir John Sinclair had not proceeded with a plan ſimilar to this, as noticed in a former page, under Board of Agriculture. Perhaps leſs difficulty may be ſeen to attach to it, as it gets more public. See more on this head in the laſt ſection of the article ARTS.

(X.) BOARD OF TRADE AND PLANTATIONS was eſtabliſhed by K. William III. in 1696, for ſettling all diſputes and regulations relating to commerce and colonies. Before this time matters of commerce had been generally referred to a fluctuating committee of the privy council, the many inconveniences attending this mode of management induced king Charles II. to erect a ſpecial council of trade, in the year 1668, which was laid aſide a little after; it was renewed again, in 1672, but ſoon diſcontinued, and the former method of reference to the committees of the privy council, again revived. In the year firſt mentioned, a permanent board was eſtabliſhed, but finally aboliſhed, in 1780. This board, beſides miniſters of ſtate, conſiſted of 8 commiſſioners, with an annual ſalary of £.1000 each.

(1.) * *To* BOARD. *v. a.* [from the noun] 1. To enter a ſhip by force; the ſame as to ſtorm, uſed of a city.—

I *boarded* the king's ſhip: now on the beak
Now in the waſte, the deck, in every cabin,
I ſtam'd amazement. *Shakeſpeare.*

2. To attack, or make the firſt attempt upon a man; *aboarder quelqu'un*, Fr. 3. To lay or pave with boards.

(2.) * *To* BOARD. *v. a.* To place as a boarder in another's houſe.

(3.) * *To* BOARD. *v. n.* To live in a houſe, where a certain rate is paid for eating.

* BOARDER. *n. ſ.* [from *board.*] A tabler; one that eats with another at a ſettled rate.

BOARDING, in a naval engagement, a deſperate and furious aſſault made by one ſhip on another, after having found every other method to reduce her ineffectual. It may be performed in different places of the ſhip, according to their circumſtances and ſituation, by the aſſailant detaching a number of men armed with pikes, piſtols, and cutlaſſes on the decks of his antagoniſt, who ſtands in the ſame predicament with a city ſtormed by the beſiegers. This, however, is rarely attempted by king's ſhips, which generally decide the combat without grappling; but is often practiſed by privateers, which, bearing down on the enemy's quarter or broadſide, drop from the bowſprit, which projects over the defendants deck, an earthen ſhell, called a *flink-pot*, charged with ſuffocating combuſtibles, which immediately burſts, catches fire, and fills the deck with inſufferable ſtench and ſmoke: in the midſt of the confuſion thus occaſioned, the ſhip's crew ruſh aboard, under cover of the ſmoke, and eaſily overpower the aſtoniſhed enemy, unleſs they have cloſe quarters to which they can retreat and beat them off the deck.

BOARD-

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BOARDING-PIKE, a pike made uſe of in boarding ſhips during an engagement.

* BOARDING-SCHOOL. *n. ſ.* [from *board* and *ſchool.*] A ſchool where the ſcholars live with the teacher. It is commonly uſed of a ſchool for girls.

A blockhead, with melodious voice,
In *boarding-ſchools* can have his choice. *Swift.*

* BOARD-WAGES. *n. ſ.* [from *board* and *wages.*] Wages allowed to ſervants to keep themſelves in victuals.

BOARHILLS, 1. a conſiderable village of Fife, in the E. end of the pariſh of St Andrews: 2. the diſtrict in which it is ſituated.

BOARIA LAPPA, or LAPPAGO, a name given by the ancient Romans to the fruit or rough balls of the common aparine or cleavers. Pliny calls the fruit *lappæ boariæ*, or *luppæ caninæ*, and ſometimes *canariæ*.

BOARINA. See BOAROLA.

* BOARISH. *adj.* [from *boar.*] Swiniſh; brutal; cruel.—

I would not ſee thy cruel nails
Pluck out his poor old eyes; nor thy fierce ſiſter,
In his anointed fleſh ſtick *boariſh* phangs.
Shakſpeare.

BOAROLA, or BOARINA, in ornithology, the name of a very ſmall bird, deſcribed by Aldrovandus, and others, and ſeemingly the ſame ſpecies with the MUSCICAPA, or FLY-CATCHER.

* BOAR-SPEAR. *n. ſ.* [from *boar* and *ſpear.*] A ſpear uſed in hunting the boar.—

Echion threw the firſt, but miſs'd his mark,
And ſtruck his *boar-ſpear* on a maple bark.
Dryden.

* BOAST. *n. ſ.* [from the verb] 1. An expreſſion of oſtentation; a proud ſpeech.—Thou that makeſt thy *boaſt* of the law, through breaking the law diſhonoureſt thou God? *Rom.* ii. 23.—The world is more apt to find fault than to commend; the *boaſt* will probably be cenſured, when the great action that occaſioned it is forgotten. *Spect.* 2. A cauſe of boaſting; an occaſion of pride; the thing boaſted.

(1.) * *To* BOAST. *v. a.* 1. To brag of; to diſplay with oſtentatious language.—For if I have *boaſted* any thing of him to you, I am not aſhamed. 2 *Cor.* vii. 14.—If they vouchſafed to give God the praiſe of his goodneſs; yet they did it only, in order to *boaſt* the intereſt they had in him. *Atterb.* 2. To magnify; to exalt.—They that truſt in their wealth and *boaſt* themſelves *in* the multitude of their riches. *Pſ.* xlix. 6.—Confounded be all them that ſerve graven images, that *boaſt* themſelves of idols. *Pſalm* xcvii. 7.

(2.) * *To* BOAST, *v. n.* [*bôſt*, Welch.] 1. To brag; to diſplay one's own worth, or actions, in great words.—Let not him that putteth on his harneſs, *boaſt* himſelf as he that putteth it off. *Kings.* 2. To talk oſtentatiouſly.—For I know the forwardneſs of your mind, for which I *boaſt* of you to them of Macedonia. 1 *Cor.* ix. 2. 3. It is uſed commonly with *of.*—

My ſentence is for open war, *of* wiles
More inexpert I *boaſt* not. *Milton.*

4. Sometimes with *in.*—Some ſurgeon I have met, carrying bones about in their pockets, *boaſting in* that which was their ſhame. *Wiſeman.* 5. To exalt one's ſelf.—Thus with your mouth you have *boaſted* againſt me, and multiplied your words againſt me. *Ezek.* xxxv. 13.

* BOASTER. *n. ſ.* [from *boaſt.*] A bragger; a man that vaunts any thing oſtentatiouſly.—Complaints the more candid and judicious of the chymiſts themſelves are wont to make of thoſe *boaſters*, that confidently pretend, that they have extracted the ſalt or ſulphur of quickſilver, when they have diſguiſed it by additaments, wherewith it reſembles the concretes. *Boyle.*

* BOASTFUL. *adj.* [from *boaſt* and *full.*] Oſtentatious; inclined to brag.—

Boaſtful, and rough, your firſt ſon is a ſquire;
The next a tradeſman, meek and much a liar.
Pope.

* BOASTINGLY. *adv.* [from *boaſting.*] Oſtentatiouſly.—We look on it as a pitch of impiety, *boaſtingly* to avow our ſins; and it deſerves to be conſidered, whether this kind of confeſſing them have not ſome affinity with it. *Decay of Piety.*

(1.) * BOAT. *n. ſ.* [*bat*, Saxon.] 1. A veſſel to paſs the water in. It is uſually diſtinguiſhed from other veſſels, by being ſmaller and uncovered, and commonly moved by rowing.—I do not think that any one nation, the Syrian excepted, to whom the knowledge of the ark came, did find out at once the device of either ſhip or *boat*, in which they durſt venture themſelves upon the ſeas. *Raleigh's Eſſays.* 2. A ſhip of a ſmall ſize; as, a *paſſage boat*, *packet boat*, *advice boat*, *fly boat.*

(II.) BOATS, DIFFERENT KINDS OF. The conſtruction, machinery, and even the names of boats, are very different, according to the various purpoſes for which they are calculated, and the ſervices on which they are to be employed. Thus they are occaſionally ſlight or ſtrong, ſharp or flat bottomed, open or decked, plain or ornamented; as they may be deſigned for ſwiftneſs or burden, for deep or ſhallow water, for ſailing in a harbour or at ſea, and for convenience or pleaſure. The largeſt boat that uſually accompanies a ſhip is the long-boat, which is generally furniſhed with a maſt and ſails: thoſe which are fitted for men of war, may be occaſionally decked, armed, and equipped for cruiſing ſhort diſtances againſt merchant ſhips of the enemy, or ſmugglers, or impreſſing ſeamen, &c. The BARGES are next in order, which are longer, ſlighter, and narrower; they are employed to carry the principal ſea officers, as admirals, and captains of ſhips of war, and are very unfit for ſea. PINNACES exactly reſemble barges, only that they are ſomewhat ſmaller, and never row more than eight oars; whereas a barge properly never rows leſs than ten. Theſe are for the accommodation of the lieutenants, &c. CUTTERS of a ſhip, are broader, deeper, and ſhorter than the barges and pinnaces; they are fitter for ſailing, and are commonly employed in carrying ſtores, proviſions, paſſengers, &c. to and from the ſhip. In the ſtructure of this ſort of boats, the lower edge of every plank in the ſide overlays the upper edge of the plank below, which is called by ſhip-wrights *clinch-works.* YAWLS are ſomething leſs than cutters, nearly of the ſame form, and uſed for ſimilar ſervices; they are generally moved with ſix oars. Theſe boats more particularly belong to men of war; as merchant

ſhips

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ſhips have ſeldom more than two, viz. a long-boat and yawl; when they have a third, it is generally calculated for the countries to which they trade, and varies in its conſtruction accordingly. Merchant ſhips employed in the Mediterranean find it more convenient to uſe a LAUNCH, which is longer, more flat bottomed, and better adapted every way to the harbours of that ſea, than a long boat. A WHERRY is a light ſharp boat, uſed in a river or harbour for carrying paſſengers from place to place. PUNTS are a ſort of oblong flat bottomed boats, nearly reſembling floating ſtages; they are uſed by ſhip-wrights and caulkers, for breaming, caulking, or repairing a ſhip's bottom. A MOSES is a very flat broad boat, uſed by merchant ſhips amongſt the Caribbee iſlands, to bring hogſheads of ſugar off from the ſea-beach to the ſhipping which are anchored in the roads. A FELUCCA is a ſtrong paſſage boat uſed in the Mediterranean, from 10 to 16 banks of oars. The natives of Barbary often employ boats of this ſort as cruizers. For the larger ſort of boats, ſee CRAFT, CUTTER, PERIAGUA, and SHALLOP. Of all the ſmall boats, a NORWAY YAUL ſeems to be the beſt calculated for a high ſea, as it will often venture out to a great diſtance from the coaſt of that country, when a ſtout ſhip can hardly carry any ſail.

(III.) BOATS, M. BERNIERES'S EXPERIMENTS WITH TWO. The following account was publiſhed about thirty years ago, of "ſeveral trials made on a boat or ſloop, fit for inland navigation, coaſting voyages, and ſhort paſſages by ſea, which is not, like ordinary veſſels, liable to be overſet or ſunk by winds, waves, water ſpouts, or too heavy a load; contrived and conſtructed by M. Bernieres, director of the bridges and cauſeways in France," &c. Some of theſe trials were made Aug. 1777, at the Gate of Invalids in Paris, in preſence of the provoſt, merchants, and a numerous concourſe of ſpectators of all conditions. They were made by way of compariſon with another common boat of the ſame place, and of equal ſize. Both boats had been built ten years, and their exterior forms appeared to be exactly ſimilar. The common boat contained only eight men, who rocked it and made it incline ſo much to one ſide, that it preſently filled with water, and ſunk; ſo that the men were obliged to ſave themſelves by ſwimming; a thing common in all veſſels of the ſame kind, either from the imprudence of thoſe who are in them, the ſtrength of the waves or wind, a violent or unexpected ſhock, their being overloaded, or overpowered any other way. The ſame men who had juſt eſcaped from the boat which ſunk, got into the boat of M. Bernieres; rocked it, and filled it, as they had done the other, with water. But inſtead of ſinking to the bottom, though brim full, it bore being rowed about the river, loaded as it was with men and water, without any danger to the people in it. M. Bernieres carried the experiment ſtill farther. He ordered a maſt to be erected in the ſame boat, when filled with water; and to the top of the maſt had a rope faſtened, and drawn till the end of the maſt touched the ſurface of the river, ſo that the boat was entirely on one ſide, a poſition into which neither wind nor waves could bring her; yet, as ſoon as the men who had hauled her into this ſituation let go the rope, the boat and maſt recovered their poſition perfectly in leſs than the quarter of a ſecond; a convincing proof that the boat could neither be ſunk nor overturned, and that it afforded the greateſt poſſible ſecurity in every way. Theſe experiments appeared to give the greater pleaſure to the public, as the advantages of the diſcovery may be of the firſt importance to mankind. Yet it ſeems ſurpriſing, that we have heard nothing farther of this diſcovery being applied to practice.

(IV.) BOATS, TERMS USED IN NAVIGATING. The following terms are uſed among ſeamen in navigating boats:

1. BOAT, TO BALE, OR FREE THE, is to fling out the water.

2. BOAT, TO FIND THE, is to ſave her from beating againſt the ſides of the ſhip.

3. BOAT, TO MOOR THE, to faſten it with ropes.

4. BOAT, TO TRIM THE, is to keep her even.

5. BOAT, TO WIND THE, is to bring her head about.

(V.) BOATS, TRAIN OF, a number of ſmall veſſels faſtened to each other, aſcending up the Loir in France, by ſails when the wind ſerves, otherwiſe towed by men, ſometimes to the number of 70 or 80 to a ſingle rope.

To BOAT. *v. a.* To carry in a boat. *Aſh.*

BOAT-BILL. See CANCROMA.

BOAT-FLY, a water inſect, whoſe back is ſhaped like the bottom of a boat; the hind legs, which are thrice as long as the fore, aptly enough reſembling a pair of oars. Accordingly, contrary to all other creatures, he ſwims, ſays Mouſet, on his back.

BOAT-HOOK, an iron hook, with a ſharp point on the hinder part of it, fixed on a long pole, uſed in bringing it to, or puſhing it from any other boat, ſhip, &c.

BOATING, a horrid kind of puniſhment in uſe among the ancient Perſians for capital offenders. The manner of boating was this: The perſon condemned to it being laid on his back in a boat, and having his hands ſtretched out, and tied faſt on each ſide of it, had another boat put over him, his head being left out through a place fit for it. In this poſture they fed him, till the worms, which were bred in the excrements he voided as he thus lay, eat out his bowels, and ſo cauſed his death, which was uſually twenty days in effecting, the criminal lying all this while in moſt exquiſite torment.

BOAT INSECT. See NOTONECTA.

BOAT, LIFE, ſo called, by way of eminence, on account of the great ſucceſs with which it has been applied to the purpoſe of going to the relief of ſhips in diſtreſs, was invented by Mr William Wouldhave, of South Shields, in the county of Durham, and the firſt boat of the kind built by Mr Henry Greathead, under the inſpection and direction of Meſſrs Fairles and Rockwood, of the ſame town, in the year 1789. The life-boat is built on what nautical men call the ſlaunching plan. The main breadth of the veſſel is exactly amidſhip, and the breadth decreaſes gradually towards each end in the ſame proportion, ſo that the ends are preciſely alike; therefore there is no occaſion

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occaſion to turn the boat in rowing to or from a veſſel. The greateſt breadth of the boat is at the gunwales; and the ſides in no inſtance turn back, but are ſo formed as to ſpread, and repel the fluid in every direction. There perhaps is not a better method of communicating a proper idea of the form of the life-boat, to ſuch as are converſant with geometric figures, than to ſay that no one approaches ſo near it as that of a quarter ſpheroid ſcooped to a ſhell. One of the largeſt life-boats is 30 feet extreme length, 10 feet extreme breadth, and the ends riſe between two and three feet above the mid-ſhips. Smaller boats are built after the ſame proportions. The life-boat is perfectly unimmergible, having a ſufficient quantity of cork attached to it as to ſecure its buoyancy when filled with water to the gunwale amidſhips, and incapable of being overſet, by the near approach of its form to a ſpheroidal ſection. Mr Greathead, who was employed to build the firſt boat, and who has ſince built ſeveral more for different places, laid claim to the honour of the invention, and was liberally rewarded by the national bounty, &c. The juſtice of his claim has however been publicly denied, and he has been repeatedly called on to contradict the charges brought againſt him by Mr Wouldhave, the real inventor; but nothing has yet provoked him to take up the gauntlet. The only circumſtance on which Mr Greathead reſts his claim is, that the life-boat has a curved keel, and the model of Mr Wouldhave a ſtraight one. The curvature of the keel has however been demonſtrated to be the principal, or only error, in the conſtruction of the veſſel; and we would recommend to thoſe who, in future, may conſtruct ſuch veſſels, to preſerve the ſpheroidal form of the body of the boat, yet ſo as to leave a ſtraight keel, and a ſufficient quantity of gripe to hinder the boat from broaching to, on receiving the ſtroke of the waves on her ends. Mr Lionel Lukin of London has lately laid claim to the honour of having invented the life-boat; but ſhould the arguments he offers in defence of that claim be admitted as ſufficient to invalidate thoſe of Mr Wouldhave, Mr Lukin in his turn, muſt give up the honour to Monſ. Bernieres, who had invented, as we have ſeen above, an unimmergible boat, a conſiderable time before Mr Lukin ſolicited and received his patent.

* BOATION. *n. ſ.* [from *boare*, Lat.] Roar; noiſe; loud ſound.—In Meſſina inſurrection, the guns were heard from thence as far as Auguſta and Syracuſe, about 100 Italian miles, in loud *boations*. *Denham's Phyſico Theology.*

* BOATMAN. BOATSMAN. *n. ſ.* [from *boat* and *man*.] He that manages a boat.—

That booby phaon only was unkind,
An ill-bred *boatman*, rough as waves and wind.
Prior.

BOAT-ROPE, the rope by which the boat is faſtened to the ſtem of the ſhip.

* BOATSMAN. See BOATMAN.

(1.) * BOATSWAIN. *n. ſ.* [from *boat* and *ſwain*.] An officer on board a ſhip, who has charge of all her rigging, ropes, cables, anchors, ſails, flags, colours, pendants, &c. He alſo takes care of the long-boat and its furniture, and ſteers her either by himſelf or his mate. He calls out the ſeveral gangs and companies to the execution of their watches, works, and ſpells; and he is alſo a kind of provoſt-marſhal, ſeizes and puniſhes all offenders that are ſentenced by the captain, or court-martial of the whole fleet. *Harris.*

(2.) BOATSWAIN, OTHER DUTIES OF THE. It is the duty of the boatſwain particularly to direct what relates to the rigging of a ſhip, after ſhe is equipped from a royal dock-yard. Thus he is to obſerve, that the maſts are properly ſupported by their ſhrouds, ſtays, and back-ſtays, ſo that each of theſe ropes may ſuſtain a proportional effort when the maſt is ſtrained by the violence of the wind, or the agitation of the ſhip. He ought alſo to take care that the blocks and running ropes are regularly placed, ſo as to anſwer the purpoſes for which they are intended; and that the ſails are properly fitted to their yards and ſtays, well furled or reefed when occaſion requires. It is likewiſe his office to aſſiſt with his mates in the neceſſary buſineſs of the ſhip; and to relieve the watch when it expires. He ought frequently to examine the condition of the maſts, ſails, and rigging; and remove whatever may be judged unfit for ſervice, or ſupply what is deficient; and he is ordered by his inſtructions to perform his duty with as little noiſe as poſſible.

BOATSWAIN'S MATE has the peculiar command of the long-boat, for the ſetting forth of anchors, weighing or fetching home an anchor, warping, towing, or mooring; and is to give an account of his ſtore.

(1.) BOAZ, the ſon of Salmon, by Rahab the harlot of Jericho, the ſecond huſband of Ruth, and great grandfather of David.

(2.) BOAZ, the name given by Solomon to one of the principal pillars of the temple.

(1.) * BOB. *n. ſ.* [from the verb neuter.] 1. Something that hangs ſo as to play cloſely; generally an ornament at the ear; a pendant; an earring. 2. The words repeated at the end of a ſtanza.—To bed, to bed, will be the *bob* of the ſong. *L'Eſtrange.* 3. A blow.—I am ſharply taunted, yea, ſometimes with pinches, nips, and *bobs*. *Aſcham's Schoolmaſter.* 4. A mode of ringing.

(2.) BOB, the ball of a ſhort pendulum.

(1.) * *To* BOB. *v. n.* [of uncertain etymology; *Skinner* deduces it from *bobo*, fooliſh, Span.] 1. To cut. *Junius.* Whence *bobtail.* 2. To beat; to drub; to bang. 3. To cheat; to gain by fraud. I have *bobbed* his brain more than he has beaten my bones. *Shakeſpeare.*

(2.) * *To* BOB. *v. n.* To play backward and forward; to play looſely againſt any thing.—

They comb, and then they order every hair;
A birth-day jewel *bobbing* at their ear. *Dryden.*

BOBAR, a river in Sileſia.

BOBARTIA, in botany, a genus of the digynia order, belonging to the triandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 4th order, *Gramina*. The calyx is imbricated; and the corolla is a bivalve glume, above the receptacles of the fruit. Of this genus there is only one ſpecies known, which is a native of the Indies, and hath no remarkable property.

(1.) * BOBBIN. *n. ſ.* [*bobine*, Fr. from *bombyx*, Lat.] A ſmall pin of wood, with a notch, to wind the thread about when women weave lace.—The

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things you follow, and make ſongs on now, ſhould be ſent to knit, or ſit down to *bobbins*, or bone-lace. *Tatler*.

(2.) BOBBINS are turned in the form of a cylinder, with a little border jutting out at each end, bored through to receive a ſmall iron pivot. They ſerve to ſpin with the ſpinning wheel, or to wind worſted, hair, cotton, ſilk, gold, and ſilver.

(1.) BOBBING, among fiſhermen, a particular manner of catching eels, which is thus performed: They ſcour well ſome large lobs, and, with a needle run a twiſted ſilk thread through them from end to end, taking ſo many as that they may wrap them about a board a dozen times at leaſt; then they tie them faſt with the two ends of the ſilk, that they may hang in ſo many hanks; which done, they faſten to a ſtrong cord, and, about an handful and an half above the worms, fix a plummet ½ of a lb. weight, and make the cord faſt to a ſtrong pole. With this apparatus fiſhing in muddy water, they feel the eels tug luſtily at the bait; when they think they have ſwallowed it ſufficiently, they gently draw up the rope to the top, and bring them aſhore.

(2.) BOBBING, in geography, a village in Kent, near Sittingbourn.

* BOBBINWORK. *n. ſ.* [from *bobbin* and *work*.] Work woven with bobbins.—Not netted nor woven with warp and woof, but after the manner of *bobbinwork*. *Grew's Muſeum*.

BOBBIO. See BOBIO, N° 1. and 2.

* BOBCHERRY. *n. ſ.* [from *bob* and *cherry*.] A play among children, in which the cherry is hung ſo as to bob againſt the mouth.—*Bobcherry* teaches us at once two noble virtues, patience and conſtancy; the firſt, in adhering to the purſuit of one end; the latter, in bearing a diſappointment. *Arbuth. and Pope*.

BOBENHAUSEN, a town of Germany in Weteravia, 3 miles from Franckfort on the Maine.

BOBINGTON, a town in Staffordſhire, near Shropſhire.

BOBINGWORTH, a village in Eſſex, NE. of Epping foreſt.

(1.) BOBIO, a territory of Italy in the Milaneſe.

(2.) BOBIO, the capital of the above territory, (N° 1.) ſeated on the Trebbia, 28 m. S. of Pavia. It is the ſee of a biſhop. Lon. 10. 15. E. Lat. 44. 35. N.

(3.) BOBIO, the largeſt river of Chili, in S. America.

BOBISATIO, or BOCEDISATIO, in muſic, denotes the uſing of the 7 ſyllables *bo, ce, di, ga, lo, ma, ni*, to expreſs the 7 muſical notes in lieu of the 6 introduced by Aretine, *ut, re, me, fa, ſol, la*, as has been ſometimes done by the Netherland and German muſicians ſince the beginning of the 17th century, to avoid the mutation neceſſary in the uſe of the latter.

BOB-STAY, in ſea-language, a rope uſed to confine the bowſprit of a ſhip downward to the ſtem.

* BOBTAIL. *n. ſ.* [from *bob*, in the ſenſe of *cut*.] Cut tail; ſhort tail.—

Avaunt, you curs!
Be thy mouth or black or white,
Or *bobtail* tike, or trundle tail,
Tom will make him weep and wail. *Shakeſp.*

* BOBTAILED. *adj.* [from *bobtail*.] Having a tail cut, or ſhort.—There was a *bobtailed* cur carried in a gazette, and one that found him brought him home to his maſter. *L'Eſtrange*.

* BOBWIG. *n. ſ.* [from *bob* and *wig*.] A ſhort wig.—A young fellow riding towards us full gallop, with a *bobwig*, and a black ſilken bag tied to it, ſtopt ſhort at the coach to aſk us how far the judges were behind. *Spectator*.

BOCA, in ichthyology, the name given by Paulus Jovius to the BOCE of Ariſtotle, called the *boops*, from the largeneſs of its eyes. It is a ſpecies of the SPARUS, and is diſtinguiſhed by having 4 parallel longitudinal gold and ſilver coloured lines on each. Gaza and ſome others call it *voca*; and the Italians BAGO.

BOCA-CHICA, 1. the ſtrait or entrance into the harbour of Carthagena in S. America. It is defended by ſeveral forts belonging to the Spaniards, all of which were taken by the Britiſh in 1741; who were nevertheleſs obliged to raiſe the ſiege of Carthagena ſoon after: 2. A river of S. America.

BOCA-DEL-DRAGO, a ſtrait ſo called, between the iſland of Trinidad and Andaluſia, in the province of Terra Firma, in S. America.

BOCAL. See BOCCALE.

BOCAMOLLE, in ichthyology, a name given by ſome to a very large and long Braſilian fiſh, more uſually called by its Braſilian name PIRAJURUMENBECA.

BOCANUM, in ancient geography, a town of Mauritania Tingitana, to the S. of mount Atlas; ſuppoſed to be MOROCCO. Lon. 9. 0. W. Lat. 31. 0. N.

BOCARDO, in logic, the fifth mode of the firſt figure of ſyllogiſms, wherein the firſt propoſition is particular and negative; the ſecond, univerſal and affirmative; and the third, or concluſion, particular and negative. Thus:

BOC Some animal is not man.
AR Every animal has a principle of ſenſation.
DO Therefore ſomething has a principle of ſenſation that is not man.

* BOCASINE. *n. ſ.* A ſort of linen cloth; a fine buckram. *Dict*.

BOCAT, a fine valley of Syria, in which are ſituated the ruins of Balbec.

(1.) BOCCA, in glaſs making, the round hole in the working furnace, by which the metal is taken out of the great pots, and by which the pots are put into the furnace. This is to be ſtopped by a cover made of earth and brick, and removeable at pleaſure, to preſerve the eyes of the workman from the violence of the heat.

(2.) BOCCA, in ichthyology, a name by which ſome authors call the URANOSCOBUS, or Stargazer. It is a ſpecies of the TRACHINUS, diſtinguiſhed by having a great number of beards on the lower jaw.

BOCCACE, John, one of the moſt polite and learned writers of his age, was born in Tuſcany in 1313. His father firſt placed him with a merchant; but as he gave ſigns of genius, he was put afterward to ſtudy the canon law. Still, however

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ver, he thought of nothing but poetry; though he did not so entirely devote himself to that art, as to forget other studies. In the prosecution of these, however, as he sought every where for the best masters, and had not an income sufficient for his expences, he stood in need of the bounty of others: and was particularly obliged to Petrarch, who furnished him with money as well as books, and assisted him in many other respects. Boccace was a great admirer of the Greek; he got Homer translated into Latin for his own use; and procured a professor's chair at Florence for Leontius Pylatus, to explain this poet. The republic of Florence honoured Boccace with the freedom of that city; and employed him in public affairs, particularly to negociate the return of Petrarch: but this poet not only refused to return to Florence, but persuaded Boccace also to retire from thence, on account of the factions which prevailed in that republic. Having quitted Florence, he went to several places in Italy, and stopped at last at the court of Naples, where K. Robert gave him a very kind reception. He conceived a violent affection for that king's natural daughter, which made him remain a considerable time at Naples. He also made a long stay in Sicily, where he was in high favour with Q Joan. He returned to Florence when the troubles were a little appeased: but not liking the course of life he must have followed there, he retired to Certaldo; and, far from the noise of business, spent his time in study, agreeably to his own humour. His great application brought on an indisposition, of which he died in 1376. He wrote several books, some learned and serious, others of gallantry and full of stories. Among the former were, 1. An Abridgement of the Roman History, from Romulus, till A. U. C. 724; printed at Cologne, 8vo, 1534; 2. The History of Illustrious Women; Bern, fol. 1539: 3. Genealogy of the Gods, with a treatise of mountains, seas, rivers, &c. Basil, fol. 1532: 4. *De casibus virorum illustrium*; Paris and Augsburg, 1544. This work began with Adam and ended with John king of France; and has been translated into Italian, Spanish, French, and English. But his *Decameron*, or Ten Days Tales has chiefly immortalized him, though it is said to have not a little corrupted the morals of its female readers. Petrarch, however, thought this composition contained so many charms, that he translated it into Latin.

BOCCA-CHICA. See BOCA-CHICA.

BOCCA-DEL-DRAGO. See BOCA-DEL-DRAGO.

BOCCALE, or BOCAL, a liquid measure used at Rome, answering to what is called a bottle among us, being equivalent to about an English quart. Seven boccales and a half make a RUBBIA.

BOCCALINI, Trajan, a celebrated satirical writer, born at Rome, who, in the beginning of the 17th century, obtained the admiration of all Italy by his refined and delicate criticisms. Sovereign princes did not escape the lash of his satire. The cardinals Borghese and Gaetan having declared themselves his protectors, he published his *Ragguaglio di Parnasso*, and *La Secretaria di Apollo*, which is the continuation of the former. These works were received by the public with uncommon applause. He there feigns, that Apollo, holding his court at Parnassus, heard the complaints of the whole world, and did justice according to the cases. He at length printed his *Pietra di Paragone*; wherein he attacked the court of Spain, setting forth their designs against the liberties of Italy, and inveighing against them for the tyranny they exercised in Naples. The Spaniards complained of him in form, and resolved to be revenged. Boccalini retired to Venice, but was there assassinated in a very strange manner. He lodged with a friend, who having got up early one morning, left Boccalini in bed: a minute after, some armed men entered his chamber, and gave him so many blows with bags full of sand, that they left him for dead; so that his friend returning some time after, found him speechless. Great search was made at Venice for the murderers, but, though they were never discovered, it was universally believed that they were employed by the court of Spain.

BOCCARELLA, in the glass manufacture, a small hole or aperture of the furnace, one of which is placed on each side the bocca, almost horizontally with it. Out of them the servitors take coloured or finer metal from the piling pot.

BOCCHUS, a king of Mauritania, who delivered Jugurtha in fetters to Sylla.

BOCCIARDI, Clemente, called CLEMENTONE, history and portrait painter, born at Genoa in 1620, was the disciple of Bernardo Strozzi, and afterwards studied at Rome. By an excellent genius, and industrious application, he united and blended the antique and modern gusto, in a style that exhibited both gracefulness and strength. Most of his works, (except his portraits, which were lively, natural, and graceful,) are in the chapels of Genoa, Pisa, and other cities of Italy; of which they are still accounted the greatest ornaments.

BOCCONA, a river of Naples, in Calabria.

BOCCONI, Sylvio, a celebrated natural historian, born at Palermo in Sicily. After he had gone through the usual course of studies, he was ordained priest, and entered into the Cistercian order, when he changed his name *Paul* into *Sylvio*. This did not divert him from his favourite study, natural history, in pursuit of which he travelled through Malta, Italy, the Low Countries, England, France, Germany, Poland, &c. and, in 1696, was admitted a member of the academy of Virtuosi in Germany. Upon his return to Sicily, he retired to a convent near Palermo; where he died in 1704, aged 71. He left many curious works, on botany and other subjects.

BOCCONIA, GREATER TREE CELANDINE: A genus of the monogynia order, (so named from S. BOCCONI,) belonging to the dodecandria class of plants, and in the natural method ranking under the 27th order, *Rhœadeæ*. The calyx is diphyllous; there is no corolla; the stylus is bifid; the berry is dry, and monospermous. Of this genus there is but one known species, viz.

BOCCONIA FRUTESCENS, which is esteemed for the beauty of its large foliage. It is very common in Jamaica and other warm parts of America, where it grows to the height of 10 or 12 feet, having a straight trunk as large as a man's arm, and covered with a white smooth bark. At the top it

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divides into several branches, on which the leaves are placed alternately. These leaves are 8 or 9 inches long, and 5 or 6 broad; are deeply sinuated, sometimes almost to the mid-rib; and are of a fine glaucous colour. The whole plant abounds with a yellow juice of an acrid nature; so that it is used by the inhabitants of America to take off warts and spots from the eyes. The singular beauty of this plant renders it worthy of a place in every curious collection: and it seems the Indians are very fond of it; for Hernandez tells us, their kings used to plant it in their gardens. It is propagated by seeds from America, sowing them in spring, in pots of light earth, which must be plunged in a hot-bed. When the plants come up, they are to be kept in separate pots, which must always be kept in a stove.

BOCCORE, in natural history. [*First, or Early Fruit.*] We are informed by Pliny, in his Natural History, book xvi. chap. 26. that the fig tree bore two kinds of fruits, at different periods; the first, which was named boccore, came before the leaves; after that, the leaves; and the true fig followed them. This name is given to the first or early produce by the Algerines and Tunisians, and formerly by those who lived in Palestine; in which latter place the tree grew. In Palestine the first fruit of the early fig was named boccore; there the last or true fig was produced in June; whilst in the former countries it was not ready before August. There was also this difference even in the ripe fruit of the boccore and the kermez, or kermouse, (the *true fig*,) that the first dropped from the tree as soon as they were ripe; whereas the second hung a long time, frequently from August throughout the winter. It was the first of these that was employed by Nahum, chap. iii. ver. 12. to illustrate the idea of an early conquest; "All thy strong holds shall be like fig trees with the *first ripe figs*: if they be shaken they shall even fall into the mouth of the eater." With the sentiments of Pliny before us, and the natural history, as above, of the fig tree "and her children," let us proceed to examine the miracle of Christ, as recorded by Mark and Matthew. Now as it would be dishonourable in us not to give an adversary's argument its full weight, so would it also be disingenuous not to give it in his own words; and as David Levi has of late written largely against the miracle, and is perhaps the man of the most cultivated and powerful mind, among our objectors, they will not think themselves unfairly treated, if we quote the objection in his words. "This miracle, (he says,) I conceive to be neither rational nor just, for in the first place the text reads, "and when he came to it he found nothing but leaves, for the time of figs was not yet come;" hence it is manifest that he required the tree to produce fruit out of season, which would have been contrary to the intent of its creator; and therefore he, as a dutiful son, curses the innocent and guiltless tree, for doing that which his father had commanded it to do, viz. to 'bear fruit in due season.' If, after this, Christians should still persist in the miracle according to the *letter* of the story, much good may it do them; but I am sure, it never will be the means of converting the unbelieving Jews to the Christian faith. But had Jesus, on the contrary, (as St Augustin somewhere observes,) instead of cursing the fig tree, made a dry, dead, or withered one, immediately to bud, flourish, and presently to bring forth fruit out of season, as we find recorded of Moses; who, taking a rod of each tribe, by the command of God, laid them up *in the tabernacle of witness*, in order to prove thereby whom it was he was pleased to make choice of for the priesthood; we find, 'and it came to pass that on the morrow Moses went into the tabernacle of witness; and behold the rod of Aaron, for the house of Levi, was budded, and brought forth bud, and bloomed blossoms, and yielded almonds.' Numb. xvii. 8. Had Jesus acted in this manner, it would have been such an instance of *his* power, as to have rendered the proofs of the miracle indisputable." We may premise the defence of this miracle by observing, that the word almost always used, is not only extremely improper, but has given a cause of much ill-natured and unfounded remarks. At the time our present translation was formed, the gentlemen employed in the work unfortunately used the word *curse* and its derivatives to signify *destruction*, when applied to inanimate objects, and *confusion*, when applied to the mere doctrines of men. "The meek and pious Jesus," says a very acute writer, "poured forth his curses in a copious stream." This remark would have had probably no existence, had our translators observed the foregoing rule. With regard to the miracle itself, it certainly was one of destruction; but it also was one typical of the destruction of the nation, on account of its unfruitfulness, under greater advantages than any other people enjoyed at that time. The plain narrative is this: Jesus saw at a distance a fig tree full of leaves, of course giving a promise also of the second fruit; in going to it he found there was nothing but leaves; though the time of gathering the second crop of figs was not yet come, certainly the fruit was to be expected on the tree; Jesus addressing himself to it, said, may no man eat fruit of thee hereafter for ever; and immediately the tree dried up, and withered. Thus, though in the sight of Mr Levi and others, it was destroying vegetable existence, that destruction was employed upon an unproductive plant; on whose account might be addressed words used on another occasion, 'why cumbereth it the ground.'

BOCE. See Boca.

BOCEDISATIO. See Bobisatio.

BOCHAMPTON, a village 3 miles NE. of Dorchester.

BOCHARIA. See Bokhara.

(1.) BOCHART, Matthew, a learned protestant divine of the 17th century, was minister of Alençon, and author of several works: viz. 1. A Treatise against Relics: 2. Another against the sacrifice of the Mass: printed at Geneva, in 1658. 3. A Dialogue on the difficulties, which the Missionaries raised against the Protestants of France. This work led the Elector Palatine to attempt the reunion of the Lutherans and Calvinists, at Augsburg. 4. *Diallacticon*, a work containing a plan for that purpose; dedicated to the Elector, and printed at ed

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Sedan; in 1662. His treatiſe againſt the maſs brought him into trouble. Some have confounded this author with his couſin Samuel, (N° 2.)

(2.) BOCHART, Samuel, one of the moſt learned men in the 17th century, was born at Roan in Normandy. He was a great proficient in the oriental languages; and was many years paſtor of a proteſtant church at Caen; where he was tutor to Wentworth Dillon, earl of Roſcommon. Here he diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his public diſputations with father Veron, held in the caſtle of Caen, in preſence of a great number of Catholics and Proteſtants. Bochart came off with great honour, which was not a little increaſed in 1646, upon the publication of the two parts of his *Geographia Sacra*, entitled *Phaleg* and *Canaan*: as well as by his *Hierozoicon*, printed at London in 1675. This treats *de animalibus ſacræ ſcripturæ*. In 1652, the queen of Sweden invited him to Stockholm, where ſhe gave him many proofs of her eſteem. At his return to Caen, he reſumed his miniſtry, and was received into the academy of that city. His learning was not his principal qualification; he had a modeſty equal to it; and hence enjoyed his great reputation in tranquillity, ſheltered from thoſe unhappy quarrels which ſo many other learned men draw upon themſelves. He was eſteemed by men of ſcience of all denominations. He died ſuddenly while he was ſpeaking in the academy, on the 16th of May, 1667, aged 78. A complete edition of his works was publiſhed in Holland, in 2 vols folio, 1712.

BOCHE, *n. ſ. obſ.* an ulcer. *Chauc.*

BOCHETTA, a place of Italy, famous in the war of 1746 and 1747. It is a chain of mountains over which the great road lies from Lombardy to Genoa; and on the very peak of the higheſt mountain is a narrow paſs, which will hardly admit 3 men to go abreaſt. This paſs is properly called the *Bochetta*; for the defence of which there are 3 forts. It is the key of Genoa; and was taken in April 1796, by the French.

BOCHIM, in ancient geography, a place where the Hebrews aſſembled after Joſhua's death, ſuppoſed to have been near Shiloh. *Judg.* ii. 1—10.

BOCHIUS, or BOCQUI, John, a Latin poet, born at Bruſſels, in 1555. He travelled into Italy, Germany, Poland, and Muſcovy, and at his return became ſecretary to the Duke of Parma. During his journey from Smolenſko to Moſcow and Livonia, his feet were ſo ſeverely froſt bitten, that amputation was ordered; but the Czar, John Baſilides, coming with an army to ravage the country, Bochus fled as faſt as he could, and though he was overtaken, ſtript, and beaten, by the Ruſſians, the exerciſe reſtored the uſe of his limbs. He died in 1609. The critics in the Netherlands ſet ſo great a value on his poetry, that they gave him the name of the *Belgic Virgil*. He wrote, 1. *De Belgii Principatu.* 2. *Parodia Heroica Pſalmorum Davidicorum.* 3. *Obſervationes Phyſicæ, Ethicæ, Politicæ, et Hiſtoricæ, in Pſalmos.* 4. *Vita Davidis.* 5. *Orationes.* 6. *Poemata.*

BOCHLE, a hill in Banffſhire.

BOCHOUR, *n. ſ. obſ.* A butcher. *Chauc.*

* BOCKELET. } *n. ſ.* A kind of long-winged
* BOCKERET. } hawk. *Dict.*

(1.) BOCKHAM, MAGNA, } Two villages in
(2.) BOCKHAM, PARVA, } Surry, near Leatherhead, 5 miles from Guildford.

BOCKHOLDT, John, a pretended prophet of mong the Anabaptiſts, who, in the beginning of the 16th century, diſgraced that party by his fanaticiſm. He was a journeyman tailor of Leyden, one of Munzer's followers, and an aſſociate of Matthias, who alſo pretended to the gift of prophecy. Theſe two fanatics, in 1533, eſtabliſhed a numerous party at Munſter. Having made themſelves maſters of the city, they depoſed the magiſtrates, confiſcated the eſtates of ſuch as had eſcaped, and depoſited the wealth they amaſſed together in a public treaſury for common uſe. They made preparations of every kind for the defence of the city; and ſent out emiſſaries to the Anabaptiſts in the Low Countries, inviting them to aſſemble at Munſter, which was now dignified with the name of *Mount Sion*, that from hence they might be deputed to reduce all the nations of the earth under their dominion. Matthias, who was the firſt in command, was ſoon cut off in an act of phrenſy, by the biſhop of Munſter's army; and was ſucceeded by Bockholdt, who was proclaimed by a ſpecial deſignation of Heaven, as he pretended, king of Sion, and inveſted with legiſlative powers like thoſe of Moſes. The extravagances of Bockholdt were too numerous to be recited: it will be ſufficient to add, that the city of Munſter was taken after a long ſiege and an obſtinate reſiſtance; and Bockholdt the mock monarch was puniſhed with a moſt painful and ignominious death.

BOCCHOLT, a town of Germany in the circle of Weſtphalia in the dioceſe of Munſter, capital of a ſmall diſtrict, and ſubject to the biſhop of Munſter: 20 miles E. of Gleeff. Lon. 6. 20. E. Lat. 51. 40. N.

BOCK-HORD, [*bochord*, Sax.] a place where books and writings are kept. *Obſ. Bailey.*

BOCKIA, among chemiſts, a large veſſel with a great belly, like a cucurbite. *Bailey.*

BOCKINFIELD, a village in Northumberland, near Eland.

(1.) BOCKING, a pariſh of England, in Eſſex, which, with the adjoining pariſh of BRAIN-TREE, contains about 1500 houſes.

(2.) BOCKING, a very large village in Eſſex in England, adjoining to BRAIN-TREE, from which it is ſeparated only by a ſmall ſtream. Its ſtreets are narrow and badly paved. Its church is a deanery. There are alſo ſome meeting-houſes in it; but the market is held at Brain-tree. There is a large manufactory of bayze, chiefly for exportation. Bocking is 41 miles NE. of London.

BOCKLANA. See BAGLANA.

BOCK-LANDS, in the time of the Saxons, were what we now call *freehold lands*, held by perſons of rank, by charter or deed in writing. It was diſtinguiſhed from *folkland*, or copy-hold land, held by the common people without any written deed.

BOCKLETON, a town in Worceſterſhire, S. of Tenbury.

BOCONNOC, a village in the county of Cornwall, SE. of Leſtwithiel.

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BOCQUI. See BOCHIUS.

BOCTON-ALULPH, a town in Kent, NW. of Wye.

BOCTON-MALHERB, a village in Kent, SW. of Lenham.

BOCTON-STREET, and BOCTON UNDER BLEAN, } two villages in Kent, 5 miles W. of Canterbury.

(1.) BODDOM, a small fishing town on the coast of Aberdeenshire, which contained 192 inhabitants, in 1794.

(2.) BODDOM CASTLE, an ancient fort in Aberdeenshire, seated on a promontory between two very deep fissures, with high craggy rocks on each side, where the sea rolls in with such force, that the spray is often carried over the top of the castle. It is said to have been built by a branch of the Marischal family, and was formerly fortified with cannon, one of which is still in it. It was inhabited so late as the beginning of this century.

(3.) BODDOM-HEAD, a promontory of Scotland, in Aberdeenshire, so named by the natives, but better known among geographers by the name of BUCHAN-NESS, which see.

(1.) BODE, *n. s. obs.* An abode. *Chauc.*

(2.) BODE, *part. obs.* Commanded. *Chauc.*

(1.) * *To* BODE. *v. a.* [*bodian*, Sax.] To portend; to be the omen of. It is used in a sense of either good or bad.

This *bodes* some strange eruption to our state. *Shakesp.*

(2.) * *To* BODE. *v. n.* To be an omen; to foreshew.

BODEGRAVE, a village of Holland, on the Rhine, the inhabitants of which were barbarously used by the French in Dec. 1672. Morcri, in his Dictionary, makes it the scene of a victory obtained by the French over the Dutch, for which he is severely censured by Mr Bayle, who proves that it was only one of their posts, which the French were obliged to abandon, and on which account they used the inhabitants cruelly; but that no battle took place near it.

* BODMENT. *n. s.* [from *bode.*] Portent; omen; prognostick.—

This foolish, dreaming, superstitious girl
Makes all these *bodements.* *Shakes.*

BODEN, a village in Lancash. near Manchester.

BODENTON, a village between Gloucester and Cheltenham.

BODERIA. See BODOTRIA.

* *To* BODGE. *v. n.* [a word in *Shakespeare*, which is perhaps corrupted from *boggle.*] To boggle; to stop; to fail.

BODHAM, a town in Norfolkshire near Holt.

BODIAM, a village in Sussex, 9 m. from Winchelsea. It has a fair, June 6.

BODIANO, in ichthyology, the name of an American fish, of the size of a perch, with a purple back, and yellow sides and belly. It is more usually known among authors by the name of PUDIANO.

* BODICE. *n. s.* [from *bodies.*] Stays; a waistcoat quilted with whalebone, worn by women.

BODICOT, a village in Oxfordshire, within 8 miles of Banbury.

* BODILESS *adj.* [from *body.*] Incorporeal; having no body.

(1) * BODILY. *adj.* [from *body.*] 1. Corporeal; containing body.—What resemblance could wood or stone bear to a spirit void of all sensible qualities, and *bodily* dimensions? *South.* 2. Relating to the body, not the mind.—Of such as resorted to our Saviour Christ, being present on earth, there came not only unto him with better success, for the benefit of their souls everlasting happiness, than they whose *bodily* necessities gave occasion of seeking relief. *Hooker.* 3. Real; actual.

Whatever hath been thought on in this state,
That could be thought to *bodily* act, ere Rome
Had circumvention. *Shakesp.*

(2.) * BODILY. *adv.* Corporeally; united with matter.—It is in human nature, in which the godhead dwells *bodily*, that is advanced to these honours, and to this empire. *Watts.*

BODIN, John, a native of Angers, one of the ablest men in France in the 16th century, famous for his *Method of History*, his *Republic*, and other works. He was in great favour with Henry III. who imprisoned John de Serre for writing an injurious piece against Bodin, and forbid him upon pain of death to publish it. But his favour was not of long continuance. The duke of Alençon, however, gave him several employments; and carried him to England with him as one of his counsellors, where he had the pleasure to see his book *de Republica* read publicly in the university of Cambridge, having been translated from the French into Latin by the English. In the Ragguagli di Boccalini, he is condemned as an atheist to the fire, for having said, that liberty of conscience ought to be granted to sectaries. He declared that the authority of monarchs is unlimited. Upon the death of the duke of Alençon, Bodin retired to Laon, where he married. He had an office in the prefidial of this city; and in Charles IX's time he was the king's solicitor with a commission for the forests of Normandy. He died of the plague at Laon, in 1596.

BODINGTON, two English villages: 1. in Huntingdonshire, near Bugden: 2. in Northamptonshire, N. of Chipping Warden.

BODISHAM-HALL, near Cambridge.

* BODKIN. *n. s.* [*boddken*, or small body, *Skinner.*] 1. An instrument with a small blade and sharp point used to bore holes. 2. An instrument to draw a thread or ribband through a loop. 3. An instrument to dress the hair.

BODLEIAN LIBRARY. See next article.

BODLEY, Sir Thomas, founder of the Bodleian library at Oxford, was born at Exeter, in 1544. When he was about 12 years of age, his father, Mr John Bodley, being a protestant, was obliged to leave the kingdom. He settled at Geneva with his family, and continued there till the death of Q. Mary. In that university, then in its infancy, young Bodley studied the learned languages, &c. under several eminent professors. On the accession of Q. Elizabeth, he returned with his father to England; and was soon after entered of Magdalen college in Oxford. In 1563, he took the degree of B. A. and the year following was admitted fellow of Merton college. In 1565, he read a Greek lecture in the hall of that college; in 1566, he took his degree of M. A. and read natural philosophy in the public schools. In 1569, he

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he was one of the proctors of the univerſity, and, for ſome time officiated as public orator. In 1576, he quitted Oxford, and made the tour of Europe; but returned to his college after 4 years abſence. He became gentleman-uſher to Q. Elizabeth, in 1563; and in 1565 he married the widow of Mr Ball, a lady of fortune. He was ſoon after ſent ambaſſador to the king of Denmark, and other German princes. He was next charged with an important commiſſion to Henry III. of France; and in 1588, went ambaſſador to the United Provinces, where he continued till 1597. On his return to England, finding his preferment obſtructed by the jarring intereſts of Borleigh and Eſſex, he retired from court, and could never afterwards be prevailed upon to accept of any employment. He now began the foundation of the Bodleian library, which was completed in 1599. Soon after the acceſſion of K. James I. he received the honour of knighthood, and died in 1612. He was buried in Merton College. His monument is of black and white marble, on which ſtands his effigy in a ſcholar's gown, ſurrounded with books. At the 4 corners are the emblematical figures of Grammar, Rhetoric, Muſic, and Arithmetic; two angels, &c. with a ſhort inſcription, mentioning his age and time of his death. Sir Thomas was a polite ſcholar, an able ſtateſman, and a worthy man. Mr Granger obſerves, that he merited much as a man of letters, but incomparably more in the ample proviſion he made for literature, in which he ſtands unrivalled; and that his library is a mauſoleum which will perpetuate his memory as long as books themſelves endure. Sir Thomas wrote his own Life to the year 1609; which, with the firſt draught of the Statutes, and his Letters, were publiſhed from the originals in the Bodleian library, by Mr Thomas Hearn, in 1703.

BODMIN, a town of Cornwall in England, ſeated in a bottom between two hills, which renders the air very unwholeſome. It conſiſts chiefly of one ſtreet, and the many decayed houſes ſhow that it has once been a place of greater note. It has a mayor, ſends two members to parliament, and had formerly the privilege of the coinage of tin. It lies 32 m. NE. of Falmouth. Lon. 4. 5. W. Lat. 50. 32. N.

BODON, the ancient VIMINACIUM, a fortified town of Bulgaria in European Turkey, with an archbiſhop's ſee. It is ſeated on the Danube, 26 miles W. of Widon. Lon. 45. 24. E. Lat. 34. 20. N.

BODOTRIA, or BODERIA, the ancient name of the river FORTH.

BODREGEN, a village on the coaſt of Cornwall on Trewardreth bay.

BODRIGY, in Cornwall, near St Ives bay.

BODROCH, a town of Hungary, ſeated on the NE. ſhore of the Danube, 100 miles SE. of Buda. Lon. 20. 20. E. Lat. 46. 15. N.

BODRUN. See TROS.

BODTY, in zoology, an American ſnake, a ſpecies of the AMPHISBÆNA; called alſo IBIJARA,

(1.) * BODY. *n. ſ.* [*bodig*, Saxon; it originally ſignified the height or ſtature of a man.] 1. The material ſubſtance of an animal oppoſed to the immaterial ſoul. 2. Matter; oppoſed to ſpirit. 3 A perſon; a human being: whence *ſomebody* and *nobody*. 4. Reality; oppoſed to repreſentation: a ſcriptural ſenſe. 5. A collective maſs; a joint power. 6. The main army; the battle; diſtinct from the wings, van and rear. 7. A corporation; a number of men united by ſome common tye. 8. The main part; the bulk: as, the *body* of a church; the *body*, or trunk, of a man; the *body*, or trunk of a tree.—Thence ſent rich merchandize by boat to Babylon, from whence, by the *body* of Euphrates, as far as it is bended weſtward, and, afterward by a branch thereof. *Raleigh.*—This city has navigable rivers, that run up into the *body* of Italy. *Addiſ.* 9. A ſubſtance; matter as diſtinguiſhed from other matter. 10. [In geometry.] Any ſolid figure. 11. A pandect; a general collection: as, a *body* of the civil law; a *body* of divinity. 12. Strength; as wine of a good *body*.

(2.) BODY, as above diſtinguiſhed from the ſoul (§ 1. *Def.* 1) makes the ſubject of anatomy, The height of the human body is ſaid to be different in different parts of the day; ordinarily it is an inch more in the morning than at night. The body ceaſes to grow in height, when the bones are arrived at a degree of firmneſs and rigidity, which will not allow of a farther extenſion by the effort of the heart and motion of the blood.

(3.) BODY, in painting, or *To* BEAR A BODY, ſignifies that the colours are of ſuch a nature, as to be capable of being ground ſo fine, and mixing with the oil ſo entirely, as to ſeem only a very thick oil of the ſame colour.

(4.) BODY, in phyſics, an extended ſolid ſubſtance, of itſelf utterly paſſive and inactive, indifferent either to motion or reſt.

(5.) BODY, in the art of war, a number of forces, horſe and foot united and marching under one commander. See § 1. *Def.* 6.

(6.) BODY, in the manege. A horſe is chiefly ſaid to have a *good body*, when he is full in the flank. If the laſt of the ſhort ribs be at a conſiderable diſtance from the haunch bone, although ſuch horſes may for a time have pretty good bodies, yet, if they are much laboured they will loſe them; and theſe are properly the horſes that have no flank. It is alſo a general rule, that a man ſhould not buy a light bodied horſe, and one that is fiery, becauſe he will ſoon deſtroy himſelf.

* *To* BODY. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To produce in ſome form.—

As imagination *bodies forth*
The forms of things unknown, the poet's pen
Turns them to ſhape. *Shakeſpeare.*

* BODY-CLOATHS. *n. ſ.* [from *body* and *cloaths*.] Cloathing for horſes that are dieted.—I am informed, that ſeveral aſſes are kept in *body-cloaths*, and ſweated every morning upon the heath. *Addiſon.*

BODYKIN. *n. ſ. obſ.* A little body.

BOECE, or BOETHIUS, Hector, the hiſtorian was born at Dundee about A. D. 1470, and ſtudied with applauſe in the univerſity of Paris, where he became acquainted with Eraſmus, and laid the foundation of a friendſhip which was honourable to him. In 1500 he was recalled to Aberdeen by Biſhop Ephlinſton, who made him principal of that univerſity. Gratitude for this promotion engaged him to write with particular attention

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attention the Life of that prelate. It appeared in his hiſtory of the dioceſe of Aberdeen; and may be conſidered, perhaps, as the moſt valuable portion of that work. His Hiſtory of Scotland, a more uſeful undertaking, was firſt publiſhed in 1526. In 1574 it underwent a 2d impreſſion, and was enriched with the 18th book and a part of the 19th. A farther continuation of it was executed by Joannes Ferrerius Pedemontanus. Boece died about A. D. 1550. He has been compared, and not without reaſon, to Geoffroy of Monmouth. He had a propenſity to fable and exaggeration: a fault, for which the elegance of his expreſſion does not compenſate. His judgment was not equal to his genius; and his fictions as a hiſtorian are a contraſt to his probity as a man. John Ballenden archdeacon of Murray, tranſlated his hiſtory into the Scottiſh language at the deſire of James V. This tranſlation Will. Harriſon converted, though with imperfections, into Engliſh; and his aſſociate Hollingſhed publiſhed his work in his Chronicle, with additions and improvements by the ingenious Francis Thynne.

BOEDODOE, a village on the coaſt of Guinea.

BOEDROMIA, in antiquity, ſolemn feaſts held at Athens, in memory of the ſuccour brought by Ion to the Athenians, when invaded by Eumolpus ſon of Neptune, in the reign of Erectheus. But according to Plutarch, the boedromia were celebrated in memory of the victory obtained by Theſeus over the Amazons, in the month Boedromion.

BOEDROMION, in chronology, the 3d month of the Athenian year, anſwering to the latter part of Auguſt and beginning of September.

BOEHMEN, Jacob, called the *Teutonic Philoſopher*, was a noted viſionary of the 17th century, born in a village of Germany, near Gorlitz, in 1575. He was bred a ſhoemaker; and marrying, ſupported a large family by this occupation; until, after amuſing himſelf with chemiſtry, a viſionary turn of mind, heated by ſermons and German divinity, got the better of his common ſenſe, and produced raptures and notions of divine illumination. Theſe he firſt gave vent to, in 1612, by a treatiſe entitled *Aurora, or the riſing of the Sun!* being a mixture of aſtrology, philoſophy, chemiſtry, and divinity, written in a quaint obſcure ſtyle. This being cenſured by the magiſtrates of Gorlitz, he remained ſilent for 6 years: but improving that interval by purſuing the flights of his imagination, he reſumed his pen; and reſolving to redeem the time he had loſt, he, in the remaining 6 years of his life, publiſhed above 20 books, which greatly needed what he concluded with. *A table of his principles, or a key to his writings*; though this has not proved ſufficient to render them intelligible to a common underſtanding. The key appeared in 1624, and he did not long ſurvive it. For early in the morning of the 18th of November that year, he called one of his ſons, and aſked him "if he alſo heard that excellent muſic?" to which being anſwered in the negative, he ordered the door to be ſet open, that the muſick might be the better heard. He aſked afterwards what o'clock it was? and being told it had ſtruck two, he ſaid, "It is not yet my time; my time is 3 hours hence." In the interim he was heard to ſpeak theſe words; "O thou ſtrong God of hoſts, deliver me according to thy will! O thou crucified Lord Jeſus, have mercy upon me, and receive me into thy kingdom!" When it was near ſix o'clock, he took his leave of his wife and ſons, and bleſſed them, and ſaid, "Now I go hence into paradiſe;" then bidding his ſon turn him, he immediately expired his laſt breath in a deep ſigh. Many have been inveigled by the viſions of this fanatic, notwithſtanding his talent in involving the plaineſt things in myſtery and ænigmatical jargon. Among others, the famous Quirinus Kahlman may be reckoned the principal of his followers in Germany; who ſays, he had learned more alone in his ſtudy from Boehmen, than he could have learned from all the wiſe men of that age together; and, that we may not be left in the dark as to what ſort of knowledge this was, he acquaints us, that amidſt an infinite number of viſions it happened, that being ſnatched out of his ſtudy, he ſaw thouſands of thouſands of lights riſing round about him. Nor has Boehmen been without numerous admirers in England; among whom is the famous Mr William Law, author of *Chriſtian Perfection*, &c. who publiſhed an Engliſh edition of Jacob Boehmen's works in 2 vols 4to.

BOEHMENISTS, the followers of Jacob Boehmen. See laſt article.

BOEN, a town of France, in the departments of Rhone and Loire, and ci-devant province of Forez.

(1.) BŒOTIA, an ancient kingdom of Greece, founded or rather reſtored by Cadmus, and ſo named by him, from the ox which is ſaid to have directed him to the place where he built the capital of his new kingdom, better known afterwards by the name of THEBES. But as the inhabitants were ſcarce ever diſtinguiſhed as a nation by the name of BOEOTIANS, but of THEBANS, we refer to the article THEBES for their hiſtory, &c.

(2.) BOEOTIA, an ancient kingdom of Theſſaly, ſaid to have been founded by BOEOTUS. See BOEOTIANS.

BŒOTIANS, the inhabitants of BOEOTIA, (N. 2.) All that we know of theſe Bœotians is, that they held this ſettlement upwards of 200 years; and that the Theſſalians expelled them from it; upon which they came and took poſſeſſion of that country, which till then had been called CADMEIS, and gave it the name of *Bœotia*. Diodorus and Homer tells us, that theſe Bœotians ſignalized themſelves at the Trojan war; and the latter adds that five of Bœotus's grandſons, viz. Peneleus, Leitus, Prothœnor, Arceſilaus, and Clonius, were the chiefs who led the Bœotian troops thither.

BŒOTUS, in fabulous hiſtory, the ſon of Neptune and brother of Æolus, by Arne the daughter of Æolus king of Æolis. This laſt, having ſent his daughter to Metapontium a city of Italy. He was there delivered of thoſe two ſons, the eldeſt of whom ſhe called after her father's name *Æolus*; and he poſſeſſed himſelf of the iſlands in the Tyrrhenian, now the Tuſcan ſea, and built the city of Lipara. Bœotus the younger ſon went to his grandfather and ſucceeded him in his kingdom, called it after his own name, and the capital city *Arne* from his mother.

BOERHAAVE, Herman, one of the greateſt phyſicians

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phyſicians, as well as the beſt of men, that this or perhaps any age has ever produced, was born in 1668 at Vorhout, village near Leyden. At the age of 16 he found himſelf without parents, protection, advice, or fortune. He had already ſtudied theology and the other eccleſiaſtical ſciences, with the deſign of devoting himſelf to a clerical life; but the ſcience of nature, which equally engaged his attention, ſoon engroſſed his whole time. This illuſtrious perſon, whoſe name afterwards ſpread throughout the world, and who left at his death above L. 200,000, could at that time barely live by his labours, and was compelled to teach the mathematics to obtain neceſſaries. But in 1693, being admitted M. D. he began practice; and his merit being at length diſcovered, many powerful friends patronized him, and procured him 3 profeſſorſhips in the univerſity of Leyden: viz. thoſe of medicine, chemiſtry, and botany. The Academy of Sciences at Paris, and the Royal Society at London, invited him to become one of their members. He communicated to each his diſcoveries in chemiſtry. The city of Leyden became in his time the ſchool of Europe for this ſcience, as well as medicine and botany. All the princes in Europe ſent him diſciples, who found in this ſkilful profeſſor, not only an indefatigable teacher, but a tender father, who encouraged them to purſue their labours, conſoled them in their afflictions, and ſolaced them in their wants. When Peter the Great went to Holland in 1715, to inſtruct himſelf in maritime affairs, he alſo attended Boerhaave. His reputation was ſpread as far as China: a Mandarine wrote to him with this inſcription, "To the illuſtrious Boerhaave, phyſician in Europe;" and the letter came regularly to him. The city of Leyden has raiſed a monument in the church of St Peter, to the ſalutary genius of Boerhaave, *Salutifero Boerhavii genio ſacrum*. It conſiſts of an urn upon a pedeſtal of black marble: ſix heads, 4 of which repreſent the 4 ages of life, and two the ſciences in which Boerhaave excelled, from a group iſſuing between the urn and its ſupporters. The capital of this baſis is decorated with a drapery of white marble, in which the artiſt has ſhown the different emblems of diſorders and their remedies. Above, upon the ſurface of the pedeſtal, is the medallion of Boerhaave: at the extremity of the frame, a ribband diſplays the favourite motto of this learned man; *Simplex vigilum veri*, "Truth unarrayed." It has been affirmed, that from the time of Hippocrates, no phyſician has more juſtly merited the eſteem of his cotemporaries, and the thanks of poſterity, than Boerhaave. He united to an uncommon genius, and extraordinary talents, the qualities of the heart, which gave them ſo great a value to ſociety. He made a decent, ſimple, and venerable appearance, particularly when age had changed the colour of his hair. He was an eloquent orator, and declaimed with dignity and grace. He taught very methodically, and with great preciſion; he never tired his auditors, but they always regretted that his diſcourſes were finiſhed. He would ſometimes give them a lively turn with raillery; but his raillery was refined and ingenious and it enlivened the ſubjects he treated of, without carrying with it any thing ſevere or ſatirical. A declared foe to all exceſs, he conſidered decent mirth as the ſalt of life. It was his daily practice through life, as ſoon as he roſe in the morning, which was generally very early, to retire for an hour to prayer and meditation on ſome part of the Scriptures. He often told his friends, when they aſked him how it was poſſible for him to go through ſo much fatigue? that it was *this* which gave him ſpirit and vigour in the buſineſs of the day. *This* he therefore recommended as *the beſt rule* he could give: for nothing, he ſaid, could tend more to the health of the body than the tranquillity of the mind; and that he knew nothing which could ſupport himſelf, or his fellow-creatures, amidſt the various diſtreſſes of life, but a well-grounded confidence in the ſupreme Being upon the principles of Chriſtianity. This was ſtrongly exemplified in his own ſevere illneſs in 1722, by which the courſe of his lectures as well as his practice was long interrupted. He was for five months confined to his bed by the gout, where he lay upon his back without daring to attempt the leaſt motion; becauſe any effort renewed his torments, which were ſo exquiſite, that he was at length not only deprived of motion but of ſenſe. Here his medical art was at a ſtand: nothing could be attempted, becauſe nothing could be propoſed with the leaſt proſpect of ſucceſs. But having (in the 6th month of his illneſs) obtained ſome remiſſion he determined to try whether the juice of fumitory, endive, or ſuccory, taken thrice a day in a large quantity, (*viz.* above half a pint each doſe,) might not contribute to his relief; and by a preſeverance in this method he was wonderfully recovered. His patience was founded not on vain reaſonings, like that of which the Stoics boaſted: but on a religious compoſure of mind, and Chriſtian reſignation to the will of God. Of his ſagacity and the wonderful penetration, with which he often diſcovered and deſcribed at the firſt ſight of a patient, ſuch diſtempers as betray themſelves by no ſymptoms to common eyes, ſuch ſurpriſing accounts have been given, and ſcarcely can be credited, though atteſted beyond all doubt. Yet he was ſo far from a preſumptuous confidence in his abilities, or from being puffed up by his riches, that he was condeſcending to all, and remarkably diligent in his profeſſion: and he often uſed to ſay, that the life of a patient, (if trifled with or neglected,) would one day be required at the hand of the phyſician. He always called the poor his *beſt patients*; for God (ſaid he) is their paymaſter. The activity of his mind ſparkled viſibly in his eyes. He was always cheerful, and deſirous of promoting every valuable end of converſation; but the excellency of the Chriſtian religion was frequently the ſubject of it: for he aſſerted on all proper occaſions, the divine authority and ſacred efficacy of the Scriptures; and maintained, that they only could give peace of mind, that ſweet and ſacred peace which paſſeth all underſtanding; ſince none can conceive it but he who has it; and none can have it but by divine communication. He never regarded calumny nor detraction, (for Boerhaave himſelf had enemies,) nor ever thought it neceſſary to confute them. "They are ſparks, (ſaid he,) which, if you do not blow, will go out of themſelves.

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themselves. The surest remedy against scandal, is to *live it down* by a perservance in well doing; and by praying to God that he would cure the distempered minds of those who traduce and injure us." Being once asked by a friend, who had often admired his patience under great provocations, whether he knew what it was to be angry, and by what means he had so entirely suppressed that impetuous and ungovernable passion? he answered, with the utmost frankness and sincerity, that he was naturally quick of resentment; but that he had, by daily prayer and meditation, at length attained to this mastery over himself. About the middle of the year 1737, he felt the first approaches of that fatal illness which brought him to the grave *viz.* a disorder in his breast, which was at times very painful, often threatened him with immediate suffocation, and terminated in an universal dropsy; but during this lingering illness, his constancy and firmness did not forsake him; he neither intermitted the necessary cares of life, nor forgot the proper preparations for death. About 3 weeks before his dissolution, when the Rev. Mr Schultens, one of the most learned divines of the age, attended him at his country house, the Doctor desired his prayers, and afterwards entered into a discourse with him on the spiritual and immaterial nature of the soul. This he illustrated to Mr Schultens, by a description of the effects which the infirmities of his body had upon his faculties; which yet they did not so oppress or vanquish, but his soul was always master of itself, and resigned to the pleasure of its maker —and then he added, "He who loves God ought to think nothing desirable, but what is most pleasing to the supreme goodness." Such were his sentiments and conduct in this state of weakness and pain. As death approached nearer, he was so far from terror or confusion, that he seemed less sensible of pain, and more cheerful under his torments, which continued till the 23d day of Sept. 1738, on which he died, between 4 and 5, A. M. in the 70th year of his age—often recommending to the bye-standers a careful observation of St John's precepts, concerning the love of God and man, inculcated in his 1st epistle, particularly in chap. v. His funeral oration was spoken in Latin before the university of Leyden to a very numerous audience, by Mr Schultens, and afterwards published at their particular desire. He wrote, 1. *Institutiones Medicæ.* 2. *Aphorismi de cognoscendis & curandis Morbis.* 3. *Institutiones & Experimenta Chemicæ.* 4. *Libellus de Materia Medica, et remediorum formulis quæ serviunt aphorismis.* 5. *Elementa Chemiæ.* 6. *De studio Hippocratico.* 7. *De usu ratiocinii mechanici in medicina.* 8. *De comparando certo in Physicis.* 9. *De vita Bernardi Albani.* 10 & 11. *Indices Plantarum in horto Lugd. Bat.* 12. *De fabrica glandularum.* 13. & 14. *Atrocium morborum historiæ.* 14. *De Lue Aphrodisiaca.*

BOERHAAVIA; a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the monandria class of plants. There is no calyx; the corolla is monopetalous, campanulated, and plaited; and the seed is one, naked, and below. There are six species, all natives of the Indies. Some of their plants rise 5 or 6 feet high, but most of them only 18 inches or 2 feet. They carry flowers of a yellow or red colour.

BOESCHOT, a town of France, in one of the new departments, and ci-devant Austrian Netherlands. Lon. 4. 45. E. Lat. 51. 5. N.

(1.) BOETHIUS, Hector. See BOECE.

(2.) BOETHIUS, or } Flavius Anicius Manlius
BOETIUS, } Torquatus Severinus, a prose as well as political writer of the 6th century, descended of one of the noblest families in Rome. He was born about the period when Augustulus, whose fears had induced him to a resignation of the empire, was banished, and Odoacer king of the Herulians began to reign in Italy, *viz.* about A. D. 479. Boetius's father dying while he was an infant, his relations undertook the care of his education. His excellent parts were soon discovered; and, to enrich his mind with the study of philosophy, as well as to perfect him in the Greek language, he was sent to Athens. Returning young to Rome, he was soon distinguished and promoted to the principal dignities in the state, and at length to the consulate. Though living in great affluence and splendor, he studied theology, mathematics, ethics, and logic; and his success in each of these branches, appears from his works still extant. The great offices which he bore in the state, and his consummate wisdom and inflexible integrity, procured him such a share in the public councils, as proved in the end his destruction; for as he employed his interest with the king for the protection and encouragement of deserving men, so he exerted his utmost efforts in the detection of fraud, the repression of violence, and the defence of the state against invaders. At this time Theodoric the Goth had attempted to ravage Campania; and it was owing to the vigilance and resolution of Boetius that that country was preserved from destruction. At length, Theodoric, having murdered Odoacer, became king of Italy, where he governed 33 years with prudence and moderation, during which time Boetius possessed a large share of his esteem and confidence. About this time Justin, emperor of the east, made an edict condemning all the Arians, except the Goths, to perpetual banishment from the eastern empire: in this edict Hormisda bishop of Rome, and the senate, concurred. But Theodoric, who was an Arian, was extremely troubled at it; and conceived an aversion against the senate for the share they had borne in this proscription. Of this disposition in the king, 3 men of profligate lives and desperate fortunes, Gaudentius, Opilio, and Basilius, took advantage. Entertaining a secret desire of revenge against Boetius, for having been instrumental in the dismission of Basilius from a lucrative employment, they accused him of several crimes; such as the stifling a charge, the end whereof was to involve the whole senate in the guilt of treason; and an attempt, by dethroning the king, to restore the liberty of Italy; and, lastly, they suggested, that, to acquire the honours he was in possession of, Boetius had recourse to magical art. Boetius was at this time at a great distance from Rome; however, Theodoric transmited the complaint to the senate, enforcing it with a suggestion that the safety, as well of the people as the prince, was rendered very precarious

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precarious by this supposed design to exterminate the Goths. The senate, perhaps fearing the resentment of the king, and having nothing to hope from the success of an enterprise, which supposing it ever to have been meditated, was now rendered abortive, without summoning him to his defence, condemned Boetius to death. The king, however, apprehending some bad consequence from the execution of a sentence so flagrantly unjust mitigated it to banishment. The place of his exile was Ticinum, now Pavia, in Italy; being in that place separated from his relations, who had not been permitted to follow him into his retirement, he endeavoured to derive from philosophy those comforts which it was capable of affording to one in his forlorn situation, sequestered from his friends, in the power of his enemies, and at the mercy of a capricious tyrant; and accordingly he there composed that valuable discourse, entitled, *De Consolatione Philosophiæ*. About two years after his banishment, Boetius was beheaded in prison by the command of Theodoric. His tomb is to be seen in the church of St Augustine, at Pavia, near the steps of the chancel. The extensive learning and eloquence of this great man are conspicuous in his works, which seem to have been collected with great care; an edition of them was printed at Venice, in 1 volume folio, in 1499. In 1570, Glareanus, of Basil, collated that with several MSS. and published it, with a few various readings in the margin. His chief performance, *De Consolatione Philosophiæ*, is well known in the learned world, and to which the afflicted have often applied. Our Saxon king Alfred, whose reign, though happy upon the whole, was attended with great vicissitudes of fortune, had recourse to it at a time when his distresses compelled him to seek retirement; and that he might the better impress upon his mind the noble sentiments inculcated in it, he made a complete transslation of it into the Saxon language, which within these few years, has been given to the world in its proper character. And Camden relates, that queen Elizabeth, during the time of her confinement by her sister Mary, to mitigate her grief, read and afterwards translated it into very elegant English. Boetius is also the most considerable of all the Latin writers on music; and his treatise *De Musica* supplied for some centuries the want of those Greek MSS. which were supposed to have been lost.

BOFFRAND, Germain, a celebrated French architect, was the son of a sculptor by a sister of the famous Quinaut, and was born at Nantes in 1667. He was trained under Harduin Mansarad, who trusted him with the execution of his greatest works. His manner of building approached to that of Palladio. He was employed by many German princes, and constructed a number of canals, bridges, &c. He was admitted into the French academy, and wrote a book on the principles of architecture, with an account of the various plans, elevations, &c. of the principal works he executed in France and elsewhere. He was a man of a disinterested spirit, and pleasing manners. He died at Paris in 1755, aged 88.

(1.) * BOG. *n. s.* [*bog*, soft, Irish, *bague*, Fr.] A marsh; a morass; ground too soft to bear the weight of the body.—Through fire and through flame, through ford and whirlpool, o'er *bog* and quagmire. *Shakespeare.*

A gulf profound! as that Serbonian *bog*,
Betwixt Damiata and mount Casius old. *Milton.*

—He walks upon *bogs* and whirpools; wheresoever he treads he sinks. *South.*—

Learn from so great a wit, a land of *bogs*,
With ditches fenc'd, a haven fat with bogs.
Dryden.

—He is drawn, by a sort of *ignis fatuus*, into *bogs* and mire almost every day of his life. *Watts.*

(2.) BOG properly signifies a quagmire covered with grass, but not solid enough to support the weight of the body, in which sense it differs only from marshes or fens, as a part from the whole; some even restrict the term *bog* to quagmires pent up between two hills; whereas fens lie in champaign and low countries, where the descent is very small.—To drain boggy lands, a good method is, to make trenches of a sufficient depth to carry off the moisture; and if these are partly filled up with rough stones, and then covered with thorn-bushes and straw, to keep the earth from filling up the interstices, a stratum of good earth and turf may be laid over all; the cavities among the stones will give passage to the water, and the turf will grow at top as if nothing had been done.

(3.) BOG, in geography, or BUG, a river of Poland, anciently called HYPANIS. It rises in Podolia, from whence it runs SE. through that province and Boziak Tartary; and, after joining the Dniper, falls into the Black Sea, between Oczakow and the mouth of the Borysthenes.

(4.) BOG, or BOG OF GIGHT, a small town of Scotland, seated near the mouth of the river Spey. Lon. 2. 23. W. Lat. 57. 48. N.

BOGA, in ichthyology, a fish caught in the Mediterranean, and sold at Naples and Messina, called by authors BOOPS. It is a species of Sparus.

BOGARMITÆ. See BOGOMILI.

* *To* BOGGLE. *v. n.* [from *bogil*, Dutch, a spectre; a bugbear; a phantom.] 1. To start; to fly back; to fear to come forward.—

You *boggle* shrewdly; every feather starts you. *Shakespeare.*

—We start and *boggle* at every unusual appearance, and cannot endure the sight of a bugbear. *Granville.*—

Nature, that rude, and in her first essay,
Stood *boggling* at the roughness of the way;
Us'd to the road, unknowing to return,
Goes boldly on, and loves the path when worn.
Dryden.

2. To hesitate; to be in doubt.—

And never *boggle* to restore
The members you deliver o'er,
Upon demand. *Hudibras.*

—The well-shaped changeling is a man that has a rational soul, say you. Make the ears a little longer, and more pointed, and the nose a little flatter than ordinary, and then you begin to *boggle*. *Locke.* 3. To play fast and loose; to dissemble.—When summoned to his last end, it was no time for him to *boggle* with the world. *Howel.*

* BOGGLER. *n. s.* [from *boggle*.] A doubter; a timorous man.—

You have been a *boggler* ever. *Shakespeare.*

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(1.) * BOGGY. *adj.* [from *bog*.] Marſhy; ſwampy.—Their country was very narrow, low, and *boggy*, and, by great induſtry and expences, defended from the ſea. *Arbuthnot.*

(2.) BOGGY LANDS, METHOD OF DRAINING. See BOG, § 1. and DRAINING.

BOGHO. See BOGLIO, N° 1.

* BOGHOUSE. *n. ſ.* [from *bog* and *houſe*.] A houſe of office.

BOGIE, a river in Aberbeenſhire, which communicates with the Deveron, and along with it runs into the Murray Frith, at Banff.

(1.) BOGLIO, or BUEIL, a diſtrict in the county of Nice, in Piedmont, belonging to the K. of Sardinia. The Tinca runs through it. Some erroneouſly ſpell the name BOGHO.

(2.) BOGLIO, or BUEIL, the capital of the above diſtrict, (N° 1.) Lon. 6. 45. E. Lat. 44. 12. N.

BOGNOR, a village on the coaſt of Suſſex, near Selſey.

BOGOGNANI, a town in Corſica, the inhabitants of which, in June 1796, made a ſpirited reſiſtance to ſome meaſures of Sir Gilbert Elliot, while he was viceroy of that iſland, which they deemed inconſiſtent with the ſpirit of the New Conſtitution. Sir Gilbert at firſt tried coercive meaſures, but finding that he had been miſled, he, much to his honour, ſtopt hoſtilities, publiſhed a general amneſty, and promiſed redreſs.

BOGOMILI, or BOGARMITÆ, in church hiſtory, a ſect of heretics, which ſprung up about the year 1179. They held that the uſe of churches, of the ſacrament of the Lord's Supper, and all prayer, except the Lord's Prayer, ought to be aboliſhed; that the baptiſm of Catholics is imperfect; that the perſons of the Trinity are unequal; and that they oftentimes made themſelves viſible to thoſe of their ſect. They ſaid, that devils dwelt in the churches, and that Satan had reſided in the temple of Solomon from the deſtruction of Jeruſalem to their own time.

BOGOTO, the capital of New Grenada in Terra Firma in South America, near which are gold mines. It is ſubject to Spain. Lon. 73. 55. W. Lat. 4. 0. N.

BOGRIELANE, a river of Scotland, in the county of Kircudbright.

BOG-SPAVIN. See FARRIERY.

* BOG-TROTTER. *n. ſ.* [from *bog* and *trot*.] One that lives in a boggy country.

BOGUD, an ancient king of Mauritania, who is ſaid to have given name to

BOGUDIANA, a part of Mauritania Tingitana, in Africa.

BOHAN, a Reubenite, who appears to have done ſome great exploits in the conqueſt of Canaan; a ſtone having been erected to his honour, on the frontier between Judah and Benjamin. See Joſh. xv. and xviii. 17.

BOHARM, a pariſh of Scotland, in the counties of Banff and Moray, to which is joined a part of the pariſh of DUNDURCOS. It is between 7 and 9 miles in length, and from 2 to 3 in breadth but the form of it is quite irregular. The ſoil is partly ſandy, warm and fertile, and partly a ſtiff deep rich clay. Oats, barley, and peaſe are the principal productions. The climate is moiſt, but healthy, and longevity is not uncommon. There was one woman near 100, and ſeveral above 80, in 1794. The population was then 1294, as ſtated by the rev. Mr Leſlie, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair; and had increaſed 459, within the laſt 40 years. There are conſiderable clumps of natural woods, interſperſed with wild cherry, plum, and other fruit trees, beſides extenſive plantations of foreſt trees, in the pariſh.

(1.) * BOHEA. *n. ſ.* [an Indian word.] A ſpecies of tea, of higher colour, and more aſtringent taſte, than green tea.—Coarſe pewter, conſiſting chiefly of lead, is part of the bales in which *bohea* tea was brought from China. *Woodward.*—

As ſome frail cup of China's faireſt mold,
The tumult of the boiling *bohea* braves,
And holds ſecure the coffee's ſable waves.
Tickell.

She went from op'ra, park, aſſembly, play,
To morning walks, and pray'rs three hours a-day;
To part her time 'twixt reading and *bohea*,
To muſe and ſpill her ſolitary tea. *Pope.*

(2.) BOHEA. See TEA.

(I. 1.) BOHEMIA, a kingdom of Europe, 200 m. long and 150 broad, ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria, and ſurrounded on every ſide with natural ramparts of woods and mountains. It is bounded on the E. by Moravia (which however is annexed to it,) and part of Sileſia; on the N. by Loſatia and Upper Saxony; on the W. by Franconia and Bavaria; and on the S. by Auſtria. Although it is ſituated in the middle of Germany, and its king is an elector of the empire, it has its aſſemblies, cuſtoms, and language, different from the Germans. It is one of the moſt elevated countries of Europe: for no river enters into it, though many have their ſource there; the chief of which are the Elb, the Oder, the Viſtula, and the Morava. The air is cold and unwholeſome; for they have more epidemical diſeaſes than in the neighbouring countries. There are mines of ſilver, copper, lead, tin, and ſome veins of gold, beſides diamonds and other precious ſtones: The capital is Prague; the other cities are Cuttenburg, Konigengratz, Pilſen, Czaſlaw, Budweys, Egra, Glatz, Tabor, and beſides, near 100 others, among which almoſt 40 have the title of Royal. The Roman Catholic is the eſtabliſhed religion, though there are many proteſtants.

(2.) BOHEMIA, GOVERNMENT OF. The government of Bohemia differs from that of all other ſtates, the affairs of the ſtate being managed by ſix different courts: viz. 1ſt, the council of regency, or the great royal council, in which preſides the great judge or burgrave of Bohemia, and who has under him 18 lieutenants of the king and other aſſeſſors: 2. the council or ſuperior chamber of juſtice, at which the great maſter of the kingdom is preſident: 3. the chamber of fiefs: 4. the new tribunal to judge the appeals of the German vaſſals in their differences on the account of fiefs; which court has alſo its preſident, vice-preſident, and aſſeſſors: 5. the royal chamber of finances, which has a preſident and vice-preſident: and, 6. the chancery, which always follows the court. Beſides,

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fides, every circle of Bohemia is governed by two bailiffs, who adminiſter juſtice in their prefectures. The ſtates are compoſed of the clergy, lords, nobles, and burghers. A grand bailiff governs Moravia in the name of the king of Bohemia, as Margrave of Moravia. He is at the head of the royal council, which is compoſed of 3 aſſeſſors, and in which all is tranſacted in the name of the king. This province is divided into 5 circles, each of which has its bailiff. There are, beſides, other officers of juſtice, who have a right of judging only at certain times, and in particular caſes, where an appeal is allowed. Bohemia was divided by the emperor Charles IV. into 12 provinces, in each of which he ordered two captains to be appointed every year for the adminiſtration of the government. He alſo cauſed the church of Prague to be erected into an archbiſhopric, with this advantage, that the archbiſhop of Prague ſhould have the prerogative that the archbiſhop of Mentz formerly enjoyed, viz. of crowning the king of Bohemia. The duchy of Sileſia, and the marquiſates of Moravia, and Luſace, formerly held of this crown, but now only that of Moravia, which is incorporated with the kingdom of Bohemia, and is in the poſſeſſion of the houſe of Auſtria.

(3.) BOHEMIA, HISTORY OF. The name *Bohemia*, in the German language, ſignifies the *home*, or *abode*, *of the* BOII, a people of ancient Gaul, who, under their leader Sergoveſus, ſettled in that country about A. A. C. 590. Theſe Boii were ſoon after expelled by the Marcomanni, a nation of the Suevi, who were afterwards ſubdued by the Sclavi, a people of Scythia, whoſe language is ſtill ſpoken in Bohemia and Moravia. Notwithſtanding this expulſion of the Boii, the preſent inhabitants are ſtill called BOHEMIANS by foreigners, but the natives call themſelves ZECHS. At firſt they were governed by dukes; but the emperor Otho I. conquered the duke of Bohemia, and reduced the province under the empire. Afterwards Henry V. gave the title of *king* to Ladiſlaus duke of Bohemia; and ſince that time theſe kings have been electors and chief cup-bearers of the empire, and the kingdom has been elective; which privileges have been confirmed by the golden bull. Formerly the kings of Bohemia received the kingdom as a fief of the empire, which ceremony was practiſed upon the frontiers; after which, the ſtandards of the principalities of which it is compoſed were given to them, without being torn and given to the people, as is done with the enſigns of the other fiefs of the empire. Ferdinand I. of Auſtria, having married Anne, ſiſter of Lewis, laſt king of Bohemia, who died without iſſue, and being elected king, that kingdom has remained in his family ever ſince. But the crown is ſtill conferred with ſome appearance of election; which right the ſtates of Bohemia ſtill claim, though by the treaty of Weſtphalia, Bohemia was declared hereditary in the houſe of Auſtria. The moſt remarkable occurrences in the Bohemian hiſtory is the rebellion of the diſciples of John Huſs, and Jerome of Prague, on account of their leaders having been burnt as heretics. This occaſioned a bloody war of 16 years continuance; for an account of which, ſee HUSSITES.

(4.) BOHEMIA, PRIVILEGES OF THE KING AND STATES OF. The king of Bohemia is the firſt ſecular elector, and gives his opinion after the elector of Cologn; tho' he does not aſſiſt at the aſſembly of the electors, except at the election of an emperor. For theſe 200 years paſt, they have not appeared at the collegiate aſſemblies, nor even at the imperial diets. However, in 1708, the emperor cauſed one of his deputies, in quality of king of Bohemia, to enter into the college of electors at the diet of Ratiſbon, by the form of readmiſſion, together with the deputy of the elector of Brunſwick. The ſtates of Bohemia have never been comprehended in the government, or in the circles of the empire; they are not ſubject to any of its juriſdictions, nor to the Roman months, taxes, or public contributions; and they owe nothing to the empire, but what the emperor Leopold voluntarily impoſed upon himſelf, which amounted to 6000 livres a-year for the imperial chamber. The king pays homage to the emperor and the empire for his ſtates as firſt ſecular elector. In other reſpects he has a right to exerciſe, through the whole extent of his dominions, all the authority of royalty, provided he do not violate the laws of the kingdom; according to which he cannot raiſe contributions or taxes, but at the time when the ſtates are aſſembled, the appointing of which is entirely in their own power.

(II.) BOHEMIA, a ſhort navigable river of the United States, in the Eaſtern Shore of Maryland. It riſes near the diviſional line of the State of Delaware, and after running W. about 6 m. turns WNW. and falls into the Elk, about 4 m. above Turkey-point.

(1.) BOHEMIAN, *adj.* belonging to Bohemia.

(2.) BOHEMIAN BOLE. See BOLE, § II. N° 2.

(3.) BOHEMIAN BRETHREN, a ſect of Chriſtian reformers which ſprung up in Bohemia in 1467. They treated the pope and cardinals as antichriſt, and the church of Rome as the whore predicted in the Revelation. They rejected the ſacrament of the Romiſh church, and choſe laymen for their miniſters. They held the Scriptures to be the only rule of Faith, rejected the Popiſh ceremonies in the celebration of maſs, and uſed no other prayer but the Lord's Prayer. They conſecrated leavened bread. They allowed no adoration but of Jeſus Chriſt, in the communion. They rebaptized all ſuch as joined them. They abhorred the worſhip of ſaints and images, prayers for the dead, celibacy, vows, and faſts; and kept no feſtivals but Chriſtmas, Eaſter, and Whitſuntide. In 1504, they were accuſed by the Catholics to king Ladiſlaus II. who publiſhed an edict againſt them, forbidding them to hold any meetings either privately or publicly. When Luther declared himſelf againſt the church of Rome, the Bohemian brethren endeavoured to join his party. At firſt that reformer ſhewed a great averſion to them; but the Bohemians ſending their deputies to him in 1523, with a full account of their doctrines, he acknowledged that they were a ſociety of Chriſtians, whoſe doctrine came neareſt to the purity of the goſpel. They publiſhed another confeſſion of faith in 1535, in which they renounced anabaptiſm, which they at firſt practiſed; upon which a union was concluded with the Lu-

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therans, and afterwards with the Zuinglians, whose opinions from thenceforth they continue to follow.

(4.) BOHEMIAN CHATTERER. See AMPELIS.

(5.) BOHEMIAS. See BOHEMIA, § 3.

BOHOL, one of the Philippine islands in Asia, lying N. of Mindanao. Lon. 122. 5. E. Lat. 10. 0. N.

BOHUR, a wild quadruped of Abyssinia.

BOJA, in antiquity, a collar or chain fastened about the necks of criminals, to prevent their escape.

BOIANO, a town of Italy, in Naples, and county of Molese, with a bishop's see. It is seated at the foot of the Apennines, near the river Tilerno. Lon. 14. 38. E. Lat. 41. 30. N.

BOIARDO, Matteo Maria, of Ferrara, count of Scandiano, celebrated for his Italian poems, lived in the 15th century. His principal work is his *Orlando inamorato*. His Latin eclogues and sonnets are also much admired.

BOIARS, Russian noblemen. See RUSSIA.

BOICININGA, in zoology, the name given by the Brasilians to the rattle-snake.

BOIEMUM, in ancient geography, a part of Germany, surrounded with the Montes Sudeti, now called BOHEMIA. It took its name from the Boii, a people of Gaul, who removed thither before Cæsar's expedition into that country, though he seems to err in the name.

BOIGAUCU, in zoology, a synonime of the boa constrictor. See BOA, N° II. § 3.

(1.) BOII, a people of Gallia Celtica, who inhabited the country extending from the Ligeris to the Elaver; whence came the Boii of Gallia Cisalpina, whose migration is related by Livy.

(2.) BOII. See BOHEMIA, § 3. These people after being driven, out by the Marcomanni, settled in the west of Vindelicia, which was afterwards called BAYERN, and hence the name BAVARIA.

(1.) BOIL. *n. s.* See BILE.

(2.) BOIL, or FURUNCLE. See MEDICINE, and SURGERY, INDEXES.

(1.) * *To* BOIL. *v. a.* To heat, by putting into boiling water; to seeth.—To try whether seeds be old or new, the sense cannot inform; but if you *boil* them in water, the new seeds will sprout sooner. *Bacon.*—In eggs *boiled* and roasted, into which the water entereth not at all, there is scarce any difference to be discerned. *Bacon.*

(2.) * *To* BOIL. *v. n.* [*bouiller*, Fr. *bullio*, Lat.] 1. To be agitated by heat; to fluctuate with heat.

He saw there *boil* the fiery whirlpools.
Chapman.

—Suppose the earth removed, and placed nearer to the sun, in the orbit of Mercury, there the whole ocean would *boil* with extremity of heat. *Bentley.* 2. To be hot; to be fervent, or effervescent.—

That strength with which my *boiling* youth was fraught,
When in the vale of Balasor I fought. *Dryden.*
Well I knew,
What perils youthful ardour would pursue,
That *boiling* blood would carry thee too far.
Dryden.

3. To move with an agitation like that of boiling water,—

Then headlong shoots beneath the dashing tide,
The trembling fins the *boiling* waves divide.
Gay.

4. To be in hot liquor, in order to be made tender by the heat.—

Fillet of a fenny snake,
In the cauldron *boil* and bake. *Shakespeare.*

5. To cook by boiling.—If you live in a rich family, roasting and *boiling* are below the dignity of your office, and which it becomes you to be ignorant of. *Swift.* 6. *To boil over.* To run over the vessel with heat.—A few soft words and a kiss, and the good man melts; see how nature works and *boils over* in him. *Congreve.*—This hollow was a vast cauldron, filled with melted matter, which, as it *boiled over* in any part, ran down the sides of the mountain. *Addison on Italy.*

* BOILARY. *n. s.* [from *To boil.*] A place at the salt works where the salt is boiled.

BOILEAU, SIEUR DESPREAUX, Nicholas, the celebrated French poet, was born at Paris in 1636. After he had gone through his course of study, his relations engaged him to the law, and he was admitted advocate. But though he had all the talents necessary for the bar, yet he could not adapt himself to a science which turns upon continual equivocations, and often obliges those who follow it to clothe falsehood in the garb of truth. He therefore determined to study theology; but he could not long endure the thorns of school divinity. He imagined, that chicanery, which he thought to avoid, had only changed her habit; so he renounced the Sorbonne, betook himself to the belles lettres, and took possession of one of the tops of Parnassus. The public gave his works the encomium they deserved; and Lewis XIV. not only had his works read to him as he composed them, but settled a pension of 2000 livres upon him, and gave him the privilege of printing all his works. He was afterwards chosen a member of the French academy. He was as remarkable for his integrity, his innocence, and diffusive benevolence, as for the keenness of his satires. He died of a dropsy on the 2d March 1711, in the 75th year of his age. The *Lutrin* of Boileau, still considered by some French critics of the present time, as the best poem to which France has given birth, was first published in 1647. Voltaire, however, justly confesses the Lutrin inferior to the Rape of the Lock. Few poets can be so properly compared as Pope and Boileau; and, wherever their writings will admit of comparison, we may, without any national partiality, adjudge the superiority to the English bard. These two great authors resembled each other as much in the integrity of their lives, as in the subjects and execution of their several compositions. There are two actions recorded of Boileau, which sufficiently prove that this inexorable satirist had a most generous and friendly heart. 1. When Patru, the celebrated advocate, who was ruined by his passion for literature, found himself under the painful necessity of selling his expensive library, and had almost agreed to part with it for a moderate sum, Boileau gave him a much superior price; and, after paying the money, added this condition to the purchase, that Patru should retain, during his

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his life, the poſſeſſion of the books. The other inſtance is yet nobler: when it was rumoured at court, that the king intended to retrench the penſion of Corneille, Boileau haſtened to Madam de Monteſpan, and ſaid, that his ſovereign, equitable as he was, could not, without injuſtice, grant a penſion to an author like himſelf, juſt aſcending Parnaſſus, and take it from Corneille, who had ſo long been ſeated on the ſummit; that he entreated her, for the honour of the king, to prevail on his majeſty rather to ſtrike off *his* penſion, than to withdraw that reward from a man whoſe title to it was incomparably greater; and that he ſhould more eaſily conſole himſelf under the loſs of that diſtinction, that under the affliction of ſeeing it taken away from ſuch a poet as Corneille. This magnanimous application had the ſucceſs which it deſerved, and it appears the more noble, that the rival of Corneille was the intimate friend of Boileau. The long unreſerved intercourſe which ſubſiſted between our poet and Racine was highly beneficial and honourable to both. The dying farewell of the latter is the moſt expreſſive eulogy on the private character of Boileau: "Je regarde comme un bonheur pour moi, de mourir avant vous," ſaid the tender Racine, in taking a final leave of his faithful and generous friend.

* BOILER. *n. ſ.* [from *boil.*] 1. The perſon that boils any thing.—That ſuch alterations of terreſtrial matter are not impoſſible, ſeems evident from that notable practice of the *boilers* of ſaltpetre. *Boyle.* 2. The veſſel in which any thing is boiled.—This coffee-room is much frequented; and there are generally ſeveral pots and *boilers* before the fire. *Woodward.*

(1.) BOILING, or EBULITION, the bubbling up of any fluid. The term is moſt commonly applied to that bubbling which happens by the application of fire, though that which enſues on the mixture of an acid and alkali is ſometimes alſo diſtinguiſhed by the ſame name. Boiling, in general, is occaſioned by the diſcharge of an elaſtic fluid through that which is ſaid to boil; and the appearance is the ſame, whether it is common air, fixed air, or ſteam, that makes its way through the fluid. The boiling of water is proved by Dr Hamilton of Dublin, in his eſſay on the aſcent of vapour, to be occaſioned by the lowermoſt particles of the water being heated and rarified into vapour by reaſon of the vicinity of the bottom of the containing veſſel; in conſequence of which, being greatly inferior in ſpecific gravity to the ſurrounding fluid, they aſcend with great velocity, and lacerating and puſhing up the body of water in their aſcent, give it the tumultuous motion called *boiling*. That this is occaſioned by ſteam, and not by particles of air or fire, as ſome have imagined, may be very eaſily proved in the following manner; Let a common drinking glaſs be filled with hot water, and then inverted into a veſſel of the ſame; as ſoon as the water in the glaſs begins to boil, large bubbles will be obſerved to aſcend in the glaſs, which will diſplace the water in it, and in a ſhort time there will be a continual bubbling from under its edge; but if the glaſs is then drawn up, ſo that its mouth may only touch the water, and a cloth dipt in cold water be applied to the outſide, the ſteam within it will be inſtantly condenſed, and the water will, aſcend ſo as to fill it entirely, or very nearly ſo. See EVAPORATION.

(2.) BOILING, in dying, a method of trying the goodneſs of a colour or dye. The ſtuff is to be boiled in water with certain drugs, different according to the kind or quality of the colour, to try whether it will diſcharge, and give a tincture to the water. With this view crimſon ſilks are boiled with alum, and ſcarlets with ſoap, in quantity equal to the weight of the ſilk. See § 3.

(3.) BOILING, in the culinary art, is a method of dreſſing meats by coction in hot water, intended to ſoften them, and diſpoſe them for eaſier digeſtion. The effects of boiling are different according to the kinds and qualities of the water. Pulſe boiled in ſea water grow harder; mutton boiled in the ſame becomes ſofter and tenderer than in freſh water, but taſtes ſaltiſh and bitter.

(4.) BOILING, in trade and manufactures, is a preparation given to divers ſorts of bodies by making them paſs over the fire, chiefly in water, though ſometimes in other liquors. In this ſenſe we ſpeak of the boiling of ſalt, ſugar, copperas, linens, &c. See BLEACHING, INDEX.

(5.) BOILING OF SILK WITH SOAP is the firſt preparation for dyeing it. Thread is alſo boiled in a ſtrong lixivium of aſhes to prepare it for dyeing.

(6.) BOILING TO DEATH (*caldarii Decoquere*), in the middle age, was a puniſhment inflicted on thieves, falſe coiners, and ſome other criminals.

(7.) BOILING WELLS, in natural hiſtory. See BURNING SPRINGS, and ICELAND.

BOINITZ, or BOITNITZ, a town of Upper Hungary, in the county of Zell, remarkable for its baths and the quantity of ſaffron that grows about it. Lon. 19. 10. E. Lat. 48. 42. N.

BOIOBA, or } in zoology, a ſpecies of ſerpent
BOIOBI, } found in America, and called by the Portugueſe *corba de verb.* It is about an ell in length, of the thickneſs of a man's thumb, and is all over of a very beautiful and ſhining green. Its mouth is very large, and its tongue black. It is fond of frequenting houſes, and never injures any creature unleſs provoked or hurt; but it will then bite, and its poiſon is very fatal. The natives take as a remedy againſt its poiſon, the root *caa apia* bruiſed and mixed with water. See CAA APIA.

BOIOCALUS, an ancient German hero, of a moſt patriotic and diſintereſted ſpirit. See ANSIBARII.

BOIORUM DESERTA, a diſtrict of Pannonia, ſo called from the exciſion of the Boii by the Getae. It lay towards Stiria, E. of mount CETIUS, or the Hahlenberg, and to the ſouth of VINDOBONA or Vienna. It is now called WEINERWALD, in Lower Auſtria.

BOIQUIRA, the American name for the rattle-ſnake.

BOISACK, a diſtrict in Forfarſhire.

BOIS DE COISSI, in botany, a South American tree growing about Surinam, held in the higheſt eſtimation by the Indians in that part of the world, and now recommended to the phyſicians in Europe, by Dr Fermin in a treatiſe lately publiſhed at Amſterdam. The root is eſteemed an excellent ſtomachic,

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chic, reſtoring the appetite, and aſſiſting digeſtion; but it is chiefly celebrated as an infallible remedy againſt even the moſt inveterate intermittents. It is ſaid alſo to be uſed with great ſafety and advantage in every ſpecies of remittent and continued fever, by patients of all ages, ſexes, and conditions, even during pregnancy, and in the puerperal ſtate. Before employing it, however, it is abſolutely neceſſary to adminiſter either a purgative or emetic. The beſt method of exhibiting it is in decoction: half an ounce of the bark of the root muſt be boiled in a cloſe veſſel with ſix pints of water till one half be conſumed; the decoction is then ſtrained off, and a cupful taken every two hours till the fever is entirely extinguiſhed. Six or ſeven days after a cure is performed, it is generally neceſſary to repeat the purgative.

BOIS DE SOIGNIES, a foreſt of France, in the ci-devant Auſtrian Netherlands, about 3 miles S. E. of Bruſſels, in one of the new departments lately annexed to the French republic.

BOISEAU, a French corn meaſure; that of Rochelle, is equal to two buſhels and half a peck Engliſh; that of Bourdeaux ſomewhat leſs.

BOIS-LE-DUC, called by the Dutch HERTOGENBOSCH, a large, ſtrong, and handſome town of the Netherlands, in Dutch Brabant, ſeated between the rivers Dommel and Aa, among moraſſes. It lies 22 m. E. by N. of Breda; 17 W. of Grave; 45 NE. of Antwerp, and 45 SSE. of Amſterdam. Lon. 5. 16. E. Lat. 51. 40. N.

BOISSARD, John James, a famous antiquarian, born at Beſançon. He publiſhed ſeveral collections which are of great uſe to ſuch as wiſh to underſtand the Roman antiquities. He had a great paſſion for this ſtudy; and drew with his own hand plans of all the ancient monuments of Italy. He died at Mentz, October 30th, 1602. His principal works are, 1. Four volumes in folio of Roman antiquities, adorned with plates engraved by Theodore de Bey and his two ſons. 2. *Theatrum vitæ humanæ*; which contains the lives of 198 famous perſons, with their portraits. 3. A treatiſe *de divinatione & magicis præſtigiis*. Theſe works are ſcarce, and eſteemed by the antiquarians.

* BOISTEROUS. *adj.* [*byſter*, furious, Dutch.]

1. Violent; loud; roaring; ſtormy.—

By a divine inſtinct, mens minds miſtruſt
Enſuing danger; as by proof we ſee
The waters ſwell before a *boiſterous* ſtorm. *Shak.*

As when loud winds a well-grown oak would rend
Up by the roots, this way and that they bend
His reeling trunk, and with a *boiſt'rous* ſound
Scatter his leaves, and ſtrew them on the ground.
Waller.

2. Turbulent; tumultuous; furious.—

Spirit of peace,
Wherefore do you ſo ill tranſlate yourſelf
Out of the ſpeech of peace, that bears ſuch grace,
Into the harſh and *boiſt'rous* tongue of war?
Shakeſpeare.

His ſweetneſs won a more regard
Unto his place, than all the *boiſt'rous* moods
That ignorant greatneſs practiſeth. *Ben Jonſon.*

God, into the hands of their deliverer,
Puts invincible might,
To quell the mighty of the earth, th' oppreſſor,
The brute and *boiſt'rous* force of violent men.
Milton.

Still muſt I beg thee not to name Sempronius:
Lucia, I like not that loud *boiſterous* man. *Addiſ.*

3. Unwieldy; clumſily violent.—

His *boiſterous* club, ſo buried in the ground,
He could not rearen up again ſo light,
But that the knight him at advantage found.
Fairy Queen.

4. It is uſed by *Woodward* of heat; violent.—When the ſun hath gained a greater ſtrength, the heat becomes too powerful and *boiſterous* for them. *Natural Hiſtory.*

* BOISTEROUSLY. *adv.* [from *boiſterous.*] Violently; tumultuouſly.—

A ſceptre ſnatch'd with an unruly hand,
Muſt be as *boiſterouſly* maintain'd, as gain'd.
Shakeſpeare.

—Thoſe are all remains of the univerſal deluge, when the water of the ocean, being *boiſterouſly* turned out upon the earth, bore along with it all moveable bodies. *Woodward.*—Another faculty of the intellect comes *boiſterouſly* in, and wakes me from ſo pleaſing a dream. *Swift.*

* BOISTEROUSNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *boiſterous.*] The ſtate or quality of being boiſterous; tumultuouſneſs; turbulence.

BOIT, an excellent painter in enamel. He was born in Stockholm, and bred a jeweller: which profeſſion he intended to follow in England; but changed his deſign, and went into the country, where he taught children to draw. He there engaged a gentleman's daughter, who was one of his ſcholars, to promiſe him marriage; but the affair being diſcovered, he was thrown into priſon. In that confinement, which laſted two years, he ſtudied enamelling: an art to which he adhered, on his return to London, and practiſed with great ſucceſs. The prices he is ſaid to have obtained for his work are almoſt incredible: but being engaged in a very large deſign for the court, and Queen Anne dying before it was completed, he ran in debt, his goods were ſeized by execution, and he fled to France; where he changed his religion, was countenanced by the regent, and obtained a penſion of L. 230 *per annum*, but died ſuddenly at Paris in 1726. There is a large piece done by him at Kenſington, repreſenting Queen Anne ſitting, and Prince George ſtanding by her; and at Bedford-houſe is another very large plate of the duke's father and mother.

BOITJAPO, in zoology, a ſpecies of ſerpent found in America; and called by the Portugueſe there, COBRA DI CAPO. It grows to 7 or 8 feet long, is about the thickneſs of a man's arm, and very ſmall and taper towards the tail. Its back is of an olive colour; its belly yellow, and covered with very regular and elegant triangular ſcales. It feeds on frogs, &c. but is poiſonous, and its bite extremely fatal.

BOITNITZ. See BONNITZ.

BOKHARA, a city of Tartary in Aſia, and capital of Great Bukharia, ſituated one days journey to the N. of the river Jehun, or Amu. In 1219 it was beſieged by Jenghiz Khan, as being part of Sultan Mohammed's dominions a deſcendant of the famous Mahmud Gazari. At that time,

beſides

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beſides the city-walls, which were very ſtrong. Bokhara had an outward incloſure 12 leagues in compaſs; which ſhut in not only the ſuburbs, but alſo many pleaſant ſeats and farms watered by the river Soghd, from whence the ancient Sogdiana took its name. The Mogul army arrived before the place in July, and continued the ſiege during the following winter. In March 1220, they forced the outer wall, and began to beſiege the city in form. Sultan Mohammed had left in the city a very numerous garriſon under the command of three generals, who made a ſally at the head of 20,000 men: but being repulſed with great loſs, their courage failed them; and, inſtead of ſtaying to defend the inhabitants, as ſoon as they had got into the city by one gate, paſſed out by another with their families, and almoſt all their ſoldiers, hoping to eſcape by the darkneſs of the night: but their deſign being diſcovered, they were purſued by a detachment of 30,000 Moguls; and being overtaken at the Amu, they were, after a bloody diſpute, almoſt all cut to pieces. Mean time, Jenghiz Khan, being informed of the confuſion into which the city had been thrown by the deſertion of the garriſon, ordered an attack to be made on all ſides at once but while he was preparing for this, the magiſtrates and clergy went out and preſented him with the keys of the city. Jenghiz Khan granted them their lives, on condition that they gave no ſhelter to any of the ſultan's ſoldiers, but diſcovered all who ſhould be ſuſpected of being in that prince's intereſt; which they promiſed to do upon oath. All the young people, however, who were diſpleaſed with the ſurrender, retired, with the governor to the caſtle, which was very ſtrong, and reſolved to defend it to the laſt extremity. Jenghiz Khan, having taken poſſeſſion of Bokhara, entered on horſeback to the great moſque, and aſked merrily if that was the ſultan's palace? On being anſwered that it was the houſe of God, he alighted; and giving the principal magiſtrate his horſe to hold, mounted the gallery where the eccleſiaſtics uſually ſat, and then taking up the Koran, threw it under the feet of his horſes. Having ſtaid there for ſome time, he retired to his camp; where, ſome days after, having aſſembled the principal people of Bokhara, and aſcended a pulpit erected for that purpoſe in the midſt of them, he began his ſpeech by praiſing God, and recounted all the favours he had received from the Almighty: he then mentioned the perfidious behaviour of the ſultan towards himſelf, telling them that God had ſent him to rid the world of ſuch wicked men. As to them, he teſtified his ſatisfaction for their having freely furniſhed his army with neceſſaries; and promiſed that his ſoldiers ſhould not meddle with any goods which they made uſe of in their houſes: but commanded them to deliver up what they had hidden, under pain of being tortured. This ſpeech had ſuch an effect, that the poor inhabitants delivered up every thing, as well what they had concealed as what they had preſent uſe for; notwithſtanding which, the tyrant ſoon after cauſed the city to be burnt, on pretence that ſome of the ſultan's ſoldiers were concealed in it. As all the houſes were made of wood, except the ſultan's palace which was built of ſtone, and ſome few private houſes of brick, the whole was utterly conſumed; and Jenghiz Khan having found ſome few ſoldiers that had actually concealed themſelves, put them all to death without mercy. The caſtle ſurrendered at diſcretion ſoon after; and though it was demoliſhed, the governor and garriſon, out of a very extraordinary piece of clemency from ſo bloody a tyrant, had their lives ſpared. Bokhara continued in ruins for ſome years, but at length Jenghiz Khan ordered it to be rebuilt. It is now large and populous; and is the reſidence of a khan who is altogether deſpotic, though his power reaches but a little way without the city. The town is ſeated on a riſing ground, with a ſlender wall of earth and a dry ditch. The houſes are low, built moſtly of mud; but the caravanſeras and moſques, which are numerous, are all of brick. The bazars or market places, which have been ſtately buildings, are now moſtly in ruins. The inhabitants are more civilized and polite than ſome of their neighbours; and yet are cowardly, cruel, effeminate and very perfidious. Great numbers of Jews and Arabians frequent this place, though they are much oppreſſed and frequently deprived of all their properties by the khan or his attendants. At beſt they pay heavy taxes, and it is almoſt criminal to be rich. However ſtrongly this oppreſſion of the preſent khans may operate to induce the inhabitants to ſecrete their property, it was otherwiſe about the 8th century of the Hegyra, (*circiter* A. C. 1460) when HAFIZ flouriſhed; about that age this place was proverbial for its riches. That poet ſaid—"If that lovely maid of Shiraz would accept my affection, I would give for that black mole upon her cheek the cities of Samarkand and Bokhara." See more on this ſubject in our Aſiatic articles as: HAFIZ, SAMARCAND, &c. It is ſituated lon. 65. 50. E. lat. 39. 15. N.

(1.) BOL, anciently called BOTEL, a town in Cumberland which has an ancient caſtle.

(2.) BOL, Ferdinand, a celebrated painter of hiſtory and portraits, born at Dort in 1611, and educated at Amſterdam. He ſtudied in the ſchool of the celebrated Rembrant Gerretz, and imitated the ſtyle of his maſter with ſucceſs both in pictures and engravings. Bol's etchings are bold and free. The lights and ſhadows in them are broad and powerful, which renders the effect ſtriking; but they want that lightneſs of touch and admirable taſte which thoſe of Rembrant poſſeſs. Bol died at Dort, the place of his birth, in 1681, aged 70.

(3.) BOL, Hans, or John a painter born at Mechlin in 1534. He went to Heidelberg, and employed himſelf in copying pictures of eminent artiſts. His ſubjects are chiefly landſcapes with animals; but he alſo ſometimes painted hiſtory, with ſucceſs; a ſet of his landſcapes, views in Holland, are extant, ſlightly etched, but in a ſtyle that indicates the hand of a maſter. He died in 1593.

BOLABOLA, one of the Society Iſlands.

BOLÆ. See BOLENIÆ.

BOLAM, a village in Northumberland, 5 miles SW. of Morpeth.

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BOLANDUS, John, a famous Jesuit, born at Tillemont in the Netherlands, in 1596. He distinguished himself by writing the lives of the saints, under the title of *Acta Sanctorum*, of which he published 5 volumes in folio, and died while he was labouring at the 6th, aged 70. The continuators of this work are called BOLANDISTS.

* BOLARY. *adj.* [from *bole.*] Partaking of the nature of bole, or clay.—A weak and inanimate kind of loadstone, with a few magnetical lines, but chiefly consisting of a *bolary* and clammy substance. *Brown's Vulgar Errours.*

(1.) BOLAS, in botany, bullace, a wild plum. *Obs. Chauc.*

(2.) BOLAS, in geography, a village in Shropshire, 7 miles NW. of Newport.

BOLBITINUM, in ancient geography, the 2d mouth of the Nile reckoning from W. to E. now very small, choaked up with sand, and called LE BRAS DE BELTIN.

BOLBONACH, in botany, a name given by some to the sattin flower.

BOLBROKE, a village in Sussex, 3 miles from E. Grinsted.

(1.) * BOLD. *adj.* [*bald*, Saxon.] 1. Daring; brave; stout; courageous; magnanimous; fearless; intrepid.—The wicked flee when no man pursueth; but the righteous are *bold* as a lion. *Proverbs.*—I have seen the councils of a noble country grow *bold*, or timorous, according to the fits of his good or ill health that managed them. *Temple.* 2. Executed with spirit, and without mean caution.—These, nervous, *bold*; those, languid and remiss. *Roscommon.* 3. Confident; not scrupulous; not timorous.—We were *bold* in our God to speak unto you the gospel of God with much contention. 1 *Thessalonians.*—I can be *bold* to say, that this age is adorned with some men of that judgment, that they could open new and undiscovered ways to knowledge. *Locke.* 4. Impudent; rude.—In thy prosperity he will be as thyself, and will be *bold* over thy servants. If thou be brought low, he will be against thee. *Eccluf.* 5. Licentious; such as shew great liberty of fiction or expression.—The figures are *bold*, even to temerity. *Cowley.*—

Which no *bold* tales of gods or monsters swell,
But human passions, such as with us dwell.
Waller.

6. Standing out to the view; striking to the eye.—Catachreses and hyperboles are to be used judiciously, and placed in poetry, as heightenings and shadows in painting, to make the figure *bolder*, and cause it to stand off to sight. *Dryden.* 7. Open; smooth; even; level: a sailor's term.—Her dominions have *bold* accessible coasts. *Howel.* 8. *To make bold.* To take freedoms: a phrase not grammatical, though common. *To be bold* is better; as, *I was bold* to tell the house that scandalous livings make scandalous ministers. *Radgerd.*—

I have *made bold* to send to your wife;
My suit is, that she will to Desdemona
Procure me some access. *Shakesp.*

Making so bold,
My fears forgetting manners, to unseal
Their grand commission. *Shakesp.*

And were y' as good as George a Green,
I shall *make bold* to turn agen. *Hudibras.*

(2.) BOLD, a place in the county of Peebles, and parish of Traquair.

(3.) BOLD, a village in Lancashire, SE. of Prescot.

BOLDEN, a town in Durham, 2 miles from Sunderland, and 5 from Shields.

* *To* BOLDEN. *v. a.* [from *bold.*] To make bold; to give confidence.—Quick inventers, and fair ready speakers, being *boldened* with their present abilities to say more, and perchance better too, at the sudden, for that present, than any other can do, use less help of diligence and study. *Ascham's Schoolmaster.*—

I am much too vent'rous,
In tempting of your patience; but am *bolden'd*
Under your promis'd pardon. *Shakespeare.*

BOLDERHURST, a village in the New Forest, Hampshire.

* BOLDFACE. *n. f.* [from *bold* and *face.*] Impudence; saucineſs: a term of reproach and reprehension.—How, now, *boldface!* cries an old trot; sirrah, we eat our own hens, I'd have you know; what you eat, you steal. *L'Estrange.*

* BOLDFACED. *adj.* [from *bold* and *face.*] Impudent.—I have seen those silliest of creatures; and, seeing their rare works, I have seen enough to confute all the *boldfaced* atheists of this age. *Bramhall against Hobbes.*

* BOLDLY. *adv.* [from *bold.*] 1. In a bold manner; with courage; with spirit.—

I speak to subjects, and a subject speaks,
Stirr'd up by heav'n, thus *boldly* for his king.
Shakespeare.

2. It may be perhaps sometimes used in a bad sense for *impudently.*

* BOLDNESS. *n. f.* [from *bold.*] 1. Courage; bravery; intrepidity; spirit; fortitude; magnanimity; daringness.—Her horse she rid so, as might shew a fearful *boldness*, daring to do that, which she knew not how to do. *Sidney.* 2. Exemption from caution, and scrupulous nicety.—The *boldness* of the figures is to be hidden, sometimes by the address of the poet, that they may work their effect upon the mind. *Dryden.* 3. Freedom; liberty.—Great is my *boldness* of speech toward you; great is my glorying in you. 2 *Corinth.* 4. Confident trust in God.—Our fear excludeth not that *boldness* which becometh saints. *Hooker.*—We have *boldness* and access with confidence by the faith of him. *Ephesians.*—Having therefore *boldness* to enter into the holiest by the blood of Jesus. *Heb.* 5. Assurance; freedom from bashfulness; confident mien.—Wonderful is the case of *boldness* in civil business; what first? *Boldness.* What second and third? *Boldness.* And yet *boldness* is a child of ignorance and baseness, far inferiour to other parts. *Bacon.*—

Sure if the guilt were theirs, they could not charge thee
With such a gallant *boldness:* if 'twere thine,
Thou couldst not bear't with such a silent scorn.
Denham.

—His distance, though it does not instruct him to think wiser than other princes, yet it helps him to speak with more *boldness* what he thinks. *Temple.*—*Boldness* is the power to speak or do what we intend, before others, without fear or disorder. *Locke.*

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Locke. 6. Imprudence.—That moderation, which uſeth to ſuppreſs *boldneſs*, and to make them conquer that ſuffer. *Hooker.*

BOLDRE, a village in the New Foreſt, Hampſh.

(I.) * BOLE. *n. ſ.* 1. The body or trunk of a tree.

All fell upon the high-hair'd oaks, and down their curl'd brows
Fell buſtling to the earth; and up went all the *boles* and boughs. *Chapman.*

But when the ſmoother *bole* from knots is free,
We make a deep inciſion in the tree. *Dryden.*

View well this tree, the queen of all the grove;
How vaſt her *bole*, how wide her arms are ſpread;
How high above the reſt ſhe ſhoots her head!
Dryden.

2. A kind of earth.—*Bole Armeniack* is an aſtringent earth, which takes its name from Armenia, the country from which we have it. *Woodward.* 3. A meaſure of corn, containing ſix buſhels.—Of good barley put eight *boles*, that is, about ſix Engliſh quarters in a ſtone trough. *Mortimer.*

(II.) BOLES, in natural hiſtory, are viſcid earths, leſs coherent and more friable than clay; more readily uniting with water, and more freely ſubſiding from it. They are ſoft and unctuous to the touch; adhere to the tongue; and by degrees melt in the mouth, impreſſing a light ſenſe of aſtringency. Theſe earths, made into little maſſes, and ſtamped with certain impreſſions, are called *terræ ſigillatæ*. They have been recommended as aſtringent, ſudorific, and alexipharmic; but theſe and many other virtues that have been aſcribed to them appear to have no foundation. They are ſtill, however, preſcribed in fluxes and complaints of the primæ viæ. There are a great variety of them. The principal are the following:

1. BOLE, ARMENIAN, when pure, is of a bright red colour with a tinge of yellow: It is one of the hardeſt and moſt compact bodies of this claſs, and not ſmooth and gloſſy like the others, but generally of a rough and duſty ſurface. It does not effervеſce with acids, though ſome part of it is diſſolved by all of them. Newmann obſerves, that 4 ounces of Armenian bole, diſtilled in a glaſs retort in an open fire, yielded 3 drachms of a ſaline phlegm, which ſmelt a little urinous, and changed ſyrup of violets green. In the neck of the retort was found a little powdery ſaline matter which had an ammoniacal taſte, but it was in two ſmall quantity to be collected or further examined. Like moſt other coloured earths, this kind of bole contains a portion of ferruginous matter, to which the colour is owing; and which may be ſeparated by the magnet, after the bole has been calcined with oil or other inflammable matters. It is likewiſe impregnated with vitriolic acid; and hence, when mixed with nitre or ſea ſalt, it extricates the acids of theſe ſalts in the fire.

2. BOLE, BOHEMIAN, is of a yellow colour, with a caſt of red, and generally of a flaky texture. It is not acted on by acids.

3. BOLE, FRENCH, is of a pale red colour, variegated with irregular ſpecks of white and yellow. It is much ſofter than the Armenian, and ſlightly effervеſces with acids.

3. BOLE LEMNIAN, or LEMNIAN EARTH, is of a pale red colour, and ſlightly effervеſces with acids.

5. BOLE OF BLOIS is yellow, remarkably ſlighter than moſt of the other yellow earths, and effervеſces ſtrongly with acids.

6. BOLE, SILESIAN, is of a pale yellow colour, and acids have no ſenſible effect upon it.

BOLE-HALL, a hamlet in Warwickſhire, in the pariſh of Tamworth.

BOLENIÆ, or BOLÆ, in natural hiſtory, a name given by ancient writers to ſtones of a roundiſh figure, marked with ſeveral ridges and lines. They are the ſame with thoſe called BRONTIÆ and OMBRIÆ, both being imagined to fall from the clouds in time of thunder ſtorms; but they are really a common ſpecies of ECHINITÆ.

BOLENTIUM, in ancient geography, a town of Pannonia Superior; now called RACKERSBURG in Stiria.

BOLESLAFF, } or BUNTZLAU, a town of
BOLESSLAPE, } Sileſia, ſeated on the Bobar. Lon. 16. 20. E. Lat. 51. 12. N.

BOLESLAUS, I. king of Poland, was the ſon of Mieceſlaus duke of Poland, who, having embraced Chriſtianity, had deſired the title of *king* from the pope, but was refuſed it. Boleſlaus found more favour with the emperor Otho III. whom he entertained ſplendidly at Gneſna, during his pilgrimage to viſit the relics of St Adelbert; and who, in return, not only prevailed on pope Sylveſter II. to confer the royal dignity upon Boleſlaus, bet inveſted him with his own robes, and gave him ſome of the inſignia of the empire, A. D. 1001. Boleſlaus was a brave and liberal monarch. He repulſed the Bohemians; chaſtiſed the Moravians; puniſhed the idolatrous Pruſſians, for the murder of St Adelbert, whoſe body he redeemed; and re-eſtabliſhed Stopolcus granted duke of Ruſſia, depoſed by his brother Jaroſlaus. He married Judith daughter of Geiſa D. of Hungary, by whom he had ſeveral children, and died A. D. 1025.

BOLESLAUS, II, III, IV, and V. kings of Poland. See POLAND, HISTORY OF.

BOLETO LICHEN, a name given by M. Juſſieu, to a plant, which partakes of the nature of the *morcille* and of the liverwort, and which he has accurately deſcribed in the *Mem. Acad. des Sciences*. Paris, 1728. This plant has the ſmell of the common muſhroom, and, when young, has a viſcous liquid contained under the foldings of its head, which, when the plant is arrived at maturity, dries into the form of an extremely ſubtile yellow powder, which is the ſeed.

BOLETUS, in botany, SPUNK: A genus of the order of fungi, belonging to the cryptogamia claſs of plants. Botaniſts enumerate 17 ſpecies, of which the following are the moſt remarkable.

1. BOLETUS BOVINUS, or cow ſpunk, is frequent in woods and paſtures. It is generally of a brown colour, though ſometimes it is tawny, yelloviſh brown, reddiſh brown, deep red, purple, or greeniſh brown. The fleſh is yellow, white, or reddiſh. The young plants are eaten in Italy, and eſteemed a great delicacy. The Germans alſo account them a dainty, calling them *gombas*, and *brat-bulze*. Cows, deer, ſheep, and ſwine, will feed upon this and other boleti, and are ſometimes greatly diſordered by them. In cows and other cattle they have been known to create bloody urine, naſeous milk, ſwellings of the abdomen, inflammations of the bowels, ſtoppages, diarrhœas,

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and death. In ſheep they bring on a ſchirrhous liver, a cough, a general waſting, and droſpy. *Scarabs derm-ſtes*, and many other inſects, feed upon and breed in them abundantly.

2. BOLETUS IGNIARIUS, or touchwood ſpunk, is frequent on the trunks of old trees of all kinds, eſpecially aſh. It conſiſts of a very hard woody ſubſtance, in ſhape like a horſe's hoof, and grows of various ſizes, from a man's fiſt to that of his head and larger. The upper ſide is ſmooth, but uneven, diſtinguiſhed near the rim by elevated zones of different colours, brown, grey, tawny, &c. The fleſh is of a tawny brown colour, extremely hard and tough. This fungus is made uſe of in Germany and ſome parts of England for tinder. The Germans boil it in ſtrong ley, dry it and boil it again in ſolution of ſaltpetre. The Laplanders burn it about their habitations, in order to keep off a ſpecies of the gadfly which is fatal to the young reindeer. It has been uſed to ſtop the bleeding of the veſſels after amputations. (*Phil. Tranſ. vol.* xlviii. *p.* 2.) For this purpoſe the hard outer part is cut off, and the ſoft inner ſubſtance is beat with a hammer to make it ſtill ſofter. It is beſt when gathered in Auguſt or September.

3. BOLETUS PINI LARICIS, or agaric of the ſhops, grows on old larch trees. This fungus is an irregular ſpongy ſubſtance, extremely light, and of an uniform ſnowy whiteneſs, except the cortical part, which is uſually taken off before the agaric is brought into the ſhops. It cuts freely with a knife, without diſcovering any hardneſs or grittineſs, and readily crumbles betwixt the fingers into a powder. It has no remarkable ſmell; its taſte is at firſt ſweetiſh; but on chewing for a ſhort time, it proves acrid, bitter, and nauſeous. Agaric was formerly in great eſteem as a catharic, but the preſent practice has almoſt entirely rejected its uſe. It is now rejected both by the London and Edinburgh Colleges, but it ſtill retains a place in moſt of the new foreign Pharmacopœias. It operates exceeding ſlowly. Given in ſubſtance, it almoſt always occaſions a nauſea, not unfrequently vomiting, and ſometimes exceſſive tormina of the bowels: theſe effects are attributed to its light farinaceous matter adhering to the coats of the inteſtines, and producing a conſtant irritation. The beſt preparation of agaric ſeems to be an extract made with water, in which fixt alkaline ſalt has been diſſolved; or with vinegar or wine: the firſt is ſaid by Boulduc, and the two latter by Newmann, to prove an effectual and ſafe purgative.

4. BOLETUS SUBEROSUS, or white cork ſpunk, grows commonly on the trunks of birch and willow trees in England and Scotland. It grows ſeſſile and horizontal; its figure is ſemicircular; the upper ſide convex, the under nearly plain; of various ſizes, from that of an aſs's hoof to a peck meaſure. The upper ſurface is quite white, generally covered with a ſhort ſtrong down, but ſometimes ſmooth. The internal ſubſtance is thick, white, tough, light, and ſpongy, like cork; and is ſometimes cut and ſhaped by the country people, and uſed as corks in their bottles: but ſuch corks muſt not touch the liquid, for moiſture ſoon renders them ſoft and uſeleſs.

BOLEYN, Ann, queen of Henry VIII. of England; memorable in the Engliſh hiſtory, as the firſt cauſe of the reformation, as the mother of queen Elizabeth under whom it was completely eſtabliſhed, and on account of her own ſufferings. She was the daughter of Sir Thomas Boylen, and born in 1507. She was carried into France at 7 years of age by Henry VIII's ſiſter, the wife of Lewis XII: nor did ſhe return into England when that queen retired thither after the death of her huſband; but ſtaid in the ſervice of queen Claudia, the wife of Francis I. and after the death of that princeſs went to the ducheſs of Alençon. The year of her return is not well known; ſome will have it to have been in 1527, others in 1525.—This much is certain, that ſhe was maid of honour to queen Catharine of Spain, Henry VIII's firſt wife: and that the king fell violently in love with her. She behaved with ſo much art and addreſs, that by refuſing to ſatisfy his paſſion, ſhe brought him to think of marrying her: and the king perſuaded that he ſhould never enjoy her unleſs he made her his wife, was induced to ſet on foot the divorce of Catharine, which at laſt was executed with great ſolemnity. In the mean time, Henry could not procure a divorce from the Pope; which made him reſolve at length to diſown his authority, and throw off his yoke. He married Ann Boleyn privately upon the 14th of November 1532, and as ſoon as he perceived that his new wife was with child, he made his marriage public. He cauſed Ann Boleyn to be declared queen of England on Eaſter-eve 1533, and to be crowned the 1ſt of June following. She was brought to bed on the 7th September of a daughter, who was afterwards queen Elizabeth; and continued to be much beloved by Henry till the charms of Jane Seymour fired that tyrant's heart in 1536. Then his love for his wife was changed into violent hatred: he believed, or pretended that he believed her to be unchaſte, and cauſed her to be impriſoned and tried. "She was indicted of high treaſon, for that ſhe had procured her brother and other four to lie with her, which they had done often: that ſhe had ſaid to them, that the king never had her heart; and had ſaid to every one of them by themſelves, that ſhe loved him better than any perſon whatever; which was to the ſlander of the iſſue that was begotten between the king and her. And this was treaſon according to the ſtatute made in the the 26th year of this reign; ſo that the law which was made for her and the iſſue of her marriage, is now made uſe of to deſtroy her." She was condemned to be either burnt or beheaded; and ſhe underwent the latter on the 19th of May 1536. Though the repreſentations of many reſpecting her are not to be regarded, yet it may be ſafely ſaid, that ſhe was a woman gay even to immodeſty, indiſcreet in the liberties ſhe took, and of an irregular and licentious behaviour.

(1.) BOLINGBROKE, Lord Viſcount. See ST JOHN.

(2.) BOLINGBROKE, or BULLINGBROKE, a town of Lincolnſhire in England, and of great antiquity, but now in a mean condition. It is 29 m. E. of Lincoln. Lon. 0. 40. E. Lat. 53. 15. N.

BOLINTHOS, in natural hiſtory, a name given by Ariſtotle, and ſome of the other ancient Greeks, to the MONOPS of Ælian, or the BONASUS.

* BOLIS. *n. ſ.* [Latin.] *Bolis* is a great fiery ball,

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ball, swiftly hurried through the air, and generally drawing a tail after it. Aristotle calls it *cabru*. There have often been immense balls of this kind. *Muschenbroeck.*

BOLISLAW, a town of Germany, in Bohemia, 30 miles NE. of Prague, seated on the Sizera. Lon. 14. 35. E. Lat. 50. 25. N.

BOLKOWITZ, a town of Silesia, in the duchy of Glogaw. Lon. 15. 20. E. Lat. 32. 27. N.

(1.) * BOLL. *n. s.* A round stalk or stem; as, a *boll* of flax.

(2.) BOLL, the case with the seed which succeeds the flower on the top of flax. Dr *Johnson*'s quotation, under the verb *To* BOLL, examplifies *this* definition, but not *his*.

(3.) BOLL, a measure used in Scotland, for corn, &c. containing 4 firlots. See MEASURE.

(4.) BOLL, in geography, a village in Nottinghamshire, near Gainsborough.

(5.) BOLL, *n. s. obs.* a bowl; a bottle. *Chaucer.*

* *To* BOLL. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To rise in a stalk.—And the flax and the barley was smitten; for the barley was in the ear, and the flax was *bolled*. *Exodus.*

BOLLANDUS. See BOLANDUS.

BOLLARDS, large posts set into the ground on each side of a dock. On docking or undocking ships, large blocks are lashed to them; and through these blocks are reeved the transporting hawsers to be brought to the capstons.

(1.) BOLLIN, a river in Cheshire.

(2.) BOLLIN, or BOLN, *adj. obs.* Swoln. *Chaucer.*

BOLLINGTON, a village in Cheshire, near Macclesfield.

BOLLISDON, a hamlet in Northumberland, near Woller.

BOLLISTO, a village in Cornwall, near the Land's End.

BOLLITO, a name by which the Italians call a *sea-green colour* in artificial crystal. To prepare this colour, put into the furnace a pot filled with 40 lb. of good crystal, first carefully skimmed, boiled, and purified, without any manganese: then take 12 ounces of the powder of small leaves of copper thrice calcined, and half an ounce of zaffre in powder: mix them together, and put them at 4 times into the pot, that they may the better mix with the glass; stirring them well each time of putting in the powder, lest the mixture should swell and run over.

BOLLMONG, *n. s.* a medley of different grain.

BOLLOS, in the mines of Peru, a name given to the bars of silver procured there from the ore, by the operation of fire and aquafortis.

To BOLNE, *v. a. obs.* To swell. *Chaucer.*

BOLNEY, the name of 3 villages, viz. 1. in Norfolkshire, near Cressingham Parva: 2. in Oxfordshire, near Henley: and, 3. in Sussex, near Cuckfield; which has fairs May 17, and Dec. 10.

BOLNHURST, a village in Bedfordshire, between Woodhill and Bush-Mead.

(1.) BOLOGNA, an ancient, rich, and populous city of Italy, the capital of the Bolognese, (See N° 2.) lately in the territories of the pope. Its ancient name was FELSINA.—It is 5 miles in circumference, and contains about 80,000 inhabitants. It has been long distinguished for the sciences, and its university and academy are much esteemed. Its paintings are reckoned next to those of Rome, and its museum is furnished with almost all that is curious in nature and art. It likewise exhibits the finest monuments of architecture; particularly in the palace of Caprara; the marble fountain in the Place del Gigante, by Giovanni; and the leaning towers of Asinelli and Garrisendi. It has 169 churches, (in one of which is Cassini's meridian line, 189 feet long,) and a vast number of palaces: the private houses are also well built. All the gates and windows are open during the summer. The gardens are planted with vast numbers of orange trees that perfume the air. It is a place of great trade, which is in some measure owing to a canal that runs from this city to the river Po. The Reno, which runs near Bologna, turns 400 mills that are employed in the silk-works; the natives deal in wax, soap, hams, sausages, and lap-dogs, which are greatly esteemed. Bologna is seated at the foot of the Appennine mountains, 22 miles SE. of Modena, and 175 NW. of Rome. Lon. 11. 26. E. Lat. 44. 30. N.

(2.) BOLOGNA, or the BOLOGNESE, one of the Italian States. It contains about 308,000 inhabitants; and is bounded on the N. by Ferrara, on the W. by Modena, on the S. by the duchy of Tuscany, and on the E. by Romania. It is watered by a great number of small rivers, which render its soil the most fertile of any in Italy.—Hence the capital, from the great produce of the land about it, is called *Bologna the fat*. It produces all sorts of grain and fruits; particularly muscadine grapes, which are in high esteem. It has mines of alum and iron; and the inhabitants fabricate linen, silk stockings, and cloth.

BOLOGNE, or BOULOGNE, a city of France in the department of the Straits of Dover, and ci-devant province of Picardy, seated near the sea. It is divided into two towns, the Upper and Lower: the first is strongly fortified, the other is inclosed by walls only. The port is at the mouth of the river Liane, but the water is so shallow that no ships of burden can enter it. It is 14 miles S. by W. of Calais, and 130 N. of Paris. Lon. 1. 42. E. Lat. 50. 44. N.

(1.) BOLOGNESE., See BOLOGNA, N° 2.
(2.) BOLOGNESE, the citizens of Bologna.

BOLOGNIAN, or BONONIAN STONE, a phosphoric substance first discovered near Bologna in Italy, whence its name. It was supposed to contain some metallic matter, from its great specific gravity; but is now found to be only a compound of ponderous earth and vitriolic acid. It differs from the artificial barcselenite in the proportion of its ingredients, the latter containing 33 parts of vitriolic acid and 67 of earth; the former 84 of earth, 13 of the most concentrated vitriolic acid, and 3 of water. Mr Scheffer, in the Memoirs of the Academy at Stockholm, for 1753, has communicated some experiments on a stone of this kind from China, which prove, that it perfectly agrees with the description given in several books, of a stone called PETUNTSE by the Chinese, said to be used in their porcelain manufactures.

BOLOGNOIS, } or BOULOGNOIS, a ci-devant
BOLONNOIS, } territory of France, in the N.

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part of Picardy, now included in the department of Somme.

BOLSANE, a town of Germany, in the territory of Tyrol, and circle of Auſtria. It is very agreeably ſituated in the midſt of a fine large valley, full of villages, and abounding in vineyards. The wines in this valley are the beſt in all Tyrol; but they muſt be drank the year after that of their growth, otherwiſe they become unfit for uſe. Lon. 11. 11. E. Lat. 46. 42. N.

BOLSCOT, a village in Oxfordſhire, near Chadlington.

BOLSEC, Jerome, a Carmelite Friar of Paris, who, having preached ſomewhat freely, forſook his order and fled to Ferrara, the then common ſanctuary of the perſecuted for the new opinions. He turned phyſician and married; but having given ſome offence in Ferrara, fled to Geneva and commenced lecturer on divinity. Calvin at firſt befriended him, but Bolſec preaching againſt predeſtination, Calvin tried every method and urged every argument to reclaim him, but in vain. The ſenate of Geneva then interfered, and baniſhed Bolſec, as did alſo the magiſtrates of Bern. He then returned to France and applied to the proteſtants of Paris and Orleans; but perſecution ariſing againſt the new doctines, he returned to the Catholics, and to ingratiate himſelf the more with them, exerted a moſt violent zeal againſt the reformers, particularly Calvin and Beza; whoſe lives he wrote, ſtuffed with the moſt malicious falſehoods. To complete his career of wickedneſs, he proſtituted his own wife to the Canons of Autun. He died about 1584.

(1.) BOLSENNA, a lake of Italy, in the pope's territories, near the town (N° 2.) 45 miles N. of Rome.

(2.) BOLSENNA, a town of Italy, ſeated on the lake, (N° 1.) Lon. 12. 13. E. Lat. 42. 38. N.

BOLSLAW. See BOLISLAW.

BOLSOVER, a large well built town of Derbyſhire, noted for its manufacture of tobacco pipes.

(1.) * BOLSTER. *n. ſ.* [*bolſtre*, Sax. *bolſter*, Dutch.] 1. Something laid on the bed, to raiſe and ſupport the head; commonly a bag filled with down or feathers.—

Perhaps ſome cold bank is her *bolſter* now,
Or 'gainſt the rugged bark of ſome broad elm
Leans her unpillow'd head. *Milton.*

This arm ſhall be a *bolſter* for thy head;
I'll fetch clean ſtraw to make a ſoldier's bed. *Gay.*

2. A pad or quilt, to hinder any preſſure, or fill up any vacuity.—

Up goes her hand, and off ſhe ſlips
The *bolſters* that ſupply her hips. *Savift.*

3. A pad, or compreſs, to be laid on a wound.—The bandage is the girt, which has a *bolſter* in the middle, and the ends tacked firmly together. *Wiſeman.* 4. [In horſemanſhip.] The *bolſters* of a ſaddle are thoſe parts raiſed upon the bows, to hold the riders thigh. *Farrier's Dict.*

(2.) BOLSTER, among ſurgeons, a ſoft yielding ſubſtance, either laid under the head or a broken limb. In this ſenſe, bolſters are contrived for crooked, bunched, and otherwiſe diſtorted backs, ſhoulders, &c.

(3.) BOLSTERS, LAW RE PECTING. By a conſtitution made under Abp. Burchier, the clergy are forbidden to wear bolſters about their ſhoulders, in their gowns, coats, or doublets. The occaſion of the prohibition is variouſly conſtrued. Some ſay that bolſters came in faſhion in the reign of King Richard III. who being neceſſitated, by his natural deformity, to pad, the courtiers, and even the clergy, did the ſame, out of complaiſance to their prince, ſo that every body who had the misfortune to be born ſtraight, was obliged to wear a bolſter on his ſhoulders to be in the faſhion. Others, however, alledge that the law was made 20 years before the uſurpation of Richard.

* *To* BOLSTER, *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To ſupport the head with a bolſter. 2. To afford a bed to.—

Mortal eyes do ſee them *bolſter*
More than their own. *Shakeſpeare's Othello.*

3. To hold wounds together with a compreſs.—The practice of *bolſtering* the cheeks forward, does little ſervice to the wound, and is very uneaſy to the patient. *Sharp.* 4. To ſupport; to hold up; to maintain. This is now an expreſſion ſomewhat coarſe and obſolete.—We may be made wiſer by the publick perſuaſions grafted in men's minds, ſo they be uſed to further the truth, not to *bolſter* errour. *Hooker.*—The lawyer ſets his tongue to ſale for the *bolſtering* out of unjuſt cauſes. *Hakewill.*—It was the way of many to *bolſter* up their crazy, doating conſciences with confidences. *South.*

BOLSTER-CLOTH. See BOLTING-CLOTH.

BOLSTON-BOROUGH, a town near Wells, Shepton-Mallet, and Glaſtonbury.

BOLSUERD. See BOLSWERT, N° 1 and 2.

BOLSWAERT, a town of the United Netherlands, in Weſt Friesland, 13 miles SW. of Lewarden, and 8 miles N. of Slooten. Lon. 5. 20. E. Lat. 53. 3. N.

(1.) BOLSWERT, or BOLSUERD, Boetius Adam A, an engraver at Antwerp, flouriſhed about 1620. He worked with the graver only; and imitated the free open ſtyle of the Bolemarts with great ſucceſs. When he worked from Rubens, he altered that ſtyle; and his plates are neater, fuller of colour, and more highly finiſhed. The two following are mentioned, as capital: 1. The Reſurrection of Lazarus, a large upright plate. 2. The Laſt Supper, its companion.

(2.) BOLSWERT, or BOLSUERD, Scheltius A, was the brother of Boetius Adam, (N° 1.) but greatly his ſuperior. He worked entirely with the graver, and never called in the aſſiſtance of the point. His general character is thus drawn by Baſan; "We have a large number of prints, which are held in great eſteem, by this artiſt, from various maſters; but eſpecially from Rubens, whoſe pictures he has copied with all poſſible knowledge, taſte, and great effect. The freedom with which this excellent artiſt handled the graver, the picturesque roughneſs of etching, which he could imitate without any other aſſiſting inſtrument, and the ability he poſſeſſed of diſtinguiſhing the different maſſes of colours, have always been admired by the connoiſſeurs, and give him a place in the number of thoſe celebrated engravers, who are deſirous of rendering their works as uſeful as they are agreeable, and of acquiring a reputation as laſting as it is juſtly merited." He drew excellently,

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lenty, and his prints are the exact tranſcripts of the pictures he engraved from. Some of his engravings are in a bold, free, open ſtyle; as the Brazen Serpent, the Marriage of the Virgin, &c. from Rubens. Others are very neat, and ſweetly finiſhed: as, the Crowning with Thorns, the Crucifixion, &c. from Vandyck. Some of his prints, which bear great reſemblance to the free engravings of Frederic Bloemart, form a part of the plates for a large folio volume, entitled, *Academie de l'eſpee*, by Girard Thibault of Antwerp, where it was publiſhed, A. D. 1628; and to theſe he ſigns his name, "Scheltius," and ſometimes "Shelderic Bolſwert," adding the word Bruxelle. Many of his other prints have been copied ſo carefully as eaſily to deceive the unſkilful. His name indeed is uſually affixed at the bottom, thus, *S. A. Bolſwert*, but it is often cut off, and then the copy is not eaſily diſtinguiſhed. Some of his prints, particularly of a large upright plate of the Crucifixion, from Vandyck, are very rare, and at ſales have been known to fetch from 25 l. to 30 l.

(I.) * BOLT. *n. ſ.* [*boult*, Dutch; βολος.] 1. An arrow; a dart ſhot from a croſsbow.—

Yet mark'd I where the *bolt* of Cupid fell;
It fell upon a little weſtern flower;
Before milk white, now purple with love's wound. *Shakeſpeare.*

The blunted *bolt* againſt the nymph he dreſt;
But, with the ſharp, transfix'd Apollo's breaſt. *Dryden.*

2. Lightning: a thunderbolt.—

Sing'd with the flames, and with the *bolts* transfix'd,
With native earth your blood the monſters mix'd. *Dryden.*

3. *Bolt upright*; that is, upright as an arrow.—Briſh iron, native or from the mine, conſiſteth of long ſtriæ, about the thickneſs of a ſmall knitting needle, *bolt upright*, like the briſtles of a ſtiff briſh. *Grew.*—As I ſtood *bolt upright* upon one end, one of the ladies burſt out. *Addiſon.* 4. The bar of a door, ſo called from being ſtraight like an arrow; we now ſay, *ſhoot the bolt*, when we ſpeak of faſtening or opening a door.—

'Tis not in thee, to oppoſe the *bolt*
Againſt my coming in. *Shakeſpeare.*

5. An iron to faſten the legs of a priſoner. This is, I think, corrupted from *bought*, or link.—Away with him to priſon; lay *bolts* enough upon him. *Shakeſpeare.*—

(II.) BOLT, in architecture, (§ 1. *def.* 4.) an iron faſtening fixed to doors and windows. They are generally diſtinguiſhed into three kinds, viz. plate, round and ſpring bolts.

(III.) BOLT, in commerce, 28 ells of canvas. Alſo a narrow piece of ſilk of indefinite meaſure.

(IV.) BOLTS, in gunnery, are of ſeveral ſorts; as,

1. BOLTS, BED, the 4 bolts that faſten the brackets of a mortar to the bed.

2. BOLTS, BRACKET, the bolts that go through the cheeks of a mortar, and by the help of quoins keep her fixed at the given elevation.

3. BOLTS, PRISE, the large knobs of iron on the cheeks of a carriage, which keep the handſpike from ſliding, when it is poizing up the breech of a piece.

4. BOLTS, TRANSUM, that go between the cheeks of a gun carriage, to ſtrengthen the tranſums.

5. BOLTS TRAVERSE, the two ſhort bolts, that being put one in each end of a mortar carriage, ſerve to traverſe her.

(V.) BOLTS, in ſhip building, are iron pins, of which there are ſeveral ſorts, according to their different makes and uſes: ſuch as,

1. BOLTS, CLENCA, thoſe which are clenched with rivetting hammers.

2. BOLTS, DRIVE, uſed to drive out others.

3. BOLTS, FEND, or FENDER, made with long and thick heads, and ſtruck into the uttermoſt bends of the ſhip, to ſave her ſides from bruiſes.

4. BOLTS, FORELOCK, have at the end a forelock of iron driven in to keep them from ſtarting back.

5. BOLTS, RAY, have jags or barbs on each ſide, to keep them from flying out of their holes.

6. BOLTS, RING, are for bringing to the planks, and thoſe parts to which the breeches and tackle of the guns are faſtened.

7. BOLTS, SET, are uſed for forcing the planks and bringing them cloſe together.

(I.) * *To* BOLT. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To ſhut or faſten with a bolt.—

The *bolted* gates flew open at the blaſt;
The ſtorm ruſh'd in, and Arcite ſtood aghaſt. *Dryden.*

2. To blurt out, or throw out precipitantly.—

I hate when voice can *bolt* her arguments,
And virtue has no tongue to check her pride. *Milton.*

3. To faſten, as a bolt or pin; to pin; to keep together.—

That I could reach the axel, where the pins are,
Which *bolt* this frame; that I might pull them out. *Ben Jonſon.*

4. To fetter; to ſhackle.—

It is great
To do that thing that ends all other deeds,
Which ſhackles accidents, and *bolts* up change. *Shakeſpeare.*

5. To ſift; or ſeparate the parts of any thing with a ſieve. [*bluter*, Fr.]

He now had *boulted* all the flour. *Spenſer.*

—In the *bolting* and ſifting of fourteen years of power and favour, all that came out could not be pure meal. *Wotton.*—

I cannot *bolt* this matter to the bran,
As Bradwardin and holy Auſtin can. *Dryd. n.*

6. To examine by ſifting; to try out; to lay open.—It would be well *bolted* out, whether great refractions may not be made upon reflections, as upon direct beams. *Bacon.*—The judge, or jury, or parties, or the council, or attornies, propounding queſtions, beats and *bolts* out the truth much better than when the witneſs delivers only a formal ſeries. *Hale.*—Time and nature will *bolt* out the truth of things, through all diſguiſes. *L'Eſtr.*

7. To purify; to purge. This is harſh.—

The fanned ſnow
That's *bolted* by the northern blaſt twice o'er. *Shakeſpeare.*

(I.) * *To* BOLT. *v. n.* To ſpring out with ſpeed and ſuddenneſs; to ſtart out with the quickneſs of an arrow.—

This puck ſeems but a dreaming dolt,

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Still walking like a ragged colt,
And oft out of a buſh doth *bolt*,
Of purpoſe to deceive us. *Drayton.*

—They erected a fort, and from thence they *bolted* like beaſts of the foreſt, ſometimes into the foreſt, and ſometimes into the woods and faſtneſſes, and ſometimes back to their den. *Bacon.*—As the houſe was all in a flame, out *bolts* a mouſe from the ruins to ſave herſelf. *L'Eſtrange.*—I have reflected on thoſe men who, from time to time, have ſhot themſelves into the world. I have ſeen many ſucceſſions of them; ſome *bolting* out upon the ſtage with vaſt applauſe, and others hiſſed off. *Dryden.*—

The birds to foreign ſeats repair'd,
And beaſts, that *bolted* out, and ſaw the foreſt bar'd. *Dryden.*

BOLT-AUGER, *n. ſ.* a large bower uſed in ſhip-building.

BOLT-BOAT, *n. ſ.* a ſtrong boat, that will endure a rough ſea.

BOLTBY, a village in Yorkſhire, near Northallerton.

BOLT-DRAWER, an inſtrument for drawing bolts out of the old planks of ſhips. Its form, and the manner of uſing it, may be eaſily conceived from inſpecting *Fig.* 7. *Plate* XXXIX.

BOLTED FLOUR, that which has paſſed thro' the bolters. See BOLTER, § 2.

BOLTEL, in building, any prominence or jutting out, as of a piece of timber, end of a beam, or the like, advancing beyond the naked of the wall.

(1.) * BOLTER. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. A ſieve to ſeparate meal from bran or huſks; or to ſeparate finer from coarſer parts.—Dowlas, filthy dowlas: I have given them away to bakers wives, and they have made *bolters* of them. *Shakeſpeare.*—With a good ſtrong chopping-knife mince the two capons, bone and all, as ſmall as ordinary minced meat; put them into a large neat *bolter*. *Bacon's Nat. Hiſt.*

When ſupercilioufly he ſifts
Through coarſeſt *bolter* other gifts. *Hudibras.*

2. A kind of net.—Theſe hakes, and divers others of the fore-cited, are taken with threads, and ſome of them with the *bolter*, which is a ſpiller of a bigger ſize. *Carew.*

(2.) BOLTERS, or BOULTERS, have their bottoms made of woollen, hair, or wire. The bakers uſe bolters which are worked by the hand; millers have a larger ſort, wrought by the mill.

* BOLTHEAD. *n. ſ.* A long ſtrait-necked glaſs veſſel, for chymical diſtillations, called alſo a *matraſs*, or *receiver*.—This ſpirit abounds in ſalt, which may be ſeparated by putting the liquor into a *bolthead* with a long narrow neck. *Boyle.*

(1.) BOLTING, a term of art uſed in our inns of court, for a private arguing of caſes. The manner at Gray's inn is this: An ancient and two barriſters ſit as judges; three ſtudents bring each a caſe, out of which the judges chooſe one to be argued; which done, the ſtudents firſt argue it, and after them the barriſters. It is inferior to *mooting*; and may be derived from the Saxon word *bolt*, a houſe, becauſe done privately in the houſe for inſtruction. In Lincoln's inn, Mondays and Wedneſdays are the bolting days in vacation time; and Tueſdays and Thurſdays the moot days.

(2.) BOLTING, or BOULTING, among millers, the act of ſeparating the flour from the bran, by means of a ſieve or bolter. See BOLTER, § 2.

(3.) BOLTING, or BOULTING, among ſportſmen, ſignifies diſlodging a coney.

BOLTING-CLOTH, BOLSTER-CLOTH, or BULTING-CLOTH, a linen or hair cloth for ſifting meal or flour.

* BOLTING-HOUSE. *n. ſ.* [from *bolt* and *houſe*.] The place where meal is ſifted.—The jade is returned as white, and as powdered, as if ſhe had been at work in a *bolting-houſe*. *Dennis.*

BOLTING-HUTCH, or BUNTING-HUTCH, a cheſt for ſifting meal in. *Bailey.*

BOLTING-MILL, a verſatile engine for ſifting with more eaſe and expedition. The cloth round this is called the BOLTER.

(1.) BOLTON, a pariſh of Scotland, in Haddingtonſhire, extending near ſix miles in length, from NE. to SW. and about a mile and a quarter, at a medium, in breadth. It contains about 2,500 acres, of which about 170 were planted; 150 ſown with wheat; 120 with barley; 230 with oats; 200 with clover, and 130 with peaſe and beans, in 1791, according to the Rev. Mr Hamilton's report to Sir J. Sinclair. The population, at that period, was 235, which was 124 leſs than it was in 1755. The number of horſes was 83; of cows 280; and of ſheep 120. Thirlages and ſervitudes are not yet aboliſhed.

(2.) BOLTON LE MOORS, a town in Lancaſhire, on the river Creoll, noted for its extenſive manufactures of cotton goods. In 1801, it contained 17,413 inhabitants, being an increaſe of 12,000, during the 30 years preceding. Bolton is a monument of the wiſe and liberal policy of our government, in affording protection and encouragement, to the ingenious mechanics of the continent, when perſecuted for their religious opinions. It was here that the Flemings firſt eſtabliſhed the cotton manufacture, and it retained the pre-eminence in that branch of commerce for a conſiderable time; at this period the trade of Manchester was chiefly in courſe woollens, ſuch as are now made to the north of Bury, and even in the beginning of the 18th century, their ſtaple manufactures were checks, hats and ſmall wares. The water communication with Manchester and Bury is of vaſt importance to Bolton; the diſtance to the former place is only 12 miles, and yet the fares collected in one week, during the Manchester races, have been known to exceed £100. It has the advantage of a free ſchool, of which Ainſworth, the author of a large Latin Dictionary, was once maſter; it was here alſo that Sir Richard Arkwright was born, and paſſed great part of his early life. There are ſeveral good libraries; and the methodiſts have a ſunday ſchool, in which more than 1000 children are inſtructed, gratis, in reading and writing. Lon. 2. 15. W. Lat. 53. 55. N.

(3.) BOLTON, a village of Scotland in the above pariſh, N° 1.

(4.) BOLTON, a village in Cumberland, near Ireby.

(5, 6.) BOLTON is alſo the name of two villages in Lancaſhire, viz. 1. between Bury and Wigan: and, 2. N. of Lancaſter, 237 miles from London.

(7—15.) BOLTON is likewiſe the name of 9 villages in Yorkſhire; viz. 1. in the E. Riding, NW.

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of Pocklington, near a river that runs into the Derwent: it has a fair, 28 June: 2. East, 3. Middle, and 4. West Boltons, in the N. Riding, near Midlam and Wenslaw-Dale: 5. in the W. Riding, W. of Bernard Castle: 6. SW. of Gisborn: 7. E. of Richmond: 8. N. of Rotherham, and 7 miles W. of Doncaster: and, 9. NE. of Skipton.

(16.) Bolton in the Sands, lies in Westmoreland, near Kendal.

(17.) Bolton, or Boulton, Edmund, an ingenious English antiquarian, who lived in the beginning of the 17th century. His principal work is his *Nero Cæsar*, or *Monarchy depraved*, printed at London in 1624, folio, and adorned with several curious prints of valuable medals. It is divided into 55 chapters, in some of which are introduced curious remarks and observations. In the 24th and 25th chapters he gives an account of the revolt in Britain, against the Romans, under the conduct of Boadicea, which he introduces with a recapitulation of the affairs of Britain, from the first entrance of the Romans, under Julius Cæsar, till the revolt in the reign of Nero. In chapter 36th, he treats of the East India trade in Nero's time, which was then carried on by the river Nile, and from thence by caravans over land to the Red Sea, and thence to the Indian ocean; the ready coin carried yearly from Rome on this account amounting, according to Pliny's computation, to above 300,000l. Sterling; and the usual returns in December and January yielding in clear gain an hundred for one. Besides this he wrote, 1. An English translation of Lucius Florus's Roman history. 2. Hypercritica, or a rule of judgment for reading or writing our histories. 3. The elements of armories, &c. and some other works.

(18.) Bolton, Robert, D. D. was born in Northamptonshire, about 1690, and educated at Oxford, where he took his degrees. In 1720, he became acquainted with Mr Pope, and in 1724, with the celebrated Mr Whiston, through whose recommendation, partly, he became chaplain to Sir Jos. Jekyll, who introduced him to Lord Hardwicke, by whose patronage, in 1735, he was made Dean of Carlisle, and, in 1738, vicar of St Mary's, Reading. He was a good preacher, charitable to the poor, and beloved by his parishioners. Though well qualified for an author, he was advanced in life before he published any thing; his 1st work being, A Letter to a Lady on Card-playing on the Lord's Day; 8vo, 1748. 2. The employment of time; 8vo. 1750: dedicated to Lord Hardwicke. 3. The Deity's delay in punishing the guilty, considered on the principles of reason; 8vo. 1751. 4. A treatise on lewdness; 8vo. 1755. 5. A letter on travelling on Sundays; 8vo. 1757. 6. The Ghost of Ernest, great grandfather to the Princess dowager of Wales; with some account of his life; 8vo. 7. Letters and tracts on the choice of company, &c. He died at London, Nov. 26. 1763.

Bolton-Percy, a village in Yorkshire, near Nun-Appleton.

(1.) * Bolt-rope. *n. s.* [from *bolt* and *rope*.] The rope on which the sail of a ship is sewed and fastened. *Sea Dict.*

(2.) Bolt-rope, in naval affairs, the rope passing round the sail, to which the edges of it are sewed, to prevent the sail from tearing: the bottom part of it is called the *foot-rope*; the sides, *leeches*; and if the sail be oblong or square, the upper part is called the *head-rope*.

* Boltsprit. Bowsprit. *n. s.* A mast running out at the head of a ship, not standing upright, but aslope. The but end of it is generally set against the foot of the foremast; so that they are a stay to one another. The length without board is sufficient to let its sails hang clear of all incumbrances. If the *boltsprit* fail in bad weather, the foremast cannot hold long after. *Bowsprit* is perhaps the right spelling. *Sea Dictionary.*—

Sometimes I'd divide,
And burn in many places; on the topmast,
The yards, and *boltsprit*, would I flame distinctly. *Shakespeare.*

Boluc Bassi, the chief of a company among the Turks, or a captain over 100 Janizaries.

(1.) * Bolus. *n. s.* [βῶλος.] A form of medicine, in which the ingredients are made up into a soft mass, larger than pills, to be swallowed at once. —Keep their bodies soluble the while by clysters, lenitive *boluses* of cassia and manna, with syrup of violets. *Wiseman.*—

By poets we are well assur'd,
That love, alas! can ne'er be cur'd;
A complicated heap of ills,
Despising *boluses* and pills. *Swift.*

(2.) Bolus, in pharmacy.—A bolus should be of the same consistence as an electuary, so as to be swallowed easily without falling to pieces. That it may be as little tasted as possible, it generally consists of the medicine in powder, worked up to the proper thickness by means of some grateful syrup, or a palatable conserve; or if the medicine be an oil, balsam, or other liquid, dry sugar, almond paste, or other similar substance is added, till it is brought to a due consistence. It is always administered in a single doze. The substances generally exhibited in this form are those that are heavy, and that can scarcely be suspended in any liquid long enough to be drank off, as calomel, powder of tin, steel filings, æthiops mineral; or those that are too bulky to be made conveniently into pills, or are extremely nauseous in a liquid form, such as cinchona, chamomile, burnt sponge, valerian root, Dover's powder; or the stronger aromatics and acrids, as musk, castor, camphor, guaiacum, ammonia; or such as are scarcely soluble in the stomach, unless they have been mixed previously with some proper substance which is easily dissolved, and yet do not readily combine with sufficient liquid to be drank off, as the oil of turpentine mixed with flour and sugar. The difference between boluses and troches is, that the latter, designed for slow solution in the mouth, are made of a firmer consistence, though equally soluble; they are generally made of tasteless, or at least not obnoxious ingredients. This form of medicine, although it possesses many advantages, such as the ease of preparing it, and the economy of using no more of an expensive drug than is necessary, on which account it is prepared in public hospitals; yet it ought not to be chosen when the patient has difficulty in swallowing, as in apoplexy,

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plexy, in ſpaſmodic and painful diſorders in the throat, or when the œſophagus is naturally narrow.

BOLZANO, a town of Auſtria, in Tyrol.

BOLZAS, in commerce, a kind of ticking brought from the Eaſt Indies.

BOM, in zoology, the name of an American ſerpent, remarkable for its noiſe, which is like the ſound of the word uſed as its name. It grows to a vaſt ſize, but is perfectly harmleſs.

BOMAL, a town of France, ſituated on the Ourt. Lon. 5. 30. E. Lat. 50. 20. N.

BOMARIN, in zoology, a name uſed by ſome for the HIPPOPOTAMUS, or river horſe.

(1.) * BOMB. *n. ſ.* [*bombus*, Lat.] 1. A loud noiſe.—An upper chamber being thought weak, was ſupported by a pillar of iron, of the bigneſs of one's arm in the midſt; which, if you had ſtruck, would make a little flat noiſe in the room, but a great *bomb* in the chamber beneath. *Bacon.* 2. A hollow iron ball, or ſhell, filled with gunpowder, and furniſhed with a vent for a fuſee, or wooden tube, filled with combuſtible matter, to be thrown out from a mortar; which has its name from the noiſe it makes. The fuſee, being ſet on fire, burns ſlowly till it reach the gunpowder, which goes off at once, burſting the ſhell to pieces with incredible violence; whence the uſe of *bombs* in beſieging towns. The largeſt are about 18 inches in diameter. By whom they were invented is not known, and the time is uncertain, ſome fixing it to 1588, and others to 1495. *Chambers.*—

The loud cannon miſſive iron pours,
And in the ſlaught'ring *bomb* Gradivus roars.
Rowe.

(2.) BOMBS, METHODS OF USING. The ſhell being filled with gunpowder, the fuſee is driven into the vent or aperture, within an inch of the head, and faſtened with a cement made of quick lime, aſhes, brick duſt, and ſteel filings, worked together in a glutinous water; or of four parts of pitch, two of colophony, one of turpentine, and one of wax. This tube is filled with a combuſtible matter, made of two ounces of nitre, one of ſulphur, and 3 of gunpowder duſt, well rammed. To preſerve the fuſee, they pitch it over, but uncaſe it, when they put it into the mortar, and cover it with gunpowder duſt; which, having taken fire by the flaſh of the powder in the chamber of the mortar, burns all the time the bomb is in the air; and the compoſition in the bomb being ſpent, it fires the powder in the bomb, which burſts with great force, blowing up whatever is about it. The great height a bomb goes in the air, and the force with which it falls, makes it go deep into the earth. Bombs may be uſed without mortar-pieces, as was done by the Venetians at Candia, when the Turks had poſſeſſed themſelves of the ditch, rolling down bombs upon them along a plank ſet ſloping towards their works, with ledges on the ſides to keep the bomb right forward. They are ſometimes alſo buried under ground to blow up. See CAISSON. Bombs were not commonly uſed till 1634, and then only in the Dutch and Spaniſh armies. One Malthus, an Engliſh engineer, is ſaid to have carried them firſt into France, where they were uſed at the ſiege of Collioure. The French have lately invented a new ſort of bombs of vaſt weight, called COMMINGES.—The art of throwing bombs makes a branch of gunnery, founded on the theory of projectiles, and the qualities of gunpowder. See GUNNERY, PROJECTILES, GUNPOWDER, &c.

* *To* BOMB. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To fall upon with bombs; to bombard.—

Our king thus trembles at Namur,
While Villeroy, who ne'er afraid is,
To Bruxelles marches on ſecure,
To *bomb* the monks, and ſcare the ladies.
Prior.

(1.) * BOMBARD. *n. ſ.* [*bombardus*, Latin.] 1. A great gun; a cannon: it is a word now obſolete.—They planted in divers places 12 great *bombards*, wherewith they threw huge ſtones into the air, which falling down upon the city, might break down the houſes. *Knolles.* 2. A barrel. Obſolete.

(2.) *A* BOMBARD was a piece of ordnance anciently in uſe, exceeding ſhort and thick, and with a very large mouth. Bombards have been made to throw a ball of 300 pound weight. Cranes were uſed to load them. The bombard is by ſome called *baſiliſk*, and by the Dutch *donderbaſs*.

* *To* BOMBARD. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To attack with bombs.—A medal is ſtruck on the Engliſh failing in their attempts on Dunkirk, when they endeavoured to blow up a fort, and to *bombard* the town. *Addiſon.*

BOMBARDE, or BOMHARDE, a pariſh in St Domingo, with a fort.

(1.) * BOMBARDIER. *n. ſ.* [from *bombard.*] The engineer whoſe employment it is to ſhoot bombs.—The *bombardier* toſſes his ball ſometimes into the midſt of a city, with a deſign to fill all around him with terror and combuſtion. *Tatler.*

(2.) *A* BOMBARDIER has to drive the fuſee, fix the ſhell, and load and fire the mortar.

(3.) BOMBARDIER, in entomology. See CARABUS.

* BOMBARDMENT. *n. ſ.* [from *bombard.*] An attack made upon any city, by throwing bombs into it.—Genoa is not yet ſecure from *bombardment*, though it is not ſo expoſed as formerly. *Addiſon.*

BOMBARDO, a muſical inſtrument of the wind kind, much the ſame as the baſſoon, and uſed as a baſs to the hautboy.

(1.) * BOMBASIN. *n. ſ.* [*bombaſin*, Fr. from *bombycinus*, ſilken, Latin.] A ſlight ſilken ſtuff, for mourning.

(2.) BOMBASINE is alſo applied to ſtuffs croſſed of cotton.

BOMBASIUS, Paul, a native of Bologna, gained eſteem by the profeſſion of philology about the beginning of the 16th century. He taught Latin and Greek at Naples, and was profeſſor of Greek at Bologna. His abilities induced Cardinal Pucci to make him his ſecretary, with a good ſalary. He lived very eaſy at Rome with the cardinal, till that city was plundered under Clement VII. when he was killed, while endeavouring to get into the caſtle of St Angelo. He was an intimate friend and correſpondent of Eraſmus, who has preſerved ſome of his letters, and gives him a good character.

(1.) * BOM-

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(1.) * BOMBAST. *adj.* [from the ſubſtantive.] High ſounding; of big ſound without meaning.—

He, as loving his own pride and purpoſe,
Evades them with a *bombaſt* circumſtance,
Horribly ſtuff'd with epithets of war. *Shak.*

(2.) * BOMBAST. *n. ſ.* [A ſtuff of ſoft looſe texture uſed formerly to ſwell the garment, and thence uſed to ſignify bulk or ſhew without ſolidity.] Fuſtian; big words without meaning.—

Not pedants motley tongue, ſoldiers *bombaſt*,
Mountebanks drug-tongue, nor the terms of law,
Are ſtrong enough preparatives to draw
Me to hear this. *Donne.*

—Are all the flights of heroick poetry to be concluded *bombaſt*, unnatural, and mere madneſs, becauſe they are not affected with their excellencies? *Dryden.*

(3.) BOMBAST, in compoſition, is a ſerious endeavour, by ſtrained deſcription, to raiſe a low or familiar ſubject beyond its rank; which, inſtead of being ſublime, never fails to be ridiculous. The mind in ſome animating paſſions is indeed apt to magnify its objects beyond natural bounds: but ſuch hyperbolical deſcriptions has its limits; and, when carried beyond theſe, it degenerates into burleſque, as in the following examples:

"He roar'd ſo loud and look'd ſo wond'rous grim,
"His very ſhadow durſt not follow him."

Ben Jonſon, in his Sejanus, (Act 5.) makes that proud miniſter ſay,

——"Great and high,
The world knows only two, that's Rome and I,
My roof receives me not; 'tis air I tread,
And at each ſtep I feel my advanc'd head
Knock out a ſtar in heaven."

A writer who has no natural elevation of genius is extremely apt to deviate into bombaſt. He ſtrains above his genius, and the violent effort he makes, carries him generally beyond the bound of propriety. But even the beſt poets ſometimes deviate into bombaſt, or ſink into bathos, when they go beyond nature, in aiming at the ſublime. See SUBLIME.

BOMBASTIC, *adj.* ſwelling; high-flown; that which has more ſound than ſenſe.

BOMBASTRY, *n. ſ.* Bombaſt.

(I. 1.) BOMBAX, in botany, the SILK-COTTON TREE: A genus of the polyandria order, belonging to the monodelphia claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 17th order, *Columniferæ*. The calix is quinquifid: the ſtamina are 5 or many; the capſule is ligneus, quinquelocular, and quinquevalved: the ſeeds are woolly, and the receptacle pentagonous. The ſpecies are,

1. BOMBAX CEIBA, with a prickly ſtalk. See N° 3.

2. BOMBAX HEPTAPHYLLUM, with leaves cut into 7 parts. The cotton is of a fine purple colour, but the ſize of the tree is not particularly mentioned by botanical writers.

3. BOMBAX PENTANDRUM, with a ſmooth ſtalk. This and the CEIBA, (N° 1.) grow naturally in both the Indies, where they arrive at a great magnitude, being ſome of the largeſt trees in theſe parts. Boſman ſays, he has ſeen in Guinea, trees of this kind ſo widely diffuſed, that 20,000 armed men might ſtand under the branches of one. They generally grow with ſtraight ſtems. Thoſe of the ceiba are armed with ſhort ſtrong ſpines; but the pentandrum has very ſmooth ſtems, which in the young plant are of a bright green; but after a few years they are covered with a grey or aſh coloured bark, which turns brown as they grow older. The branches towards the top are garniſhed with leaves compoſed of 5, 7, or 9, oblong ſmooth little leaves, ſpear-ſhaped, and joined to one common centre at their baſe, where they adhere to the long footſtalk. The flower buds appear at the end of the branches; and ſoon after the flowers expand, which are compoſed of 5 oblong purple petals, with a great number of ſtamina in the centre; when theſe fall off, they are ſucceeded by oval fruit as large as a ſwan's egg, having a thick ligneous cover, which, when ripe, opens in 5 parts, and is full of a dark ſhort cotton, incloſing many roundiſh ſeeds as large as ſmall peas.

4. BOMBAX.—Beſides the ſpecies above deſcribed, Mr Miller mentions another which he ſaw in the gardens of the late duke of Richmond at Goodwood, and was raiſed from ſeeds which came from the Eaſt Indies. The ſtem was very ſtraight and ſmooth, the leaves were produced round the top upon very long footſtalks, each being compoſed of 7 or 9 narrow ſilky ſmall lobes, joined at their baſe to the footſtalk, very long, and reflected backward.

(2.) BOMBAX, CULTURE OF THE DIFFERENT KINDS OF. Theſe plants, being natives of warm climates, muſt alway be kept in a ſtove. They are raiſed from ſeeds procured in the capſules from the places where they grow naturally. Theſe are to be ſown in ſpring, in pots of light earth, plunged in a ſubſtantial hot-bed of dung or tan, where the plants will appear in 3 or 4 weeks. They muſt then be placed ſeparately in ſmall pots, plunging them in the bark-bed, giving them ſhade and water, and ſhifting them occaſionally into larger pots with freſh earth. Water them plentifully in ſummer, but moderately in winter.

(3.) BOMBAX, USES OF THE VARIOUS SPECIES OF. The dark ſhort cotton of the 1ſt and 3d ſpecies is uſed by the poorer inhabitants of thoſe places where ſuch trees grow, to ſtuff pillows or chairs, but is generally deemed unwholeſome to lie upon. The beautiful purple down of the heptaphyllum is ſpun, wrought into clothes, and worn, without being dyed any other colour, by the inhabitants of the Spaniſh Weſt Indies, where the tree naturally grows. Large pirogues, or canoes fit to carry a ſail, are made both at Senegal, and in America, of the trunk of the ſilk-cotton tree, the wood of which is very light, and unfit for any other purpoſe. In Columbus's firſt voyage, it was reported that a canoe was ſeen at Cuba made of the hollowed trunk of one of theſe trees, which was 95 palms long, of a proportional width, and capable of containing 150 men.

(II.) BOMBAX is alſo uſed ſometimes for ſilk or cotton; but the true botanic name of cotton is GOSSYPIUM.

(III.) BOMBAX, in entomology, is applied by Linnæus to ſuch inſects as have incumbent wings, and feelers reſembling a comb.

(IV.) BOMBAX,

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(IV.) BOMBAX, in zoology, a ſynonime of a ſpecies of CONUS.

(I. 1.) BOMBAY, an iſland of Hindooſtan, on the W. coaſt of Decan, 7 m. in length and 20 in circumference. It has its name from the Portugueſe *Buon-babia*, on account of the excellent bay formed by it together with the winding of other iſlands adjacent. The harbour is ſpacious enough to contain any number of ſhips, and has likewiſe excellent anchoring ground, affording alſo, by its ſituation, a ſhelter from almoſt any winds to which the mouth may be expoſed. It is 150 miles S. of Surat, and 40 NW. of Rajapour. Lon. 72. 38. E. Lat. 18. 58. N.

(2.) BOMBAY, ADVANTAGES OF. Bombay is the moſt conſiderable Engliſh ſettlement on the peninſula; and from its ſituation, may be ſtyled the ſtorehouſe of all the Arabian and Perſian commerce. There are three fine docks in Bombay, that take in line of battle ſhips, and a ſmaller one at Maſſagon; two others are alſo in a ſtate of forwardneſs; ſeveral frigates have been built here, and a 64 gun ſhip is at preſent (1806), building. On the event of their procuring a ſufficient ſupply of crooked timber, large enough for ſhips of the line, this place will furniſh our navy with ſhips more durable than thoſe made of the beſt of oak.

(3.) BOMBAY, CLIMATE OF. This iſland was formerly reckoned exceedingly unhealthy, inſomuch that it had the name of the burying ground of the Engliſh, though it is now ſo far improved in this reſpect, as to be no worſe than any other place in the Eaſt Indies, under the ſame parallel of latitude. The reaſon of this unhealthineſs and the ſubſequent improvements are enumerated by Mr Groſe. 1. The nature of the climate, and the precautions required by it, being leſs underſtood than they are at preſent. 2. Formerly there obtained a very pernicious practice of employing a ſmall fry of fiſh as manure for the cocoa trees which grow in plenty on the iſland; though this has been denied by others, and perhaps with juſtice, as the putrid effluvia of animal bodies ſeems to be very effectually abſorbed by the earth, (See HUSBANDRY.) when buried in it. All agree, however, that the habitations in the woods or cocoa-nut groves are unwholeſome, by reaſon of the moiſture and want of a free circulation of air. 3. Another cauſe has been aſſigned for the ſuperior healthineſs of this iſland, *viz.* the leſſening of the waters by the banking off a breach of the ſea, though this does not appear ſatisfactory to our author. There is ſtill, ſays he, a great body of ſalt water on the inſide of the breach, the communication of which with the ocean being leſs free than before the breach was built, muſt be proportionably more apt to ſtagnate, and to produce noxious vapours. Whatever may be the cauſe, however, it is certain, that Bombay no longer deſerves its former character, provided a due degree of temperance be obſerved; without which health cannot be expected in any warm climate. The climate ſeems to be drier than many other parts under the ſame parallel. The rains laſt only 4 months but with ſhort intermiſſions. The ſetting in of the rains is commonly uſhered in by a violent thunder ſtorm, called the ELEPHANTA from its extraordinary violence. The air, however, is then agreeably cooled, and the exceſſive heat, then nearly at its height, much moderated. The rains begin about the end of May, and go off in the beginning of September; after which there never falls any except a ſhort tranſient ſhower, and that but very rarely. A very extraordinary circumſtance is related by Mr Ives concerning this during the rainy ſeaſon, viz. that, ten days after the rains ſet in, every pool and puddle ſwarms with a ſpecies of fiſh about ſix inches long and ſomewhat reſembling a mullet. Such a phenomenon has occaſioned various ſpeculations. Some have imagined that the exhaling power of the ſun is ſo ſtrong in the dry ſeaſons as to be able to raiſe the ſpawn of theſe fiſhes into the atmoſphere, and there ſuſpend and nouriſh it till the rains come on, when it drops down again in the ſtate of living and perfectly formed fiſh. A leſs extravagant ſuppoſition is, that after the ponds become dry, the ſpawn may poſſibly fall into deep fiſſures below the apparent bottom, remaining there during the dry ſeaſon, and being ſupplied with a ſufficient quantity of moiſture to prevent it from corruption. The quantity of rain that falls at Bombay in one ſeaſon has been accurately meaſured by Mr Thomas, Mr Ives's predeceſſor as hoſpital ſurgeon. His apparatus conſiſted of a lead cylinder about 9 inches diameter, and as many deep, marked on the inſide with inches and tenths. To prevent the water from ſplaſhing over, he cut a hole two inches from the bottom, and placed the cylinder in a glazed earthen veſſel; after which a wax-cloth was ſecurely tied round it, ſo as to cover the veſſel, and prevent any water from getting in, excepting what paſſed through the cylinder. When more than two inches fell, the hole in the ſide was ſtopped with wax, and the water poured from the veſſel into the cylinder to aſcertain its quantity. It was kept in an open place free from houſes, and meaſured at ſix in the morning, noon, and ſix in the evening. The following table ſhows the total quantity of rain that fell each month from the 25th of May, when it firſt began, (though the ſky looked cloudy over land from the beginning of the month,) till the 17th Oct. when it ended.

QUANTITY OF RAIN;

	in Inches	*Tenths.*
From the 25th to 31ſt May	1	0
In June	44	7
In July	29	9
In Aug.	19	0
In Sept.	11	2
From the 1ſt to 17th October	4	5
Total	110	3

Mr Thomas in this journal makes no mention of the elephanta as the fore-runner of the rainy ſeaſon, though he mentions a ſtorm under that name on the 9th of October. It was an exceſſive hard gale, with violent thunder, lightning, and rain; of which laſt there fell two inches in no more than 4 hours. Neither is the quantity of thunder and lightning at all comparable to what people unacquainted with hot climates might be apt to expect. The only thunder ſtorms mentioned in the journal were on May 31ſt, June 3d, 5th, 12th, 14th

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14th; Sept. 7th, Oct. 9th, an elephanta; and some thunder on the 15th of the same month.

(4.) BOMBAY, CURIOSITIES, SNAKES, &c. OF. Among the curiosities of Bombay Mr Ives mentions a large *terapin*, or land tortoise, kept at the governor's house, the age of which was upwards of 200 years. Frogs, which abound every where through the E. Indies, are very large at Bombay. Our author saw one that measured 22 inches from the extremities of the fore and hind feet when extended; and he supposes that its weight could not have been less than 4 or 5 lb. On the sea-shore, round the island, are a great variety of beautiful shells, particularly the sort called *ventle-traps* or *wendle-traps*, held in great esteem among the ladies some time ago. Several pounds Sterling are said to have been given by a *virtuoso* for one of these shells when Commodore Leslie's collection of shells was sold by auction. Mr Ives enumerates the following kinds of snakes found on this island and other parts of the British empire in the E. Indies. 1. The COBRA DE CAPELLA, which grows from 4 to 8 or 9 feet long. Their bite kills in 15 minutes. The COBRA MANILA is a small bluish snake, of the size of a man's little finger, and about a foot long, frequently seen about old walls. A species of these found at Bombay kill much sooner than even the former. 3. The PALÆIRA, a very thin beautiful snake, of different colours; its head is like that of the common viper, but much thicker than the body. Our author saw one that was 4 feet long, and the body not much thicker than a swan's quill. 4. The green snake is of a very bright green colour, with a sharp head: towards the tail it is smaller than in the middle. The largest part of it is no bigger than a tobacco-pipe. 5. The SAND SNAKE is small and short, but not less deadly than the others. 6. The COBRA DE AURELIA resembles an earth-worm is about six inches long, and no bigger than a small crow-quill. It kills by getting into the ear, causing madness, &c. 7. The MANILA BOMBA is a very beautiful snake, of almost the same size throughout the whole length, except at the two ends, where it comes to a point. It is white on the belly, but finely variegated on the back. It lives in the sand, and is said to sting with its tail, which occasions contractions in the joints.

(5.) BOMBAY, DIVISION, LAND PROPRIETORS, CHURCHES, AND TEMPLES, &c. OF. When the island was ceded to the English by the Portuguese, it was divided, and still continues to be so, into 3 Roman Catholic parishes, Bombay, Mahim, and Salvacam. The churches of these are governed by priests of that religion, and of any nation excepting Portugal, who were expressly objected to at the time of cession. The bulk of the land proprietors at that time were Mestizos and Canarians. The former are a mixed breed of the natives and Portuguese; the latter purely aborigines of the country converted to the popish religion. The other land-owners were Moors, Gentoos, and Persees; but these last are of more modern date, having purchased estates on the island. The company has also a very considerable landed estate either by purchases, confiscations for crimes, and seizures for debt. The land is laid out in cocoa-nut groves, rice-fields, and onion grounds, which last are reckoned of an excellent quality. There is only one English church a Bombay, a very neat commodious building, seated on a spacious area, called *the Green*. The pagodas, or temples of the Gentoos, are low mean buildings, having usually no light but what is admitted by the door; facing which is the principal idol. They imagine that a dark gloomy place inspires a kind of religious awe and reverence; and are very fond of having these pagodas among trees, and near the side of a tank or pond, for the sake of their frequent ablutions. These tanks are often very expensive; being generally square, and surrounded with stone steps for the convenience of the bathers.

(6.) BOMBAY, FORTS, WATERS, &c. IN. On this island are many little forts and batteries, which carry some guns; but the principal fort, which defends the place, has above 100. Mr Grose finds fault with the situation of this last fort, which he says, not only does command the harbour sufficiently, but is itself overlooked by an eminence called Dungharee Point. The castle itself is a regular quadrangle, well built of strong hard stone. In one of the bastions facing Dungharee Point is a large tank, or cistern, which contains a great quantity of water constantly replenished by the stationary rains. There is also a well within the fort, but the water is not very good, and liable to be dried up by the heats. The water of Bombay in general indeed is not good, which has been given as a reason why the Gentoo merchants were not fond of settling upon it; for as they drink no wine nor spirituous liquors, they are very nice judges of the taste and qualities of waters. Next to that of Bombay, the most considerable fort on the island is that of MAHIM. It is situated at the opposite extremity of the island, and commands the pass of Bandurah, a fort directly opposite to it on the coast of Salsette. From this island Bombay is separated by an arm of the sea, capable of receiving only small craft. The other forts are capable of making but a slight defence. About two miles out of town, towards the middle of the island, the sea had gained so far as almost to divide it in two, and rendered the roads impassable. A great quantity of this water, however, was drained off at a very considerable expence, and a causeway raised which kept it from overflowing again. This causeway is above a quarter of a mile in length, and considerably broad; "but (says Mr Grose,) there is one gross fault remarked in it; that, being bending near the middle, the architect has opposed to the sea a re-entering angle instead of a saliant one." Within the beach, however, there is still a considerable body of water, that has a free communication with the sea, as appears by its ebbing and flowing; so that it is probable the causeway itself, erected at the expence of at least L. 100,000, may ere long be totally undermined and thrown down.

(7.) BOMBAY, GOVERNMENT OF. } See EAST INDIA COMPANY, and HINDOOSTAN.
(8.) BOMBAY HISTORY OF. }

(9.) BOMBAY, HOUSES, WALKS, &c. IN. The Green, (§ 5.) extends from the church to the fort, and is pleasantly laid out in walks planted

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with trees, round which the houſes of the Engliſh inhabitants are moſtly ſituated. Theſe are generally only ground floored, with a court yard before and behind, in which are the offices and outhouſes. They are ſubſtantially built of ſtone and lime, and ſmooth plaſtered on the outſide. They are often kept white waſhed, which, however neat, is in ſome reſpects very diſagreeable, by reaſon of the exceſſive glare it occaſions in reflecting the light of the ſun. Few of them have glaſs windows to any apartment; the ſaſhes being generally paned with a kind of tranſparent oyſter-ſhells, cut ſquare; which have the ſingular property of tranſmitting ſufficient light, at the ſame time that they exclude the violent glare of the ſun, and have beſides a cool look. The flooring is generally compoſed of a kind of ſtucco, called *chunam*, being a lime made of burnt ſhells, when well tempered, in a peculiar manner known to the natives, is extremely hard and laſting, and takes ſuch a ſmooth poliſh, that one may ſee his own face in it. But where terraces are made of this ſubſtance, unleſs it be duly prepared, which is very expenſive, it is apt to crack by the heat. Some attempts have been made to paint the ſtucco walls in apartments; but theſe have proved abortive through the ignorance of the artiſts, who have not choſen colours capable of reſiſting the alkaline power of the lime. (See COLOUR-MAKING.) In the gardens of Surat this kind of ſtucco is made uſe of inſtead of gravel for the walks. They are a little raiſed aboye the garden beds, ſo that they muſt be inſtantly dry after the moſt violent rain; though their whiteneſs and poliſh muſt not only produce a diſagreeable reflection in ſunſhine, but be extremely ſlippery to walk on. The houſes of the black merchants are for the moſt part extremely ill built and inconvenient; the windows ſmall, and the apartments ill diſtributed. Some, however, make a better appearance if only one ſtory high; but even the beſt of them have a certain meanneſs in the manner, and clumſineſs in their execution, which renders the architecture contemptible in compariſon of the European. There is one convenience, however, in all the houſes of Bombay, *viz.* ſmall ranges of pillars that ſupport a pent houſe or ſhed, forming what are called in the Portugueſe language *verandas*, either all round the houſe, or on particular ſides of it, which afford a pleaſing ſhelter from the ſun, and keep the inner apartments cool and refreſhed by the draught of air under them.

(10.) BOMDAY, INHABITANTS OF. The natives of Bombay, though compoſed of almoſt every Aſiatic nation, are ſhorter of ſtature and ſtronger than thoſe of the Coromandel coaſt. A palanquin which requires ſix men to carry it at Madras, or Fort St David, is carried by 4 at Bombay. Here are ſome Perſees, who, like their ancient forefathers the Perſians, are followers of Zoroaſter, who is ſaid to have reduced into order the religion of the Perſian magi; the fundamental maxim of which was the worſhipping of one God under the ſymbol of light. They adore the ſun, particularly when riſing, with the moſt profound reverence and veneration; and likewiſe pay a kind of adoration to common fire. See § 13.

(11.) BOMBAY, OXEN OF. In Bombay, as well as in many other places of the Eaſt Indies, oxen are generally uſed inſtead of horſes, not only for drawing carriages but for riding; and, however ridiculous ſuch a practice may ſeem to us, they are not in this reſpect inferior to ordinary horſes, being capable of going at the rate of 7 or 8 miles an hour. They are commonly of a white colour, with large perpendicular horns, and black noſes. The only inconvenience that attends them, is, that, being naturally ſubject to a lax habit of body, they ſometimes incommode the rider with filth thrown upon him by the continual motion of their tails. In other reſpects they are far preferable to Indian horſes, and will trot and gallop as naturally as the horſes of this country. Admiral Watſon, while at Bombay, was allowed a chaiſe, drawn by two of theſe oxen, by the Eaſt India Company. At the end of every ſtage the driver always put the near bullock in the place of the other; he then put his hand into both their mouths, to take out the froth; without which precaution they would be in danger of ſuffocation.

(12.) BOMBAY, PRODUCTIONS OF. The vegetable productions of Bombay are of no great value. Mr Ives ſays, that its "ſoil is ſo barren as not to produce any one thing worth mentioning;" but afterwards informs us, that its "natural produce is the cocoa-nut tree, from which they extract a liquor, called TODDY. This is ſoft and mild when drank immediately: but if it ſtands long, it gathers ſtrength, and becomes very intoxicating; whence probably aroſe the term *toddy-headed*. For each tree a tax of 20s. a-year is paid to the company, which is appropriated towards maintaining the garriſon and ſhips of war." Mr Groſe gives an account ſomewhat different.—"The OARIS, or cocoa-nut groves, makes the moſt conſiderable part of the landed property, being planted wherever the ſituation and ſoil is favourable to them. When a number of theſe groves lie contiguous to each other, they form what is called the *woods*; through which there is a due ſpace left for roads and path-ways, where one is pleaſantly defended from the ſun at all hours in the day. They are alſo thick ſet with houſes belonging to the reſpective proprictors as well as with the huts of the poorer ſort of people; but are very unwholeſome for the reaſons already given. (§ 2.) As to the cocoa-nut tree itſelf, not all the minute deſcriptions I have met with in many authors ſeem to me to come up to the reality of its wonderful properties and uſe. The cultivation of it is extremely eaſy, by means of channels conveying water to the roots, and by the manure already mentioned laid round them. An owner of 200 cocoa-nut trees is ſuppoſed to have a competency to live on. As to the rice fields, they differ in value according to the fineneſs and quantity of rice they produce. The growth of this grain has a peculiarity not unworthy of notice, viz. that as it loves a watery ſoil, ſo to whatever height the water riſes, wherever it is planted, the growth of the rice keeps meaſure with it, even to that of 11 and 14 feet: the ſummit always appearing above the ſurface of the water. It is alſo remarked, that the eating of new rice affects the eyes. The fact is certain, though the phyſical reaſon of it is unknown. Here and there are interſperſed ſome few BRAB trees, or rather

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ther wild palm trees, the word *brab* being derived from *brabo*, which in the Portugueſe ſignifies *wild*. They bear an inſipid kind of fruit, about the bigneſs of a common pear; but the chief profit from them is the toddy, or liquor drawn from them by inciſions at the top, of which the arrack is reckoned better than that produced by the cocoa nut trees. They are generally near the ſea-ſide, as they delight moſt in a ſandy ſoil. It is on this tree that the *toddy birds*, ſo called from their attachment to it, make their exquiſitely curious neſts wrought ought of the thinneſt reeds and filaments, of branches, with an inimitable mechaniſm. The birds themſelves are about the ſize of a partridge, but are of no value either for plumage, ſong, or the table.—This iſland is a ſtrong inſtance of the benefits of a good government, and a numerous population, by not a ſpot of it remaining uncultivated; ſo that, though it is far from producing ſufficient for the conſumption of its inhabitants, and notwithſtanding its many diſadvantages of ſituation and ſoil, it yields incomparably more than the adjacent iſland of Salſette."

(3.) BOMBAY, SUPERSTITIONS OBSERVED IN. Mr Ives had once an opportunity of obſerving the manner in which the Perſees perform their devotions to fire. A large braſs pan was placed in the middle of the houſe with fire in it: before this fire, or rather on each ſide of it, two men were kneeling at their devotions, pronouncing their prayers, with great rapidity. He was afterwards informed, that one of them was a prieſt, at that time on a viſit to another prieſt in a fit of ſickneſs. He was likewiſe informed, that the Perſees have ſuch a veneration for fire, that they never put it out or even breathe upon it; and he obſerved, that while the two prieſts were at their prayers over the pan of coals, they had a little white bib over their mouth, as he ſuppoſed, to prevent their breath from approaching their favourite element. The prayers, however, from the ſimilarity of the ſounds, appeared to him only to be a repetition of the ſame ſet of words. The viſiting prieſt uſed many geſtures with his hands over the fire, and afterwards ſtroaked down the face of the ſick prieſt, which Mr Ives conſidered as the final benediction, as the ceremony ended immediately. As the Gentoos burn their dead, one would imagine that the Perſees, who have ſuch a veneration for fire, would be deſirous of having their bodies conſumed by that element; but inſtead of this, they expoſe their dead bodies to be devoured by birds of prey; becauſe, ſay they, a living man is compoſed of all the elements; ſo that it is but reaſonable, after he is dead, that every particular element ſhould receive its own again. On the top of Malabar hill, about two miles from the town of Bombay there are two round buildings for receiving the dead bodies of the Perſees, which remain there till the bones are clean picked by the birds. This is certainly an abominable cuſtom, and affords ſhocking ſpectacles; however, a guard is always placed at a little diſtance to prevent people from prying too narrowly into theſe matters, or, as Mr Ives ſays, to enſure the vultures of their repaſt without any diſturbance. Mr Groſe ſays, that on his going to look into one of theſe repoſitories, a Perſee adviſed him in a friendly manner to let it alone, as no perſon, who was not a party concerned, would long ſurvive ſuch curioſity. He tells us alſo, that the perſon appointed to look after the dead, carefully obſerves which eye is firſt picked out by the birds, and from thence judge of the ſituation of the ſoul of the deceaſed; a ſtate of happineſs being indicated by the right eye being firſt picked out. Mr Ives obſerves, that by reaſon of the heat of the ſun, much leſs noxious vapour is emitted by theſe bodies than might be expected; the fleſh being ſoon ſhrivelled up, and the bones turning quite black. At the extreme point of Malabar hill there is a rock on the deſcent to the ſea, flat on the top, in which there is a natural crevice, which communicates with a hollow terminating at an exterior opening to the ſea. This place is uſed by the Gentoos as a purifier from their ſins. This purification is effected by their going in at the opening, and coming through the crevice, though it ſeem too ſmall for people of any corpulence to paſs.

(II.) BOMBAY, the capital of the iſland, (N° I.) is a large city with a ſtrong caſtle. See § 6. When this town began to increaſe conſiderably, it was judged proper to add the ſecurity of a wall round it to the ſtrength of the fort it had before. Even then, however, it was neglected to take in the dangerous poſt of Dungharee, which now evidently commands both the town and fort. There has ſince that time been added, at a great expence, a ditch that encompaſſes the wall, and can be flooded at pleaſure, by letting in the ſea, which terminates the ditch on two ſides, ſo that the town is now entirely ſurrounded with water, and is one of the ſtrongeſt places in India. Lon. 72. 38. E. Lat. 18. 58. N.

BOMB-BATTERY. See BATTERY, § V. N° 2, and 16.

(1.) * BOMB-CHEST. *n. ſ.* [from *bomb* and *cheſt*.] A kind of cheſt filled uſually with bombs, and ſometimes only with gunpowder, placed under ground, to tear and blow it up in the air, with thoſe who ſtand on it. *Chambers.*

(2.) BOMC-CHESTS were formerly much uſed to drive enemies from a poſt they had ſeized, or were about to take poſſeſſion of: they were ſet on fire by means of a ſauciſſee faſtened at one end; but they are now much diſuſed.

BOMBELLI, Sebaſtian, an eminent hiſtorical and portrait painter, born at Bologna in 1635, and died in 1685. His works are in great repute.

BOMBERG, Daniel, an eminent printer, born at Antwerp. He was the firſt who printed Hebrew books at Venice. He began with an edition of the Bible in 4to, in 1511: and afterwards printed many others in folio, 4to, and 8vo. He printed a folio edition in 1517, with the commentaries of the rabbins, dedicated to pope Leo X. and another under the inſpection of Rabbi Jacob Haiim in 4½ vols folio, in 1525. He alſo printed three editions of the Talmud, each of which coſt him 100,000 crowns. One of theſe editions was begun in 1520, and conſiſted of 11 vols folio. He brought the art of printing Hebrew books to ſuch perfection, ſays Mr Bayle, that the Jews alledge, that ſince his death the Hebrew printing has continually grown worſe.

* BOMBILATION. *n. ſ.* [from *bombus*, Lat.] Sound;

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Sound; noiſe; report.—How to abate the vigour, or ſilence the *bombilation* of guns, a way is ſaid to be by borax and butter, mixt in a due proportion, which will almoſt take off the report, and alſo the force of the charge. *Brown's Vulgar Err.*

(1.) BOMBINA, in entomology, a large ſpecies of Curculio, deſcribed by Fabricius, as a native of Cayenne. This inſect is of a ferruginous brown colour, and the wing caſes ſtriated, with black elevated tubercles.

(2.) BOMBINA, in zoology, a ſpecies of RANA, or Frog, the belly of which is orange, ſpotted with ſky-blue, and the pupil of the eye triangular. *Blumenb.* This kind appears to be extremely variable in point of colour and markings. In the tenth edition of Linnæus it is deſcribed as the *Rana variegata.* Roeſel, in his "Hiſtory of Frogs and Toads" calls it *Buſo igneus,* (buſo vulgo igneus dictus.) It is likewiſe called *La Sonnante,* and *le couleur de feu,* by Lacepede, and *Rana ignea,* or fire frog, of Dr Shaw.

* BOMB-KETCH. BOMB-VESSEL. *n. ſ.* A kind of ſhip, ſtrongly built, to bear the ſhock of a mortar, when bombs are to be fired into a town. —Nor could an ordinary fleet, with *bomb-veſſels,* hope to ſucceed againſt a place that has in its arſenal gallies and men of war. *Addiſon on Italy.*

BOMBON, a province of S. America in Peru.

(1.) * BOMB-VESSEL. See BOMB-KETCH.

(2.) BOMB-VESSEL. See KETCH.

(1.) BOMBUS, in medicine, denotes a murmuring noiſe, as of wind breaking out of a narrow into a larger cavity, frequently heard in the thick inteſtines. The bombus heard in the ears, in acute diſeaſes, is laid down by Hippocrates as a ſign of death.

(2.) BOMBUS, in muſic, an artificial motion with the hands, imitating in cadence and harmony the buzzing of bees. The word is originally Greek, and ſignifies the buz or noiſe of bees, gnats, and the like. In this ſenſe, bombus made one of the ſpecies of applauſe uſed by ancient auditories.

* BOMBYCINOUS. *adj.* [*bombycinus,* Lat.] Silken; made of ſilk.

BOMBYCINUM, in ancient writers, a ſpecies of ſilk, brought from Aſſyria and the iſland of Cos.

BOMBYLIUS, in zoology, the HUMBLE BEE, a genus of inſects belonging to the order of diptera. The roſtrum is long, briſtly and bivalved; the briſtles being fixed between the horizontal valves. See *Plate* XLII, *Fig.* 8. Mr Ray reckons 19 ſpecies, but Linnæus only 5; viz.

1. BOMBYLIUS ATER has red wings, but a little blackiſh at the baſe; and green feet.

2. BOMBYLIUS CAPENSIS, with the wings ſpotted with black, an aſh-coloured body, and white behind. It is a native of the Cape of Good Hope.

3. BOMBYLIUS MAJOR, with black wings.

4. BOMBYLIUS MEDIUS, with a yellowiſh body, white behind, and the wings ſpotted with yellow.

5. BOMBYLIUS MINOR, with unſpotted wings. Theſe 3 and the ATER, (N° 1.) are natives of Europe.

BOMBYLOPHAGUS, the humble bee eater, in zoology, the name of a fly of the TIPULA kind, which is larger and ſtronger than the common kinds; and loving honey, it ſeizes on the humble bees, and deſtroys them, in order to get at the bag of honey which they contain. It is of a blackiſh colour in the body; its head is of a bright red, and the eyes very large and prominent. It is chiefly found in mountainous places.

BOMBYLUS TEREDO, in zoology, a ſpecies of humble-bee, which eats its way into wood, and there makes its neſt.

BOMBYSINE, *adj.* made of ſilk.

(1.) BOMBYX, among ancient naturaliſts, ſignifies indifferently either ſilk or cotton.

(2.) BOMBYX, in ancient muſic, a kind of inſtrument, which in Ariſtotle's time, was made of a reed, and by reaſon of its length, was difficult to play on: 2. a contrivance of horn for ſhutting and opening the holes of wind inſtruments.

(3.) BOMBYX, in zoology, a name given by ſome authors to a ſpecies of winged inſect, armed with a ſting like thoſe of bees and waſps. It is of the ſhape of a waſp, but black; it ſtings very ſeverely, always leaving the ſting in the wound. It builds its neſt of clay, which it works up to a very hard conſiſtence, and faſtens to a ſtone.

(4.) BOMBYX is alſo a name given to the ſilk-worm.

BOMENE, a ſea port of Zealand, on the N. ſhore of the iſland of Schonen, oppoſite to that of Goree. Lon. 0. 4. E. Lat. 51. 50. N.

BOMHARDE. See BOMBARDE.

BOMILCAR, the ſon of Hamilcar, a Carthaginian general, who, being ſuſpected of conſpiring with Agathocles, was crucified in the midſt of Carthage.

BOMMEL, a town of Dutch Guelderland, ſituated on the N. ſhore of the river Waal, 4 miles NE. of Nimeguen. Lon. 4. 0. E. Lat. 52. 6. N.

BOMONICI, [from βωμος, an altar, and νικη, victory; *q. d.* conquerors at the altar,] in Grecian antiquity, young men of Lacedæmon, who contended at the ſacrifices of Diana which of them was able to endure the moſt laſhes; being ſcourged at the altar of the goddeſs. Plutarch relates that ſome of them would have endured this diſcipline the whole day, and even to death itſelf.

BOMSTON, a village in Dorſetſhire, near Bochampton.

(1.) BON, a yearly feaſt celebrated by the Japaneſe in honour of the dead.

(2.) BON, in botany, or BAN, a name given by ſome authors to the tree, the kernel of whoſe fruit is the coffee. The fruit they call BUNA.

(3.) BON, in geography. See BONN.

(I.) BONA, John, a cardinal, eminent for learning and piety, was born at Mondovi, in Piedmont, in 1609, and died in 1674.

(II. 1.) BONA, in geography, a province of the ancient kingdom of Conſtantina in Africa.

(2.) BONA, by the Moors called *Balederna,* a ſea port of Algiers, formerly rich and populous, and the capital of the province (N° 1.) It is ſuppoſed by ſome to be the ancient Hippo, the ſeat of St Auſtin, and a ſea port built by the Romans. The inhabitants, however, deny it to be the ancient Hippo, which had been ſo often taken, retaken, and deſtroyed by the wars; and ſay that it was ſince rebuilt at the diſtance of 2 or 3 miles from Hippo, out of its ruins, and called *Baleed-el-Ugned,* from a ſort of trees of that name that grow in the neighbourhood. It is now a very mean place

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place, poorly built, and thinly inhabited, with ſcarce any traces of its former grandeur, except the ruins of a cathedral, or as others gueſs, of a monaſtery built by St Auſtin about 3 miles from the city. Near theſe ruins is a famed ſpring called by his name, which uſed to be much reſorted to by the French and Italian ſailors, who came to drink of its waters, and pay their devotions to a maimed ſtatue ſaid alſo to belong to the ſaint, but ſo mutilated that no traces either of face or dreſs remain; and as each viſitor ſtrives to break off ſome ſplinter on account of its ſuppoſed ſanctity, it will probably be ſoon reduced to a ſtate of non-exiſtence. Bona was taken by the pirate Barbaroſſa, and joined to Algiers; but as quickly loſt, and recovered by its old maſters the Tuniſeens, who did not keep it long. Charles V. landed in it when he invaded Algiers. It is commanded by a little fort, in which is a garriſon of about 300 Turks, under the command of an aga, who is alſo the governor of the town. From a continual diſcharge of ballaſt, and a neglect of cleanſing, the road for the ſhips is good for nothing before the town, but a little farther weſt is very deep and ſafe. It is 200 m. E. of Algiers. Lon. 7. 59. E. Lat. 36. 5. N.

(3.) BONA, a promontory on the E. coaſt of Africa, nearly oppoſite to Sicily.

(III.) BONA DEA, in heathen mythology, the good goddeſs, one of the names of Cybele.—Others ſay, ſhe was a Roman lady, the wife of one Faunus, and famous for her chaſtity, and that after her death ſhe was deified. Her ſacrifices were performed only by matrons; and in ſo ſecret a manner, that it was no leſs than death for any man to be preſent at the aſſembly. See CYBELE. Cicero reproaches Clodius with having entered into this temple diſguiſed as a ſinging woman, and having by his preſence polluted the myſteries of the good goddeſs. What kind of myſteries theſe were, we may learn from Juvenal, (Sat. VI. 313.)

(IV. BONA, in law, [from *bonus*, Lat. good,] is variouſly applied; *e. g.*

1. BONA FIDES. When a perſon performs any action, which he believes at the time to be juſt and lawful, he is ſaid to have acted *bona fide*.

2. BONA GRATIA was anciently uſed reſpecting divorces, which were brought about amicably for ſome juſt reaſon, with the conſent of both parties and without any crime on the part of either; as in caſes of old age, diſeaſe, barrenneſs, monachiſm, captivity, or the like.

3. BONA MOBILIA, moveable effects.

4. BONA NOTABILIA, ſuch goods as a perſon dying has in another dioceſe than that wherein he dies, amounting to the value of 5 l. at leaſt; in which caſe the will of the deceaſed muſt be proved, or adminiſtration granted in the court of the archbiſhop of the province, unleſs by compoſition or cuſtom, any dioceſes are authorized to do it, when rated at a greater ſum.

5. BONA PATRIA, an aſſize of countrymen or good neighbours, where 12 or more are choſen out of the country to paſs upon an aſſize, being ſworn judicially in the preſence of the party.

6. BONA PERITURA, periſhable goods. By ſtat. 13. Ed. I. cap. 4. the cargo of a ſhip that has been caſt away ſhall be kept for a year and a day, and reſtored to the rightful owner; but if the goods be ſuch as will not endure ſo long, they are *bona peritura*, which the ſheriff is allowed to ſell, and to account in money for the value.

7. BONA VACANTIA, goods in which no perſon can claim a property, ſuch as royal fiſh, ſhipwrecks, treaſure-trove, waifs and eſtrays. Theſe goods by the law of nature, and by the imperial law, belonged to the firſt occupant or finder; but in the modern conſtitutions of European governments, they are annexed to the ſupreme power by the poſitive laws of the ſtate.

BONAIR, *adj.* [Fr.] courteous; cheerful.

BONAIRE, an iſland of S. America, near the N. coaſt of Terra Firma. It belongs to the Dutch; and abounds in kabritoes and ſalt. It is 15 miles E. of Curaſſow, and 40 NW. of fort Laguaira. Lon. 67. 22. W. Lat. 12. 36. N.

BONAIS, very high mountains of France, in the department of Mount Blanc, and ci-devant duchy of Savoy, near Laſſoreburg. In ſome ſeaſons they cannot be aſcended without great danger.

BONAMES, a town of Germany, in the circle of Upper Rhine near the Lahn.

BONAMY, Peter Nicholas, in biography, was born at Louvres, in 1694, and educated for the eccleſiaſtical profeſſion. He became under librarian of St Victor, where he was diſtinguiſhed by the politeneſs of his manners, as well as the variety of his ſtudies, and his attachment to them. He was admitted a member of the academy of inſcriptions and belles lettres, and proved a valuable contributor to its memoirs. Simplicity and correctneſs of language, variety of erudition, clearneſs of argument, and ſolidity of criticiſm, characterize his papers. When, at the ſolicitation of Thurgot, the place of Hiſtoriographer of Paris, was created, Bonamy was appointed to occupy it; which ſituation led him to unite various memoirs relative to the hiſtory and antiquities of the city; from the year 1747 he conducted the "Journal of Verdun" with the ſtricteſt propriety and decorum. He died at Paris in 1770, aged 76, univerſally eſteemed for candour, probity and learning.

BONANA, or BANANA. See MUSEA.

BONAR, a rivulet in Roſsſhire.

BONARELLI, Gui Ubaldo, an Italian count. He was intruſted with ſeveral important negociations, and was eſteemed an able politician and learned philoſopher. He was the author of a fine Italian paſtoral, intitled, *Filli di Sciro*. He died at Fano, in 1608, aged 45.

* BONA ROBA. *n. ſ.* [Ital. a fine gown.] A ſhewy wanton.—

We knew where the *bona robas* were. *Shak.*

BONASIA, in ornithology, a ſpecies of the TETRAO.

(1.) * BONASUS. *n. ſ.* [Lat.] A kind of buffalo, or wild bull.

(2.) BONASUS, in zoology, a ſpecies of wild ox of the ſize of the tame kind, but of a thicker body, and having on its neck a mane like that of a horſe, and horns very ſhort and crooked, ſo as to be of no uſe to him in fighting. When he is purſued, he throws out his dung a great way, and it is then of a hot and corroſive nature, though not

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thod of defence; a thing hardly credible, as Mr Ray, juſtly obſerves, if we had not inſtances of other animals, which poſſeſs the like faculty. See GLAMA.

(1.) BONAVENTURA, a ſea port of S. America, on the coaſt of Papayan, in Terra Firma. The climate is very unhealthy. Lon. 75. 18. W. Lat. 3. 20. N.

(2.) BONAVENTURA BAY lies on the above coaſt, (N° 1.) next the South Sea.

(1.) BONAVENTURE, a learned cardinal, born in Padua, in 1332. He ſtudied at Paris, and joined the order of St Auguſtine, of which he was made general in 1377. In 1378, Pope Urban VI. made him a cardinal, which engaged him to defend the rights of the church againſt Francis de Carraris of Padua; which ſo enraged that petty deſpot, that he cauſed him to be murdered by an arrow, as he paſſed St Angelo's bridge at Rome, A. D. 1386. He wrote, 1. Commentaries on the Epiſtles of St John and St James: 2. Lives of the Saints: 3. *Speculum Mariæ*: 4. Sermons, &c.

(2.) BONAVENTURE, ST, a celebrated cardinal, originally named *John Fidauza*, and called from his works, the *ſeraphic doctor*. He was born at Bagnarea, in 1221, and became a monk of the order of St Francis, in 1243, a doctor of Paris, in 1255, and general of his order, in 1256. After the death of Clement IV. the cardinals, diſagreeing about the election of a new pope, ſolemnly engaged to elect him who ſhould be named by Bonaventure, even though it ſhould be himſelf, but he choſe Theobald archdeacon of Liege, who was then in the Holy Land, and took the name of *Gregory X.* This pope, in return, in 1272, made him cardinal and biſhop of Alba, and appointed him to aſſiſt at the 2d general council of Lyons, where he died in 1274. His works, which are chiefly on divinity, were printed at Rome in 8 vols folio. Bellarmine praiſes him highly, and even Luther ſtiles him *vir preſtantiſſimus*, a moſt excellent man. He was canonized by Sixtus IV. in 1482.

BONAUGHT, in the Iriſh cuſtoms, a tax paid to the lord of a manor.

(1.) BONAVISTA, an iſland in the Atlantic ocean, the moſt eaſterly and firſt diſcovered of the Cape de Verd iſlands. It is 20 miles long, and 13 broad; has plenty of goats and cotton, with ſome indigo; and belongs to Portugal. The inhabitants are remarkable for ſlothfulneſs: they have a town and two roads where ſhips come to an anchor. Lon. 24. 6. W. Lat. 16. 5. N.

(2, 3.) BONAVISTA, 1. a ſpacious bay; and, 2. a cape on the E. ſide of Newfoundland.

BONAVITUS. See BENAVIDUS.

BONCASTON, a village in Someſetſhire.

* BONCHRETIEN *n. ſ.* [French.] A ſpecies of pear, ſo called, probably, from the name of a gardener.

BONCIARIUS, Mark Antony, a diſciple of Muretus, and a good Latin writer, was born in 1555, near Perugia, where he taught languages. Among his ſcholars was his own father, originally a ſhoe-maker, who wiſhing to turn Jeſuit at 47 years of age, was obliged to acquire ſome learning from his ſon. Bonciarius was afflicted with the gout, and at laſt loſt his ſight. He died in 1616. He wrote, 1. *De Arte Grammatica*: 2. *Triumphus Auguſtus*, a poem in 4 books: 3. *Letters*, printed at Marpurg in 1604. Some of theſe ſhow the method he took to inſtruct his father in a ſhort time. 4. *Epicurus, ſive Dialogus de antiqua Philoſophia*; wherein he ſhowed, that Epicurus came nearer the truth than the other philoſophers; and that the Stoics were fartheſt from it.

(1.) * BOND. *adj.* [from *bind*, perhaps for *bound*; from *gebonden*, Sax.] Captive; in a ſervile ſtate.—Whether we be Jews or Gentiles, whether we be *bond* or free. 1 *Cor.* xii. 13.

(2.) * BOND. *n. ſ.* [*bond*, Sax. *bound*; it is written indifferently, in many of its ſenſes, *bond*, or *band*. See BAND.] 1. Cords, or chains, with which any one is bound.—

Gnawing with my teeth my *bonds* aſunder,
I gain'd my freedom. *Shakeſpeare*

2. Ligament that holds any thing together.—Let any one ſend his contemplation to the extremities of the univerſe, and ſee what conceivable hoops, what *bond* he can imagine to hold this maſs of matter in ſo cloſe a preſſure together. *Locke.* 3. Union; connexion: a workman's term.—Obſerve, in working up the walls, that no ſide of the houſe, nor any part of the walls, be brought up three feet above the other, before the next adjoining wall be wrought up to it, ſo that they may be all joined together, and make a good *bond*. *Mortimer's Huſbandry.* 4. [In the plural.] Chains: impriſonment; captivity.—Whom I perceived to have nothing laid to his charge worthy of death, or of *bonds*. *Acts* xxiii. 29. 5. Cement of union; cauſe of union; link of connexion.—

Wedding is great Juno's crown;
O bleſſed *bond* of board and bed! *Shakeſpeare.*

—Love cools, brothers divide, and the *bond* is cracked 'twixt ſon and father. *Shakeſp. King Lear.* 6. A writing of obligation to pay a ſum, or perform a contract.—

Go with me to a notary, ſeal me there
Your ſingle *bond*. *Shakeſpeare.*

What if I ne'er conſent to make you mine;
My father's promiſe ties me not to time;
And *bonds* without a date, they ſay, are void.
Dryden.

7. Obligation; law by which any man is obliged.

Unhappy that I am! I cannot heave
My heart into my mouth: I love your majeſty
According to my *bond*, no more nor leſs. *Shak.*

—Take which you pleaſe, it diſſolves the *bonds* of government and obedience. *Locke.*

(3.) BOND, in law, is a deed whereby the obligor obliges himſelf, his heirs, executors, and adminiſtrators, to pay a certain ſum of money to another at a day appointed. If this be all, the bond is called a ſimple one, *ſimplex obligatio*. But there is generally a condition added, that if the obligor does ſome particular act, the obligation ſhall be void, or elſe ſhall remain in full force: as payment of rent; performance of covenants in a deed; or repayment of a principal ſum of money borrowed of the obligee, with intereſt; which principal ſum is uſually one half of the penal ſum ſpecified in the bond. In caſe this condition is not performed, the bond becomes forfeited, or abſolute at law, and charges the obligor while living; and after his death the obligation deſcends upon

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upon his heir, who (on defect of perſonal aſſets) is bound to diſcharge it, provided he has real aſſets by deſcent as a recompenſe. If the condition of a bond be impoſſible at the time of making it, or be to do a thing contrary to ſome rule of law that is merely poſitive, or be uncertain, or inſenſible, the condition alone is void, and the bond ſhall ſtand ſingle and unconditional: for it is the folly of the obligor to enter into ſuch an obligation from which he can never be releaſed. If it be to do a thing that is *malum in ſe*, the obligation itſelf is void: for the whole is an unlawful contract, and the obligee ſhall take no advantage from ſuch a tranſaction. And if the condition be poſſible at the time of making it, and afterwards becomes impoſſible by the act of God, the act of law, or the act of the obligee himſelf, there the penalty of the obligation is ſaved: for no prudence or foreſight of the obligor could guard againſt ſuch a contingency. On the forfeiture of a bond, or its becoming ſingle, the whole penalty was recoverable at law: but here the courts of equity interpoſed, and would not permit a man to take more than in conſcience he ought, *viz.* his principal, intereſt, and expences, in caſe the forfeiture accrued by non-payment of money borrowed; the damages ſuſtained upon non-performance of covenants; and the like. And the ſtatute 4 and 5 Ann. c. 16. hath alſo enacted, in the ſame ſpirit of equity, that in caſe of a bond, conditioned for the payment of money, the payment or tender of the principal ſum due, with intereſt and coſts, even though the bond be forfeited and a ſuit commenced thereon, ſhall be a full ſatisfaction and diſcharge.

(4.) BOND, in maſonry and brick-laying, is when bricks or ſtones are as it were knit and interwoven; and when they ſay, make *good bond*, they mean that the joints are not made over, or upon other joints; but reach at leaſt ſix inches, both within the wall and on the ſurface, as the art of building requires.

(5.) BOND, John, a commentator on Horace and Perſius, was born in Somerſetſhire, in 1550, and educated at Wincheſter. In 1569, he was entered a ſtudent of Oxford. He took his degree of B. A. in 1573, and that of M. A. in 1579; ſoon after which he was appointed maſter of the free ſchool in Taunton, Somerſetſhire. In this employment he continued many years with great reputation: but being at length weary of his laborious employment, he commenced phyſician, and became eminent in that capacity. He died in 1612, poſſeſſed of ſeveral lands and tenements in his neighbourhood. He wrote, 1. *Commentarii in poemata Q. Horatii*, 8vo. 2. *Commentarii in ſex ſatyras Perſii*; Lond. 1614, 8vo.

(1.) * BONDAGE. *n. ſ.* [from *bond*.] 1. Captivity; impriſonment: ſtate of reſtraint.—You only have overthrown me, and in my *bondage* conſiſts my glory. *Sidney.*—

Say, gentle princeſs, would you not ſuppoſe
Your *bondage* happy, to be made a queen?—
—To be a queen in *bondage*, is more vile
Than is a ſlave in baſe ſervility. *Shakeſpeare.*

Our cage
We make a choir, as doth the priſon'd bird,
And ſing our *bondage* freely. *Shakeſp. Cymb.*

The king, when he deſign'd you for my guard,
Reſolv'd he would not make my *bondage* hard.
Dryden.

2. Obligation; tye of duty.—If ſhe has a ſtruggle for honour, ſhe is in a *bondage* to love; which gives the ſtory its turn that way. *Pope.*—He muſt reſolve by no means to be enſlaved, and bronght under the *bondage* of obſerving oaths, which ought to vaniſh when they ſtand in competition with eating and drinking, or taking money. *South.*

(2.) BONDAGE properly ſignifies the ſame with ſlavery, but in old law books is uſed for villenage. See VILLENAGE. Tenants in bondage paid kenots, and did fealty; they were not to fell trees in their own garden, without licence of the lord. The widow of a tenant in bondage held her huſband's eſtate *quam diu vixerit ſine marito*, as long as ſhe lived ſingle.

(3.) BONDAGE BY THE FORELOCK, (*Bondagium per anteriores crines capitis,*) was when a freeman renounced his liberty, and became ſlave to ſome great man: which was done by the ceremony of cutting off a lock of hair from the forehead, and delivering it to his lord; denoting that he was to be maintained by him for the future. Such a bondman, if he reclaimed his liberty, or was fugitive from his maſter, might be drawn again to his ſervitude by the noſe; whence the origin of the menace to pull a man by the noſe.

BONDBUSK, a hamlet of Cokeney, in the county of Nottingham.

* BONDMAID. *n. ſ.* [from *bond*, captive, and *maid*.] A woman ſlave.—

Good ſiſter, wrong me not, nor wrong your-
ſelf,
To make a *bondmaid* and a ſlave of me. *Shak.*

(1.) * BONDMAN. *n. ſ.* [from *bond* and *man*.] A man ſlave.—Amongſt the Romans, in making of a *bondman* free, was it not wondered wherefore ſo great ado ſhould be made? the maſter to preſent his ſlave in ſome court, to take him by the hand, and not only to ſay, in the hearing of the publick magiſtrate, I will that this man become free; but, after thoſe ſolemn words uttered, to ſtrike him on the cheek, to turn him round, the hair of his head to be ſhaved off, the magiſtrate to touch him thrice with a rod; in the end, a cap and a white garment given him. *Hooker.*—

O freedom! firſt delight of human kind;
Not that which *bondmen* from their maſters find.
Dryden.

(2.) BOND-MAN, in the Engliſh law, is uſed for a villain, or tenant in villenage. See VILLAIN, and VILLENAGE.

(3.) BOND-MEN, in Roman antiquity, were of two kinds; the one called SERVI, who were thoſe either bought for money, taken in war, left by ſucceſſion, or purchaſed by ſome other lawful acquiſition; the others born of their *bond-women*, and called VERNÆ. We may add a 3d kind, mentioned by Juſtinian, called *adſcriptitii glebæ*, or *agricenſiti*; who were not bound to the perſon, but to the ground or place, and followed by him who had the land. Theſe in our law are called *villains regardants*, as belonging to the manor or place.

* BONDSERVANT. *n. ſ.* [from *bond* and *ſervant*.] A ſlave; a ſervant without the liberty of quitting his maſter.—And if thy brother, that

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dwelleth by thee, be waxen poor, and be ſold unto thee, thou ſhalt not compel him to ſerve as a *bondſervant*. *Leviticus* xxv. 39.

* BONDSERVICE. *n. ſ.* [from *bond* and *ſervice*.] The condition of a bondſervant; ſlavery.—Upon theſe did Solomon levy a tribute of *bondſervice*. *Kings*.

* BONDSLAVE. *n. ſ.* [from *bond* and *ſlave*.] A man in ſlavery; one of ſervile condition who cannot change his maſter.—Love enjoined ſuch diligence, that no apprentice, no, nor *bondſlave*, could ever be, by fear, more ready at all commands than that young princeſs was. *Sidney*.—All her ornaments are taken away; of a freewoman ſhe is become a *bondſlave*. 1 *Macc.* ii. 11.—Commonly the *bondſlave* is fed by his lord, but here the lord was fed by his *bondſlave*. *Sir J. Davies*.

* BONDSMAN. *n. ſ.* [from *bond* and *man*.] 1. A ſlave.—Carnal greedy people, without ſuch a precept, would have no mercy upon their poor *bondſmen* and beaſts. *Denham*. 2. A perſon bound, or giving ſecurity for another.

BOND-SOCOME, an old law term, ſignifying an obligation to grind at the mill of the lord of the manor. See THIRLAGE.

* BONDSWOMAN. *n. ſ.* [from *bond* and *woman*.] A woman ſlave.—

My lords, the ſenators
Are ſold for ſlaves, and their wives for *bondſwomen*. *Ben Jonſon's Catiline*.

BONDUC, in botany, the name given by Plumier to a genus of plants, characteriſed by Linnæus under the name of GUILANDINA,

BONDUCA, in the materia medica, a name by which many authors have called the Molucca, Marſao, or Bezoar nuts.

(1.) * BONE. *n. ſ.* [*ban*, Saxon.] 1. The ſolid parts of the body of an animal made up of hard fibres, tied one to another by ſmall tranſverſe fibres, as thoſe of the muſcles. In a fœtus they are porous, ſoft, and eaſily diſcerned. As their pores fill with a ſubſtance of their own nature, ſo they increaſe, harden, and grow cloſe to one another. They are all ſpongy, and full of little cells, or are of a conſiderable firm thickneſs, with a large cavity, except the teeth; and where they are articulated, they are covered with a thin and ſtrong membrane, called the perioſteum. Each *bone* is much bigger at its extremity than in the middle, that the articulations might be firm, and the *bones* not eaſily put out of joint. But becauſe the middle of the *bone* ſhould be ſtrong, to ſuſtain its allotted weight, and reſiſt accidents, the fibres are there more cloſely compacted together, ſupporting one another; and the *bone* is made hollow, and conſequently not ſo eaſily broken, as it muſt have been had it been ſolid and ſmaller. *Quincy*.—

Thy *bones* are marrowleſs, thy blood is cold,
Macbeth.

—There was lately a young gentleman bit to the *bone*. *Tatler*. 2. A fragment of meat; a bone with as much fleſh as adheres to it.—

Like Æſop's hounds, contending for the *bone*,
Each pleaded right, and would be lord alone.
Dryden.

3. *To be upon the bones*. To attack.—Puſs had a month's mind *to be upon the bones* of him, but was not willing to pick a quarrel. *L'Eſtrange*. 4. *To make no bones*. To make no ſcruple: a metaphor taken from a dog, who readily ſwallows meat that has no bones. 5. *Bones*. A ſort of *bobbins*, made of trotter bones, for weaving bonelace. 6. *Bones*. Dice.

But then my ſtudy was to cog the dice,
And dext'rouſly to throw the lucky ſice:
To ſhun ames ace that ſwept my ſtakes away;
And catch the box, for fear they ſhould convey
Falſe *bones*, and put upon me in the play. *Dryd*.

(5.) BONES, ACCOUNT OF THE HUMAN. See ANATOMY, INDEX.

(3.) BONES, ACID OF. From a diſcovery made by Mr Scheele, of a method of producing the phoſphoric acid in large quantity from bones, it has been aſſerted, that this acid is naturally contained in the bones, united with a calcarous earth. From many experiments, however, it appears that no acid is naturally contained in calcined bones; nor can the acid of phoſphorus be extracted from them but by means of the vitriolic acid: whence it ſeems probable, that the phoſphoric acid in this caſe is produced by the combination of a certain quantity of earth with the vitriolic acid. See § 6.

(4.) BONES, ANCIENT CEREMONIES RESPECTING. Divers uſages and ceremonies relating to the bones of the dead have obtained in different ages; as gathering them from the funeral pile, waſhing, anointing, and depoſiting them in urns, and thence into tombs; tranſlating them, which was not to be done without the authority of the pontiffs; not to add worſhipping them, ſtill practiſed to the bones of ſaints in the Romiſh church. Among the ancients, the bones of travellers and ſoldiers dying in foreign countries were brought home to be buried; till, by an expreſs decree of the ſenate, made during the Italian war, it was forbid, and the ſoldiers bodies ordered to be buried where they died. The Romans, who had a peculiar deity preſiding over every thing, worſhipped OSSILAGO as the god of the bones.

(5.) BONES, COLOURING OF. Bones may be ſtained of a variety of colours by the common dyeing infuſions and decoctions of animal and vegetable ſubſtances. They are ſtained alſo, without heat, by metallic ſolutions; and by means of theſe may be ſpotted or variegated at pleaſure. Thus, ſolution of ſilver in aquafortis gives a brown or black according to its quantity; ſolution of gold in aqua regia, or in ſpirit of ſalt, a fine purple; ſolution of copper in the acetous acid, a fine green; and ſolutions of the ſame metal in volatile alkalis, a blue, which at firſt is deep and beautiful, but changes, upon expoſure to the air, into a green or bluiſh green. If the bone is but touched with the two firſt ſolutions, and expoſed to the air, it does not fail to acquire the colour in a few hours: In the two latter, it requires to be ſteeped for a day or longer in order to its imbibing the colour. In theſe and other caſes, where immerſion for ſome time is neceſſary, the bone may be variegated, by covering ſuch parts as are to remain white, with wax or any other matter that the liquor will not diſſolve or penetrate.

(6.) BONES, EARTH OF, appears to be very different from the calcareous kind: ſit is much more ſoluble in the vitriolic acid, and may be precipitated

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cipated from that or any other, by means of the caustic volatile alkali, which cannot be done with the calcareous earth. See § 9.

(7.) BONES, EXTRANEOUS, or PRETERNATURAL, have been found in the meninges, the duplications of the dura mater, between the cerebrum and cerebellum, in the matrices of women, does, hares, cows, omentum of swine, &c. See *Hist. Acad. Sc. an.* 1711, 1713. *Plott's Hist.* § 56, 63, *and* 74.

(8.) BONES, FOSSILE. See § 10.

(9.) BONES, INDURATION AND MOLLIFICATION OF. Boerhaave observes, that alkaline salts render bones harder and firmer, and that acids make them softer and more flexible. These effects succeed in certain circumstances, but not universally; for bones may be hardened and softened both by acids and by alkalis, according to the quantity of saline matter employed, and the manner in which it is applied. Newmann made bones harder and more compact by treating them with the strongest of the mineral acids; though, when the acid is in sufficient proportion, it destroys or dissolves them. In Papin's digester (a strong close vessel, in which the steam of boiling liquors is confined, and the fluid by this means made to undergo a greater degree of heat than it could otherwise sustain,) the hardest bones are reduced in a short time, by the action of simple water, into a soft pap or jelly; and alkaline liquors produce this effect still sooner. In the history of the French Accademy for the years 1742 and 1743, there is an account that Mr Geoffroy produced before the academy a small ivory spoon, which by long lying in mustard, was become flexible and transparent like horn; and that Mr Fouchy saw an ivory spoon, which, by lying for a considerable time in milk, was become supple like leather; and that Mr Hunauld produced bones, which had been softened by steeping in vinegar, afterwards hardened to their natural state by steeping in water, and softened a second time by steeping in vinegar. Dr Lewis observed, that the nitrous and marine acids diluted, and the acetous acid, make bones flexible and tough like leather; but that the diluted vitriolic acid, though it renders them notably soft, makes them at the same time brittle. It seems as if a great part of the earthy matter, which is the basis of the bone, and on which its hardness depends, was dissolved and extracted by the three first; while the latter, incapable of dissolving this kind of earth into a liquid form, only corrodes it into a kind of selenitic concrete, which remains intermixed in minute particles among the gelatinous matter. Dr Lewis did not find that the softened bones, whatever acid they were softened by, recovered their hardness by steeping in water. Slips of softened ivory, after lying above a month in water, continued nearly as soft as when they were taken out of the acid liquor. A singular induration of bones is produced by fire; the effects of which are here remarkably different according to its degree and the circumstances of its application. Bones exposed to a moderate fire, either in open vessels, or in contact with the burning fuel, become opaque, white, and friable throughout; and an increase of fire, after they have once suffered this change, renders them only more and more friable. But if they are urged at first with a strong fire, such as that in which copper or iron melts, they become hard, semitransparent, and sonorous, like the hard mineral stones. This curious experiment deserves to be further prosecuted.

(10.) BONES, PETRIFIED, OR FOSSILE, are found in the earth, frequently at great depths, in all the strata, and even in stones and rocks: Some of them are of a huge size, usually supposed to be the bones of gaints, but more truly of elephants or hippopotami. It is supposed they were deposited in those strata when all things were in a state of solution by the general deluge; and that they afterwards incorporated and petrified with the bodies where they happened to be lodged. In the museum of the Russian Academy of Sciences, there is a vast collection of fossile bones, teeth, and horns, of the elephant, rhinoceros, and buffalo, which have been found in different parts of the empire, but more particularly in the southern regions of Siberia. Naturalists have been puzzled to account for so great a variety being found in a country, where the animal of which they formerly made a part, were never known to exist. It was the opinion of Peter I. who, though he deserves to be esteemed a great monarch, was certainly no great naturalist, that the teeth found near Voronetz were the remains of elephants belonging to the army of Alexander the Great, who, according to some historians, crossed the Don, and advanced as far as Kostinka. The celebrated Bayer, whose authority carries greater weight in the literary world, conjectures, that the bones and teeth found in Siberia belonged to elephants common to that country, during the wars which the Mogul monarchs carried on with the Persians; and this plausible supposition seems in some measure corroborated, by the discovery of the entire skeleton of an elephant in one of the Siberian tombs. But this opinion, as Mr Pallas very justly observes, (in his *Nov. Comm. De Ossibus Siberiæ fossilibus, p.* 440,) is sufficiently refuted by the consideration, that the elephants employed in the armies of all India could never have afforded the vast quantities of teeth which have been discovered, not to mention those which it is justly to be presumed may still be buried. They have been already dug up in such plenty as to make a considerable article of trade. The same ingenious naturalist has given an ample description of these fossile bones, and has endeavoured to account for their origin. Upon examining those in the museum, he was led to conclude, that as these bones are equally dispersed in all the northern regions of Europe, the climate probably was in the earlier ages less severe than at present, and then possibly sufficiently warm to be the native countries of the elphant, rhinoceros, and other quadrupeds, now found only in the southern climates. But when he visited, during his travels, the spots where the fossile bodies were dug up, and could form a judgment from his own observations, and not from the accounts of others, he renounced his former hypothesis; and, in conformity with the opinions of many modern philosophers, asserted, that they must have been brought by the waters; and that nothing but a sudden and general inundation, such as the deluge, could

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have tranſported them from their native countries in the ſouth, to the regions of the north. In proof of this aſſertion, he adds, that the bones are generally found ſeparate, as if they had been ſcattered by the waves, covered with a ſtratum of mud evidently formed by the waters, and commonly intermixed with the remains of marine plants, and ſimilar ſubſtances; inſtances of which he himſelf obſerved during his progreſs through Siberia, and which ſufficiently prove that theſe regions of Aſia were once overwhelmed by the ſea. We often find in the earth, petrified bones, the greateſt part of their gelatinous matter being extracted by the moiſture, and a ſtony one introduced in its room. In ſome parts of France, petrified bones are met with, which have an impregnation of copper. Hence, on being calcined in an open fire, a volatile ſalt is produced from the remains of their gelatinous principle, and the bone is tinged throughout of a fine greeniſh blue colour, copper always ſtriking a blue with volatile alkalis. The French turcoiſe ſtones are no other than theſe bones prepared by calcination; they are very durable, and bear to be worked and poliſhed nearly in the ſame manner as glaſs; without the imperfection, inſeparable from graſſy bodies, of being brittle. See TURCOISE. There have been lately diſcovered ſeveral enormous ſkeletons, 5 or 6 feet beneath the ſurface, on the banks of the Ohio, near the river Miume in America, 700 miles from the ſea coaſt. Some of the tuſks are near 7 feet long; one foot nine inches at the baſe, and one foot near the point; the cavity at the foot or baſe, 19 inches deep. Beſides their ſize, there are ſeveral other differences, which will not allow the ſuppoſition of their having been elephants: the tuſks of the true elephant have ſometimes a very ſlight lateral bend; theſe have a larger twiſt, or ſpiral curve, towards the ſmaller end: but the great and ſpecific difference conſiſts in the ſhape of the grinding teeth; which in theſe newly found, are faſhioned like the teeth of a carnivorous animal; and flat and ribbed tranſverſely on their ſurface like thoſe of the elephant, but furniſhed with a double row of high and conic proceſſes, as if intended to maſticate, not to grind their food. A third difference is in the thigh-bone, which is of great diſproportionable thickneſs to that of the elephant; and has alſo ſome other anatomical varieties. Theſe foſſile bones have been alſo found in Peru and the Brazils; and when cut and poliſhed by the workers in ivory, appear in every reſpect ſimilar. It is the opinion of Dr Hunter, that they muſt have belonged to a larger animal than the elephant; and differing from it, in being carnivorous. But as yet this formidable creature has evaded our ſearch; and if, indeed, ſuch an animal exiſts, it is happy for man that it keeps at a diſtance; ſince what ravage might not be expected from a creature, endowed with more than the ſtrength of the elephant, and all the rapacity of the tiger? See MAMMOTH.

(11.) BONES, USES OF. Bones are a very uſeful article, not only for making different kinds of toys, but likewiſe in ſeveral of the chemical arts; as, for making caſt iron malleable, for abſorbing the ſulphur of ſulphureous ores; for forming teſts and cupels, or veſſels for refining gold and ſilver with lead; (burnt bones compoſing a maſs of a porous texture, which abſorbs the vitrified lead and other matters, while the gold and ſilver, being unvitreſcible, remains entire behind;) for the preparation of milky glaſſes and porcelains; for the rectification of volatile ſalts and empyreumatic oils; and for making glue. The bones of different animals are not equally fit for theſe uſes: even the glue, or gelatinous part of the bones of one animal being remarkably different both in quantity and coheſiveneſs from that of another. The human ſkull-bone, or cranium, the natural defence of the ſeat of ſenſation and perception in the nobleſt animal, has been recommended medicinally as a cure for epilepſies, deliria, and all diſorders of the ſenſes, by the ſame falſe philoſophy which aſcribed anti-aſthmatic virtues to the lungs of the long-winded fox; and expected, becauſe fowls are ſaid to digeſt even ſmall ſtones, that the ſkin of the gizard, dried and powdered, would produce a ſimilar effect in the human ſtomach. To ſuch extravagances have phyſicians been led by the ſuperſtitions of former ages!

(12.) BONES, WHITENING OF. Two proceſſes are deſcribed in the *Acta Hoffmanienſia* for whitening bones, for ſkeletons. Profeſſor Rau had a method of giving them a great degree of whiteneſs. By bare expoſure to the air, ſun, and rain, for a length of time, they become notably white; but the whiteſt bones, kept in rooms tainted with ſmoke or fuliginous vapours, grow in a little time yellow, browniſh, and unſightly. It is cuſtomary for the purification of bones, to boil them in alkaline liquors; which, by diſſolving and extracting the ſuperfluous fat, improve their whiteneſs.

* *To* BONE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To take out the bones from the fleſh; as the cooks *bone* the veal.

BONE-ACE, a game at cards played thus: The dealer deals out two cards to the firſt hand, and turns up the third, and ſo on through all the players, who may be 7, 8, or as many as the cards will permit: he that has the higheſt card turned up to him carries the bone; that is, one half of the ſtake; the other half remaining to be played for. Again, if there be three kings, three queens, three tens, &c. turned up, the eldeſt hand wins the bone. But the ace of diamonds is bone-ace, and wins all other cards whatever. Thus much for the bone: and as for the other half of the ſtake, the neareſt to 31 wins it; and he that turns up or draws 31 wins it immediately.

BONE-BREAKER, in ornithology, a name given to the Oſſifrage, a ſpecies of eagle.

BONE-CHURCH, a village of the Iſle of Wight, Eaſt Medina.

* BONELACE. *n. ſ.* [from *bone* and *lace*; the bobbins with which lace is woven being frequently made of bones.] Flaxen lace, ſuch as women wear on their linen.—The things you follow, and make ſongs on now, ſhould be ſent to knit, or ſit down to bobbins or *bonelace*. *Taylor*.—We deſtroy the ſymmetry of the human figure, and fooliſhly contrive to call off the eye from great and real beauties, to childiſh gewgaw ribbands and *bonelace*. *Spectator*.

* BONE-

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* BONELESS. *adj.* [from *bone.*] Wanting bones.—

I would, while it was ſmiling in my face,
Have pluckt my nipple from his *boneleſs* gums,
And dalht his brains out. *Shakeſ.*

* *To* BONESET. *v. n.* [from *bone* and *ſet.*] To reſtore a bone out of joint to its place; or join a bone broken to the other part.—A fractured leg ſet in the country by one pretending to *boneſetting. Wiſeman's Surgery.*

(1.) * BONESETTER. *n. ſ.* [from *boneſet.*] A chirurgeon; one who particularly profeſſes the art of reſtoring broken or luxated bones.—At preſent my deſire is to have a good *Boneſetter. Denb.*

(4.) BONSETTERS. See BARBER, § 3.

BONE-SETTING. *n. ſ.* the art of replacing diſlocated bones, and of joining the parts of fractured ones. See SURGERY, INDEX.

BONE-SPAVIM, *n. ſ.* a diſeaſe incident to horſes. See FARRIERY, INDEX.

BON-ESPERANCE, the Cape of Good Hope. See GOOD HOPE.

BONET, Theophilus, an eminent phyſician born at Geneva, March 15th, 1620. He took his degree of M. D. in 1643, after he had gone through moſt of the famous univerſities, and was for ſome time phyſician to the duke of Longueville. Meanwhile his ſkill in his profeſſion got him conſiderable practice; but being ſeized with deafneſs, it obliged him to retire from buſineſs, which gave him leiſure to collect all the obſervations he had made during a practice of 40 years. He wrote, 1. *Polyalthes, ſive Theſaurus Medico-practicus*, 3 vols folio. 2. *Labyrinthi Medici extricati.* 3. *Medicinæ Septentrionalis Collatitia*; and other works.

BONEWELL, a village in Herefordſhire, near Croft-Caſtle.

BONFADIO, or BONFADIUS, James, one of the moſt polite writers of the 16th century, was born in Italy, near the lake Garda. He was ſecretary to the cardinal de Bari, and after his death to the cardinal Ghinucci. He afterwards read public lectures on Ariſtotle's polities, and on rhetoric: and was made hiſtoriographer to the republic of Genoa. He applied himſelf to compoſe the annals of that ſtate, in which he wrote too ſatirically on ſome great families. This creating him enemies who were reſolved to ruin him, they accuſed him of the unnatural ſin; and, as they ſuborned witneſſes to convict him, he was condemned to be burnt. Some ſay that this ſentence was executed: and others, that his puniſhment was changed, and that he was beheaded, A. D. 1560. Upon the day of his execution he wrote a note to John Baptiſt Grimaldi, to teſtify his gratitude to the perſons who had endeavoured to ſerve him; and promiſed to inform them, how he found himſelf in the other world, if it could be done without frightening them. But it does not appear, that he performed his promiſe, any more, than the many who had promiſed the like before him.—His hiſtory of Genoa is eſteemed. We have alſo ſome letters, ſome orations, and Latin and Italian poems of his, which were printed at Bologna, in 1744, 8vo.

BONFINIUS, Anthony, flouriſhed in the 15th century. He was a native of Aſcoli in Italy, and attached himſelf to the belles lettres. Matthias Corvinus king of Hungary, having heard of his learning, ſent for him, retained him, and ſettled upon him a penſion. He wrote, 1. A hiſtory of Aſcoli; 2. A treatiſe of virginity and conjugal chaſtity; 3. a hiſtory of Hungary; and other works.

* BONFIRE. *n. ſ.* [from *bon*, good, Fr. and *fire.*] A fire made for ſome publick cauſe of triumph or exultation.—

Ring ye the bells to make it wear away,
And *bonfires* make all day. *Spenſer.*

—How came ſo many *bonfires* to be made in queen Mary's days? Why, ſhe had abuſed and deceived her people. *South,*—

Full ſoon by *bonfire*, and by bell,
We learnt our liege was paſſing well. *Gay.*

BONFRERIUS, James, a learned Jeſuit, born at Dinant, in 1573. He wrote a commentary on the Pentateuch, and learned notes on the Onomaſticon of the places and towns mentioned in the Scripture. He died at Tournay in 1643, aged 70.

BONGARS, or BONGARSIAS, James, a native of Orleans, was one of the moſt learned men of the 16th century. He applied himſelf to the ſtudy of critical learning, and was for near 30 years employed in the moſt important negociations of Henry IV. whoſe reſident he was ſeveral times at the courts of the princes of Germany, and at length his ambaſſador. He was of the Proteſtant religion; and, when very young, had courage to write and poſt up in Rome a very ſpirited anſwer to a bull of Pope Sixtus V. The public is obliged to him for the edition of ſeveral authors, who had written the Hiſtory of the Expeditions to the Holy Land; he alſo publiſhed, among other works, an edition of Juſtin, in which he reſtored ſeveral paſſages that had been corrupted, by conſulting valuable M. SS. and added notes which explained many difficulties. He died in 1612, aged 58.

(1.) BONGO, an iſland of Japan.

(2.) BONGO, or BUNGO, a town in the iſle of Ximo.

(3.) BONGO, the capital of the iſland, (N° 1.) It is a ſea port, and lies on the E. ſide, oppoſite to *Tonſa.*

BONGOMILES, a monk who founded the heretical ſect of the Bogomili. See BOGOMILI.

BONGO-PALMA, a name given by ſome to the nutmeg tree.

BON-GOUT, [Fr.] a fine taſte.

(1.) * BONGRACE. *n. ſ.* [*bonne grace*, Fr.] A forehead-cloth, or covering for the forehead. Not now uſed. *Skinner.*—I have ſeen her beſet all over with emeralds, and pearls, ranged in rows about her cawl, her peruke, her *bongrace*, and chaplet. *Hakewill on Providence.*

(2.) BONGRACE, in ſea language, a frame of old ropes, or junks of cables, laid along the bows, ſterns and ſides of ſhips, ſailing in cold latitudes, to preſerve them from damage by the flakes of ice.

BONHA, a river of S. America, which falls into the Pacific Ocean.

BONHILL, a pariſh of Scotland in Dumbartonſhire, 4½ miles long, and 4 broad. The ground is all incloſed and ſubdivided. About 250 acres are planted with larix and firs, and the natural wood

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wood is so plentiful, that a cutting of it, at 20 years, is worth about L. 2350. The population in 1791, as stated by the rev. Mr Gordon Stewart, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 2310, and had increased no less than 1409 within the preceding 36 years. This increase appears to have been chiefly owing to the establishment of 3 printfields and 4 bleachfields on the banks of the Leven.

BONIFACE, I. pope of Rome, was elected, A. D. 418, and exerted himself much to establish the supremacy of Rome over the other churches. St Augustine dedicated to him his book against the Pelagians. He died A. D. 423.

BONIFACE, II. governed the papal see only a year and 2 days. He was elected on the death of Felix IV. A. D. 530, but was opposed by the antipope, Dioscorus. He appointed Vigilius his successor, but afterwards annulled his appointment, finding Vigilius not popular. He died in 531.

BONIFACE, III. was elected A. D. 606, and reigned only 8 months and 23 days; yet in that short period, by favouring the emperor Phocas, he got the important title of *Universal Bishop* exclusively conferred on himself and his successors. Alstedius dates the beginning of the reign of the *Beast* under this Pope; "*Incipit regnum bestiæ;* (says he) *quia Bonifacius aperuit os suum ut ambitiosa bestia.*" He was succeeded by

BONIFACE, IV. who obtained the additional favour from Phocas, of converting the famous heathen temple, built by Agrippa, called the *Pantheon*, into a church. Several literary works are ascribed to him, but they are suspected to be spurious. He died, A. D. 614, in the 9th year of his pontificate, and was canonized.

BONIFACE, V. was elected pope on the death of Deusdedit, A. D. 618, and was succeeded by Honorius, in 626.

BONIFACE, VI. was raised to the papal chair on the death of Formosus, A. D. 895, but enjoyed his pontifical dignity only 15 days.

BONIFACE, VII. has the title of *Antipope:* because, in 974, he caused Benedict VI. to be strangled in prison, and after the election of Benedict VII. removed the treasures of the church to Constantinople. He, however, returned after the death of Benedict, and caused his successor John XIV. to be murdered; but died himself soon after, and his body was dragged by the feet about the streets.

BONIFACE, VIII. obtained the pontifical dignity in 1294, upon the uncommon event of pope Celestine V. Alstedius says, that "he entered like a fox, reigned like a lion, and died like a dog." In 1297, he canonized St Lewis king of France; and in 1300, instituted a jubilee to be held every 100 years following. At this jubilee he dressed himself the one day in his pontifical habit, and the next in imperial robes; telling the emperor Albert's ambassadors, that their master's election was of no avail, without his authority. He boasted that he was the keeper of the keys of heaven; and caused two drawn swords to be carried before him, as emblems of his two-fold authority. He was killed in 1303.

BONIFACE, IX. was elected Pope, A. D. 1389, on the death of Urban VI, and enjoyed the papal dignity 14 years and 11 months, but not without competitors; for at this time there was a succession of antipopes at Avignon, for about 50 years, which Roman Catholic writers stile *the Grand Schism*, and sometimes there were three popes existing at once. He died A. D. 1404.

(1.) BONIFACE, ST, an Englishman, born at Kirton in Devonshire, and originally named WINIFRED. He preached the gospel among the barbarous nations; and though created archbishop of Mentz, by Gregory II. soon after resigned his office, to go and preach in East Friesland, where he was martyred by the Pagans on the 5th of June, 754. His letters were published by Senarius.

(2.) BONIFACE, ST, an Italian, who came to Scotland, about A. D. 693 or 697, to make our forefathers acquainted with the church of Rome. Mr Wood, the minister of Rosemarkie, in Rossshire, mentions, that they have a well and an annual fair denominated after him, and that the public seal of the burgh bears his image. *Stat. Acc. Vol.* IX. *p.* 345.

BONIFACIA, in botany, a name given by Bauhine and others, to the broad leafed RUSCUS, or Butcher's broom.

(1.) BONIFACIO, a district of Corsica, at the S. extremity of the island, from which the strait between Corsica and Sardinia has its name.

(2.) BONIFACIO, a town in the district, (N° 1.) beyond the mountains, near the strait called *Bocca di Bonifacio.* It is well fortified and populous. Lon. 9. 20. E. Lat. 41. 25. N.

BONINGALE, a village in Shropshire, near Albrighton.

(1.) BONINGTON, a village of Mid-Lothian, in the parish of Ratho.

(2, 3.) BONINGTON, two villages in Kent; viz. 1. in Romney-marsh, near Wye: 2. united to Fakenhurst.

(1.) BONIS ARRESTANDIS. See ARRESTANDIS.

(2.) BONIS, ARRESTO, &c. See ARRESTO.

(3.) BONIS NON AMOVENDIS, in law, is a writ directed to the sheriffs of London, &c. charging them, that a person against whom judgment is obtained, and prosecuting a writ of errour, be not suffered to remove his goods until the error is determined.

BONITO, in ichthyology. See SCOMBER.

BONIUM, the ancient name of BANGOR.

BONKLE and PRESTON, two united parishes of Scotland in Berwickshire, extending about 6 m. every way, and containing 8,900 acres. The soil on the high ground is dry, thin and poor, but has been much improved of late. The rest is naturally fertile. The farms are large; from L. 200 to L. 600 a-year. The population, of consequence, has not increased: there being, by the rev. Mr Douglas's statement to Sir J. Sinclair, only 622 souls, in 1791; which was 69 below the number in 1755.

BONLACHY, a town of Ireland, in Longford.

BON MOT, [Fr.] a jest; a witty repartee.

BONN, or BON, an ancient and strong city of Germany, in the electorate of Cologn, and the usual residence of the elector. It is of great consequence in the time of war; because it is situated on the Rhine, in a place where it can stop every thing that comes down that river. It was well fortified by the elector, who had a fine palace

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lace and beautiful gardens in the city. Lon. 7. 5. E. Lat. 50. 35. N.

(1.) BONNA, in ancient geography, one of the 50 citadels built by Druſus on the Rhine; ſuppoſed by ſome to be the ſame with the *Ara Ubiorum*; now called BONN.

(2.) BONNA, in zoology, a name given by Pliny and others to the BONASUS.

BONNAGE, in our old feudal cuſtoms, not yet wholly aboliſhed, an obligation on the part of a tenant to cut down part of the proprietor's corn, when called on.

(2.) BONNEFONS, John, a Latin poet, born at Clermont in Auvergne, and lieutenant general of Bar ſur Seine, acquired great reputation by his *Pancharis*, and other poems. He died under the reign of Lewis XIII.

(2.) BONNEFONS, John, another Latin poet, was ſon to the former, N° 1.

BONNER, Edmund, biſhop of London, of infamous memory, was born at Hauley in Worceſterſhire, and generally ſuppoſed to be the natural ſon of one Savage a prieſt; who was the natural ſon of Sir John Savage of Clifton in the ſame county. Strype, however, ſays, he was poſitively aſſured that Bonner was the legitimate offspring of a poor man, who lived in a cottage known to this day by the name of *Bonner's place*. About 1512, he entered ſtudent of Broadgate Hall in Oxford. In 1519, he was admitted batchelor of the canon and civil law. About the ſame time he took orders, and obtained ſome preferment in the dioceſe of Worceſter. In 1526, he was created doctor of canon law. Having now acquired the character of a ſhrewd politician and civilian, he was ſoon diſtinguiſhed by cardinal Wolſey, who made him his commiſſary for the faculties, and heaped upon him a variety of church preferments. He poſſeſſed at one time the livings of Blaydon and Cherry-Burton in Yorkſhire, Ripple in Worceſterſhire, eaſt Dercham in Norfolk, prebend of St Paul's, and the archdeaconry of Leiceſter. Bonner was with the cardinal at Caw-wood, when he was arreſted for high treaſon. After the death of that miniſter, he ſoon inſinuated himſelf into the favour of Henry VIII. who made him one of his chaplains, and employed him in ſeveral embaſſies, particularly to the pope. In 1532, he was ſent to Rome, with Sir Edward Kame, to anſwer for the king, whom his Holineſs had cited to appear in perſon or by proxy. In 1533, he was again diſpatched to pope Clement VII. at Marſeilles, upon the excommunication of king Henry on account of his divorce. On this occaſion he threatened the pope with ſo much reſolution, that his Holineſs talked of burning him alive, or throwing him into a caldron of melted lead; upon which Bonner thought fit to decamp. His infallibility did not forſee, that the man, whom he thus threatened was predeſtined to burn heretics in England. In 1538, being ambaſſador at the court of France, he was nominated biſhop of Hereford; but, before conſecration, was tranſlated to the ſee of London, and enthroned in April 1540.—Henry VIII. died in 1547, while Bonner was ambaſſador with the emperor Charles V. During this reign he was conſtantly zealous in his oppoſition to the pope; and, to pleaſe the king favoured the reformation; but, on the acceſſion of young Edward, he refuſed the oath of ſupremacy, and was committed to the Fleet; however, he ſoon thought fit to promiſe obedience to the laws, and was accordingly releaſed. He continued to comply with the reformation; but with ſuch manifeſt neglect and reluctance, that he was twice reprimanded by the privy council, and in 1549, after a long trial, was committed to the Marſhalſea, and deprived of his biſhopric. The ſucceeding reign gave him ample opportunity of revenge. Mary was ſcarce ſeated on the throne before Bonner was reſtored to his biſhopric; and ſoon after appointed vicegerent and preſident of the convocation. From this time he became the chief inſtrument of papal cruelty; and he is ſaid to have condemned no leſs than 200 Proteſtants to the flames in the ſpace of 3 years. Nor was this monſter of a prieſt more remarkable for his cruelty than his impudence. When Queen Elizabeth came to the crown, he had the inſolence to meet her, with the reſt of the biſhops, at Highgate. But, in the 2d year of her reign, refuſing to take the oath of allegiance and ſupremacy, he was again deprived, and committed to the Marſhalſea; where he died in 1569, after ten years confinement. There cannot be a ſtronger inſtance of the comparative lenity of the Proteſtant church, than its ſuffering this miſcreant to die a natural death. Several pieces were publiſhed under his name.

BONNESTABLE, a town of France, in the department of Sarte. It carries on a great trade in corn, and is 15 m. NE. of Mans. Lon. 0. 30. E. Lat. 48. 11. N.

(1.) BONNET, Charles, a naturaliſt and metaphyſician, was born at Geneva in 1720. He was intended for the law, but accidentally meeting with the Spectacle de Nature of Le Pluche, and Reaumur's Memoirs on Inſects, he reſolved to devote himſelf to the ſtudy of nature. At the age of 20 he had made ſeveral diſcoveries in entomology, and at 27 he formed his ſyſtem of vegetable phyſics. About this time he appeared, as a writer in a treatiſe on pſycology, which was followed by his analytical eſſay on the mental powers. In 1762 and 1764 he publiſhed Conſiderations on organized Bodies, and Contemplations of Nature. His laſt work was Palingeneſia, or Thoughts on the paſt and future State of Animal Beings. He was a member of the royal ſociety of London, and of ſeveral other learned bodies. Bonnet was a firm believer in chriſtianity, and died at Geneva, May 20, 1793.—*Life of Bonnet publiſhed at Berne*, 1794.

(2.) * BONNET. *n. ſ.* [*bonet*, Fr.] A covering for the head; a hat: a cap.—

Go to them with this *bonnet* in thy hand,
And thus far having ſtretch'd it, here be with them,
Thy knee buſſing the ſtones; for, in ſuch buſineſs,
Action is eloquence. *Shak.*

—They had not probably the ceremony of vailing the *bonnet* in their ſalutations; for, in medals, they ſtill have it on their heads. *Addiſon.*

(3.) * BONNET. [In fortification.] A kind of little ravelin, without any ditch, having a parapet three

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three feet high, anciently placed before the points of the saliant angles of the glacis.

(4.) * BONNET A PRESTRE, or priest's cap, is an outwork, having at the head three saliant angles, and two inwards.

(5.) BONNET A PRESTRE differs from the double tenaille only in this, that its sides, instead of being parallel, are like the *queue d'aronde*, or swallow's tail, that is, narrowing, or drawing close at the gorge, and opening at the head.

(6.) BONNETS, (§ 2. *def.* 1.) are still used in many parts of Scotland, instead of hats.

(7.) BONNETS, in fortification, (§ 2.) consist of two faces, having only a parapet with two rows of palisadoes, of about 10 or 12 feet distance. They have a communication with the covered way, by a trench cut through the glacis, and palisadoes on each side.

(8.) * BONNETS. [In the sea language.] Small sails set on the courses on the mizen, mainsail, and foresail of a ship, when these are too narrow or shallow to cloath the mast, or in order to make more way in calm weather. *Chambers.*

BONNET PEPPER. See CAPSICUM.

(1.) BONNEVAL, a town of France, in the dep. of Eure and Loire, and ci-devant prov. of Beauce. It had lately a fine Benedictine abbey. It is seated on the Loire, 8 miles N. of Chateaudun. Lon. 1. 20. E. Lat. 48. 12. N.

(2.) BONNEVAL, Claudius Alexander, count de, known in the latter part of his life by the name of OSMAN BASHAW, descended from a family related to the blood-royal of France, entered at the age of 16 in the service of that crown, and married the daughter of marshal de Biron. He made the campaign in Flanders in 1690; but soon after left the French army, and entered into the imperial service under prince Eugene, who honoured him with an intimate friendship. The intrigues of the marquis de Prié, his inveterate enemy, ruined his credit, however, at the court of Vienna, and caused him to be banished the empire. He then offered his service to the republic of Venice and to Russia; which being declined, his next tender was to the Grand Signor, who gladly received him. It was stipulated, that he should have a body of 30,000 men at his disposal; that a government should be conferred on him, with the rank of Bashaw of three tails, and a salary of 10,000 aspers a-day; and that, in case of a war, he should be commander in chief. The first expedition he engaged in, after his arrival at Constantinople, was to quell an insurrection of Arabia Petræa, which he effected; and at his return had large offers made him by Kouli Khan, but did not choose to accept them. Some time after, he commanded the Turkish army against the emperor, over whose force he gained a victory on the Danube. But success does not always protect a person against disgrace; for Bonneval, notwithstanding his services, was first imprisoned, and then banished to the island of Chio. The sultan however continued his friend; and the evening before his departure made him Bashaw-general of the Archipelago, which, with his former appointment of beglerberg of Arabia, rendered him one of the most powerful persons in the Ottoman empire. In this island he found a retirement quite agreeable to his wishes; but did not long enjoy it, being sent for back, and made *topigi* or master of the ordnance, a post of great honour and profit. He died in this employment, aged 75, in 1747; and wrote the memoirs of his own life.

BONNEVILLE, a town of France, in the department of Mount Blanc, seated on the N. side of the river Arve, at the foot of a mountain, called the Mole.

BONNEY. See BONNY, N° 2.

* BONNILY. *adv.* [from *bonny*.] Gayly; handsomely; plumply.

* BONNINESS. *n. s.* [from *bonny*.] Gayety; handsomeness; plumpness.

(1.) BONNITON, a district in Lanarkshire.

(2.) BONNITON FALL, or BONNITON LINN, a beautiful cataract, in the above district, (N° 1.) where the whole water of the river Clyde falls over a rock upwards of 12 feet perpendicular, about 2½ m. above Lanark. The romantic scenery around this and CORRA LIN, which is farther down the Clyde, is elegantly described by Mr Lockhart of Baronald, in the *Stat. Acc.* XV. 20—22.

(1.) * BONNY. *adj.* [from *bon*, *bonne*, Fr.] It is a word now almost confined to the Scottish dialect. 1. Handsome; beautiful.—

Match to match I have encounter'd him,
And made a prey for carrion kites and crows,
Ev'n of the *bonny* beast he lov'd so well.
Shakespeare.

Thus wail'd the louts in melancholy strain,
Till *bonny* Susan spread across the plain. *Gay.*

2. Gay; merry; frolicksome; cheerful; blithe.—

Then sigh not so, but let them go,
And be you blithe and *bonny*. *Shakespeare.*

3. It seems to be generally used in conversation for *plump*.

(2.) BONNY, *n. s.* among miners, a bed of ore, differing only from a squat as being round, whereas the squat is flat. See SQUAT.

(3.) BONNY, a river of France.

(4.) BONNY, a town of France, in the department of Loiret and ci-devant province of Gastinois, seated on the confluence of the Bonny, (N° 3.) and the Loire. Lon. 2. 54. E. Lat. 47. 36. N.

* BONNY-CLABBER. *n. s.* A word used in Ireland for sour buttermilk.—

We scorn, for want of talk, to jabber
Of parties o'er our *bonny-clabber*;
Nor are we studious to enquire,
Who votes for manors, who for hire. *Swift.*

BONNYTOWN, a village of Fifeshire, in the parish of Carnock.

BONO ET MALO, WRIT DE. A special writ of goal-delivery was anciently used for each particular prisoner under this title; but these things being found inconvenient and oppressive, a general commission for all the prisoners has long been established in their stead.

BONONCINI, Giovanni, an eminent composer of music, who for some time divided the opinions of the *connoscenti* of this kingdom with respect to the comparative merits of himself and the great Handel; which gave occasion for the well known epigram, on the disputes between *Tweedle dum* and *Tweedle Dee*, said to have been written by Dr Swift. An Italian opera was published with Bononcini's name prefixed to it, intitled *Pharnances*;

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naces; but whether the words, or only the muſic, are his compoſition, is uncertain; and indeed, in general, the language of thoſe pieces, written merely for muſical repreſentation, is ſo extremely paltry, that the greateſt compliment that can be paid to their authors is, to ſuffer their names to lie buried in obſcurity.

(1.) BONONIA, an ancient town of Gallia Belgica, ſuppoſed to be the *Portus Itcius* of Cæſar and the *Geſſoriacum* of Mela. Pentinger's map expreſsly calls Geſſoriacum *Bononia*. It is now called BOLOGNE.

(2.) BONONIA, a town of Italy, in Gallia Ciſpadana; a name probably given by the Gauls, to diſtinguiſh it from BONONIA, (N° 1.) Its ancient name when in the hands of the Tuſcans, who were expelled by the Gauls, was FALSINA. In A. U. C. 563, the Romans led a colony thither; which about the beginning of the Actian war, was increaſed by Auguſtus, and was the *Colonia Bonomienſis* of Tacitus. It is now called Bologna. See BOLOGNA, N° 1.

(3.) BONONIA, a town of Mœſia Superior, on the Danube; now called *Bodon* in Bulgaria. See BODON.

(4.) BONONIA, a town of Pannonia Inferior, between Murſa to the NW. and Taurinum to the E.

(5.) BONONIA, John de, a native of Sicily, archdean of Palermo, and chaplain to Charles V. He was deputed by the emperor to an aſſembly of divines, who met in 1553, to decide the queſtion whether the people ſhould be allowed to read the Bible, in their native language. Bononia violently eſpouſed the *negative* ſide, and the aſſembly decided accordingly. He publiſhed a work on Predeſtination at Louvain, in 1555.

BONONIAN STONES. See BOLOGNIAN.

BONORUM ATTACHIAMENTA. See ATTACHIAMENTA.

BONOSIACI, or BONOSIANI, } an ancient branch of ADOPTIANI, in the 4th century, denominated from their leader BONOSUS, a biſhop of Macedonia. The Bonoſiani were prior to the Feliciani, and even to Neſtorius: whence ſome rather conſider them as a branch of Arians. See ADOPTIANI.

BONPOURNICKEL, a coarſe kind of bread uſed in Weſtphalia. See BREAD.

BONS-HOMMES, or BON-HOMMES, a ſort of hermits of St Auguſtin, founded by F. de Paula. They were brought over into England in 1283, by Edmund earl of Cornwall, and ſettled at Aſhorug in Bucks, beſides which, they had only one houſe more at Edington in Wiltſhire. They followed the rule of St Auſtin, and wore a blue habit. The name is ſaid to have ariſen from Lewis VI. of France, who uſed to call F. de Paula, prior to the order, *Le bon homme*. Till then they had been called the *Minimi*, or the order of Grammont.

BONTES-HALL, a village of Derbyſhire, 6 miles N. of Wirkſworth.

BONTIA, WILD OLIVE OF BARBADOES, a genus of the angioſpermia order, belonging to the didynamia claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 40th order, *Perſonatæ*. The calyx is quinquepartite; the corolla is bilabiated, the inferior lip tripartite and revolute; the plum is ovate and monoſpermous, with the apex turned to one ſide. There are two ſpecies.

1. BONTIA DAPHNOIDES has a woody ſtem and branches; riſing to the height of ten feet, with narrow, ſmooth, thickiſh leaves, crenated at the edges; and flowers from the ſides of the branches, ſucceeded by large oval fruit that ſometimes ripen in England. This ſpecies is generally cultivated in the gardens at Barbadoes for hedges; for which it is exceedingly proper, being an evergreen of very quick growth. It is ſaid, that from cuttings planted there in the rainy ſeaſon, when they have immediately taken root, there has been a complete hedge 4 or 5 feet high, in 18 months.

2. BONTIA GERMINANS grows in ſwamps, from which it has been reckoned a ſpecies of the mangrove tree. By others it has been ſuppoſed to be the plant that produces the MOLUCCA BEAN. It riſes 14 or 16 feet high, ſending out ſmall branches, which incline downward to the water, and as ſoon as they reach it, put out roots into the mud, whereby they propagate very faſt: theſe branches are garniſhed with leaves placed oppoſite; they are of a thick ſubſtance, like thoſe of the bay tree, about two inches long and one broad, very ſmooth on their ſurface; the flowers are white, and come out from the ſpikes in the upper branches. Theſe plants are eaſily propagated, either by ſeeds or cuttings, ſown or planted on a hot-bed; but they muſt be kept conſtantly in the ſtove.

BONT-VISCH, in ichthyology, the name given by the Dutch to an Eaſt Indian fiſh, ſeeming to approach to the nature of the European TURDUS, but that it has no ſcales.

BONVINCINO, Alexander, called Le MORETTO, hiſtory and portrait painters, was born at Rovate in 1514. He was a diſciple of Titian, but having ſeen the deſigns of Raphael, he gave himſelf up entirely to ſtudy thoſe maſter pieces of art and genius; which he did with ſuch judgement, that he became an exceeding good painter. His works were eagerly brought up, being extremely admired for the tenderneſs of the penciling; the correctneſs, and ſpirited expreſſion of the figures; the neatneſs of the finiſhing; and the rich variety of the draperies; which uſually conſiſted of velvets, damaſks, or ſattins, copied after nature. He was equally excellent in portrait, and by many was placed in competition with Titian himſelf. He died in 1564.

(1.) * BONUM MAGNUM. *n. ſ.* A ſpecies of plum.

(2.) BONUM MAGNUM [*i. e.* great good,] is alſo applied in a convivial or ludicrous ſenſe to a pint bottle of wine.

BONUS, [*i. e.* good, *Lat.*] among Stock jobbers, a præmium given on the nominal terms of government loans. Thus, the miniſter contracts for money to be lent to government on ſpecified terms, in addition to which, he propoſes certain benefits to the lenders, as a *bonus*, in addition to the original terms; *ex. gr.* a certain number of Lottery Tickets conſiderably under the price they would fetch at market, is a very common article in the *bonus* of the loan.

BONUS HENRICUS. See CHENOPODIUM.

* BONY. *adj.* [from *bone*.] 1. Conſiſting of bones.—At the end of this hole is a membrane, faſtened to a round *bony* limb, and ſtretched like the head of a drum; and therefore, by anatomiſts, called *tympanum*. *Ray*. 2. Full of bones.

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BONYCK, a village in Suſſex, N. of Horſham.

BONYE, a village in Nottinghamſhire, near Widmer Pool.

BONYNUS. *n. ſ.* the quality of being bony.

BONYTHON, a town in Cornwall, near Gunwallo, N. of Lizard Point.

(1.) BONZES, Indian prieſts. The Tonquineſe have a pagod or temple in each town; and each pagod has at leaſt two bonzes belonging to it; ſome have 30 or 40. Theſe bonzes, to diſtinguiſh themſelves from the laity, wear a chaplet about their necks conſiſting of 100 beads; and carry a ſtaff, at the end of which is a wooden bird. They live upon the alms of the people; yet are very charitably diſpoſed, and maintain ſeveral orphans and widows out of their own collections.

(2.) BONZES OF CHINA are the prieſts of the Fohiſts, or ſect of Fohi. It is one of their eſtabliſhed tenets, that great rewards are allotted for the righteous, and puniſhments for the wicked in the next world; and that there are various manſions in which the ſouls of men will reſide, according to their different degrees of merit. But, in order to deſerve the favour of heaven, the bonzes inſtruct the people to treat the prieſts with reſpect and reverence, to ſupport and maintain them, and to erect temples and monaſteries for them. They tell them, that unleſs they comply with their injunctions, they will be cruelly tormented after death, and paſs through a diſagreeable variety of tranſmigrations: that they will be changed into mules, aſſes, rats, mice, &c. The Chineſe bonzes, according to F. le Compte, are a gang of diſſolute idle fellows. All their aim is to incite people to commiſerate their abject condition: to which end they have recourſe to various impoſtures. When the common arts of addreſs fail them, they try what public acts of penance will do. Some of them drag heavy chains 30 feet long after them; ſome fit in the highway knocking their heads againſt flint ſtones; others ſet particular drugs on fire upon their heads; all theſe are ſeveral ways of drawing the attention and exciting the compaſſion of the people, and they ſeldom fail of ſucceſs. F. Navarette tells us, that the bonzes are obliged to chaſtity; and that, on the 2d of April, 1667, a petty king of Canton had condemned 11 of them to be burnt alive for incontinence. He adds, that it was reported of an empreſs of the laſt reigning family, who had a particular kindneſs for the bonzes, that ſhe granted them a diſpenſation for the uſe of women during three days. The bonzes of China, according to the ſame author, are computed at 50,000. It has been obſerved that there is ſo ſtrong a likeneſs between the apparent worſhip of many of the Prieſts of Fo (ſee Embaſſy to China, Vol. ii. p. 100.) and that which is exhibited in churches of the Roman faith, that a Chineſe conveyed into one of the latter, might imagine the votaries he there ſaw were adoring the deities of his own country. On the altar of a Chineſe temple, behind a ſcreen, is frequently a repreſentation which might ſerve for the Virgin Mary, in the perſon of "Shin-moo," or the ſacred Mother, ſitting in an alcove, with a child in her arms, and rays proceeding from a circle, which are called a glory, round her head, with tapers burning conſtantly before her. The long looſe gowns of the Ho-ſhangs, or prieſts of Fo, bound with cords round the waiſte, would almoſt equally ſuit the Friars of the order of St Francis, the former live like the latter in a ſtate of celibacy, reſide together in monaſterys, and impoſe occaſionally upon themſelves voluntary penance, and vigorous abſtinence.

(3.) BONZES OF JAPAN are, for the generality, gentlemen of the higheſt extraction; for when a gentleman of quality finds his family grow too numerous, nay, when he has only two ſons, he generally makes the youngeſt a bonze, to prevent all domeſtic broils and confuſions. Theſe prieſts are dreſſed in various colours; their apartments are very commodious, and ſituated in the healthieſt parts of the country.

(1.) * BOOBY. *n. ſ.* [a word of no certain etymology; *Henſhaw* thinks it a corruption of *bull-beef* ridiculouſly; *Skinner* imagines it to be derived from *bobo*, fooliſh, Span. *Junius* finds *bowbard* to be an old Scottiſh word for a *coward*, a *contemptible fellow*; from which he naturally deduces *booby*; but the original of *bowbard* is not known.] A dull, heavy, ſtupid fellow; a lubber.—

But one exception to this fact we find,
That *booby* Phaon only was unkind,
An ill-bred boatman, rough as waves and wind.
Prior.

Young maſter next muſt riſe to fill him wine,
And ſtarve himſelf to ſee the *booby* dine. *King.*

(2.) BOOBY, in ornithology. See PELICANUS.

BOOD, *v. pret. obſ.* Did abide. *Chauc.*

BOODGE-BOODGE, a town of Hindooſtan proper, capital of the Rajah of Cutch; 330 miles NE. by E. of Surat. Lon. 68. 0. E. Lat. 23. 16. N.

BOODH, BOUDDHA BUDHA, or BADDOU, in mythology, a deity very anciently worſhiped in India. From various authorities it ſufficiently appears that the worſhip of Boodh or Bouddha has prevailed in ſeveral parts of India, at a period prior to that of the Brahmins, but that about the time of Chriſt they gained a ſuperiority over the worſhipers of Bouddha, and 900 years afterwards they totally overthrew his doctrine, in its native country, and perſecuted his followers. The Vedas, which are ſuppoſed to be the oldeſt Books of the Brahmins, are of later date than the time of Bouddha, as is evident from the mention which they make of that deity.

(1.) * BOOK. *n. ſ.* [*boc*, Sax. ſuppoſe from *boc*, a beech; becauſe they wrote on *beechen* boards, as *liber* in Latin, from the rind of a tree.] 1. A volume in which we read or write.—

See a *book* of prayer in his hand:
True ornaments to know a holy man. *Shakeſp.*
Receive the ſentence of the law for ſins,
Such as by God's *book* are adjudg'd to death.
Shakeſpeare.

—In the coffin that had the *books*, they were found as freſh as if they had been but newly written; being written on parchment, and covered over with watch candles of wax. *Bacon.*—*Books* are a ſort of dumb teachers; they cannot anſwer ſudden queſtions, or explain preſent doubts: this is properly the work of a living inſtructor. *Watts.* 2. A particular part of a work.—The firſt *book* we divide into ſections; whereof the firſt is theſe chapters paſt. *Burnet's Theory.* 3. The regiſter in

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is which a trader keeps an account of his debts.—

This life
Is nobler than attending for a bauble;
Prouder, than ruſtling in unpaid-for ſilk;
Such gain the cap of him that makes him fine,
Yet keeps his *book* uncroſs'd. *Shakeſpeare.*

4. *In* his *books*. In kind remembrance.—It was ſo much *in his books*, that, at his deceaſe, heleft me the lamp by which he uſed to write his lucubrations. *Addiſon.* 5. *Without book.* By memory; by repetition; without reading.—Sermons read they abhor in the church; but ſermons *without book*, ſermons which ſpend their life in their birth, and may have publick audience but once. *Hooker.*

(2.) BODY is the general name of almoſt every literary compoſition; but, in a more limited ſenſe is applied only to ſuch compoſitions as are large enough to make a volume; ſmall tracts being ſtiled *Pamphlets.*

(3.) BOOKS, ANCIENT. The books of Moſes are undoubtedly the moſt ancient extant: But Moſes himſelf cites the *Book of the Wars of the Lord*, (*Numb.* xxi. 14.) which muſt have been written before his time, unleſs, as ſome commentators judiciouſly ſuppoſe, this book had been previouſly wrote by himſelf. Of profane books, the oldeſt extant are Homer's poems, which were ſo even in the time of Sextus Empiricus; though we find mention in Greek writers of 70 others prior to Homer; as Hermes, Orpheus, Daphne, Horus, Linus, Muſæus, Palamedes, Zoroaſter, &c. but of the greater part of theſe there is not the leaſt fragment remaining; and of others, the pieces which go under their names are generally held, by the learned, to be ſuppoſititious. But ſince the eſtabliſhment of the Aſiatic Society, at Calcutta, a great variety of Books, in many of the languages of Aſia, have been diſcovered by the induſtry of our countrymen, and the attention of the Brahmins, on various ſubjects; particularly aſtronomy, hiſtory and geography; but whether theſe are of ſufficient antiquity to take the lead of the Moſaic writings, is a matter which remains yet undecided though they poſſeſs hiſtorical evidence in their favour, to a large extent, yet the vaſt antiquity to which they lay claim themſelves, renders even their hiſtorical evidence ſuſpicious. See a variety of papers in the "Aſiatic Reſearches."

(4.) BOOKS, ANCIENT MATERIALS OF. Several ſorts of materials were uſed formerly in making books: Plates of lead and copper, the barks of trees, bricks, ſtone, and wood, were the firſt materials employed to engrave ſuch things upon, as men wiſhed to tranſmit to poſterity. Joſephus ſpeaks of two columns, the one of ſtone, the other of brick, on which the children of Seth wrote their inventions and aſtronomical diſcoveries: Porphyry mentions ſome pillars, preſerved in Crete, on which the ceremonies practiſed by the Corybantes in their ſacrifices were recorded. Heſiod's works were originally written upon tables of lead, and depoſited in the temple of the Muſes, in Bœotia: The ten commandments, delivered to Moſes were written upon ſtone; and Solon's laws upon wooden planks. Tables of wood, box, and ivory, were common among the ancients: When of wood, they were frequently covered with wax, that people might write upon them with more eaſe, or blot out what they had written. The leaves of the palm-tree were afterwards uſed inſtead of wooden planks, and the fineſt and thinneſt part of the bark of trees, particularly of the tilia, phillyrea, papyrus, the lime, the aſh, the mapple, and the elm. Hence the word *liber*, which ſignifies the inner bark of trees: and as theſe barks were rolled up, in order to be removed with greater eaſe, theſe rolls were called *volumina*, volumes; a name afterwards given to rolls of paper and parchment. Linen, ſilk, and horn, have alſo been uſed for writing, and laſtly paper itſelf. Barks appear ſtill in ſome meaſure retained for books in certain northern countries, as among the Calmuc Tartars where a library was diſcovered by the Ruſſians. The books were exceedingly long, but of no breadth: the leaves very thick, and made of barks of trees, ſmeared over with double varniſh; the ink, or writing, being white on a black ground.

(5.) BOOKS, APOCRYPHAL. See APOCRYPHA, § 2. and BIBLE, § VII.

(6.) BOOKS, ART OF WHITENING. The following proceſs for whitening prints, printed books, and paper, has been deſcribed by M. Chaptal. Simple immerſion in oxygenated muriatic acid, for a longer or ſhorter ſpace of time, according to the ſtrength of the liquid, will ſuffice to whiten an engraving; but in whitening the paper of a bound book, it is neceſſary that all the leaves ſhould be moiſtened by the acid, and therefore the book muſt be well opened, the leaves ſeparated, and the boards made to reſt on the edge of the veſſel which contains the liquor, which, in proceſs of time, aſſumes a yellow tint, whilſt the paper becomes proportionably white. At the end 2 or 3 hours the book may be taken from the acid liquor and plunged into pure water, which ought to be renewed every hour, to extract the remaining acid and to diſſipate the diſagreeable ſmell. In order to render this proceſs more effectual, the bookbinders take off the binding, unſew the book, and ſeparate the leaves; they then place it in a leaden tub, with very thin ſlips of wood or glaſs, ſo that the leaves may lie flat and ſeparate from each other, at very ſmall intervals: the acid is then gently poured into the tub, without deranging the leaves. When the paper has become ſufficiently white, the acid liquor is drawn off by a cork at the bottom of the tub, and its place ſupplied by clear freſh water. The leaves are then dried, and after being preſſed, are rebound. But they may with greater advantage be placed vertically. Chaptal conſtructed a wooden frame adjuſted to the height and ſize of the leaves to be whitened; this he ſupported by thin ſlips of wood, half a line diſtant from each other; in theſe intervals he placed two leaves: when they were whitened he plunged them into cold water as before. This proceſs gives to paper of any kind a whiteneſs ſuperior to what it at firſt poſſeſſed. This acid alſo deſtroys ink-ſpots, but has no action upon oil or animal greaſe; but a weak ſolution of potaſh will effect that purpoſe. To oxygenate the muriatic acid, it is only neceſſary to dilute it and mix it in a very ſtrong glaſs veſſel with manganeſe, in ſuch a manner that the mixture may not fill the veſſel: air bubbles are formed on the ſurface of

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the liquor, and the empty ſpace filled with a greeniſh vapour: at the end of ſome hours the acid may be ſtill further diluted and then uſed.

(7.) BOOKS, BURNING OF, was a puniſhment much uſed among the Romans, by legal ſentence. Sometimes the care of the execution was committed to *triumviri* appointed on purpoſe; ſometimes to the prætors, and ſometimes to the ædiles. Labienus is ſaid to have been the firſt who underwent the ſeverity of it. See LABIENUS. Various other ancient teſtimonies concerning the burning of books are given in *Reimm. Idea Syſt. Antiq. Liter. p.* 389.

(8.) BOOKS, EVERLASTING. We find in Signior Caſtagnatta's account of ASBESTOS, a ſcheme for making books, which from the imperiſhable nature of their materials, he is for calling the *books of eternity*. The leaves he propoſes to be of the aſbeſtos paper; the covers of a thicker ſort of work of the ſame matter, and the whole ſewed together with thread ſpun from the ſame ſubſtance. The things to be commemorated in them were to be written in letters of gold; ſo that the whole matter being incombuſtible and everlaſtingly permanent againſt the force of all the elements, and ſubject to no changes from fire, water, or air, muſt remain for ever, and always preſerve the writings committed to them. He carried his project ſo far as to make paper from the aſbeſtos, quite ſoft and tractable, and capable of being thickened or thinned at pleaſure, yet in either ſtate equally reſiſting the fire.

(9.) BOOKS, FORMS OF. The firſt books were in the form of blocks and tables; (§ 4.) but as flexible matter came to be wrote on, it was found more convenient to make them in the form of rolls: Theſe were compoſed of ſeveral ſheets faſtened to each other, and rolled upon a ſtick, or *umbilicus*; the whole making a kind of column, or cylinder, which was to be managed by the umbilicus as a handle, it being reputed a crime to take hold of the roll itſelf: The outſide of the volume was called *frons*; the ends of the umbilicus, *cornua*, which were uſually carved, and adorned with ſilver, ivory, or even gold and precious ſtones: The title, σιλλαβος, was ſtuck on the outſide; the whole volume, when extended, might make a yard and a half wide, and 50 long. This form was long in uſe among the ancient Jews, Greeks, Indians, Perſians, and Romans. The form which now prevails is the ſquare, compoſed of ſeparate leaves; which was alſo known, though little uſed, by the ancients; having been invented by Attalus king of Pergamus, who alſo invented parchment. This form has now prevailed for ſo many ages, that few MSS. in the roll form are extant. Montfaucon only met with two among all the ancient Greek MSS. he had ſeen.

(10.) BOOKS, INTERNAL STRUCTURE OF. The order and arrangement of letters into lines and pages, with points, margins, and other appurtenants, have undergone many variations. At firſt the letters were only divided into lines; then into ſeparate words; which by degrees were noted with accents, and diſtributed, by points and ſtops, into periods, paragraphs, chapters, &c. In ſome countries, as among the orientals, the lines began from the right and ran leſtward; in others, as the northern and weſtern nations, from left to right; others, as the Greeks, followed both directions, alternately going in the one, and returning in the other, called BOUSTROPHEDON: In moſt countries, the lines run from one ſide to the other; in ſome, particularly the Chineſe, from top to bottom.

(11.) BOOKS, MULTITUDE OF, has been long complained of: the complaint is as old as Solomon, who lived 3000 years ago: they are grown too numerous not only to procure and read, but to ſee, to learn the names, of, or even to number. As knowledge, however, is naturally advantageous, and as every man ought to be in the way of information, even a ſuperfluity of books is not without its uſe, ſince hereby they are brought to obtrude themſelves on us, and engage us when we have leaſt deſign. This advantage, an ancient farther obſerves, we owe to the multiplicity of books on the ſame ſubject, that one falls in the way of one man, and another beſt ſuits the level or the apprehenſion of another. "Every thing that is written (ſays he) does not come into the hands of all perſons: perhaps ſome may meet with my books, who may hear nothing of others, which have treated better of the ſame ſubject. It is of ſervice, therefore that the ſame queſtions be handled by ſeveral perſons, and after different methods, though all on the ſame principles, that the explications of difficulties and arguments for the truth, may come to the knowledge of every one by one way or other." The multitude of books, before the invention of printing was the only ſecurity againſt the total loſs of them: it is this that has preſerved them againſt the injuries of time, the rage of tyrants, the zeal of perſecutors, and the ravages of barbarians; and handed them down through long intervals of darkneſs and ignorance, ſafe to our days. *Solaque non norunt hæc monumenta mori*; Books are the only immortal monuments.

(12.) BOOKS, SCARCITY OF. Of the ſcarcity and value of books during the 7th and many ſubſequent centuries, the following curious account is given by Mr Warton in his hiſtory of Engliſh Poetry, vol. i. "Towards the cloſe of the 7th century, (ſays he,) even in the papal library at Rome, the number of books was ſo inconſiderable, that pope St Martin requeſted Sanctamand biſhop of Maeſtricht, if poſſible, to ſupply this defect from the remoteſt parts of Germany. In 855, Lupus, abbot of Ferriers in France, ſent two of his monks to Pope Bendict III. to beg a copy of *Cicero de Oratore*, and Quintilian's Inſtitutes, and ſome other books: 'for (ſays the abbot,) although we have part of theſe books, yet there is no whole or complete copy of them in all France.' Albert, abbot of Gemblours, who with incredible labour and immenſe expence had collected 100 volumes on theological; and 50 on profane, ſubjects, imagined he had formed a ſplendid library. About A. D. 790, Charlemagne granted an unlimited right of hunting to the abbot and monks of Sithin, for making covers for their books of the ſkins of the deer they killed. Theſe religious were probably more fond of hunting than reading; and, under theſe circumſtances, did not manufacture many volumes. At the beginning of the 10th century books were ſo ſcarce in Spain, that

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that one copy of the bible, St Jerom's epiſtles, and ſome volumes of eccleſiaſtical offices and martyrologies, often ſerved ſeveral different monaſteries. In an inventory of the goods of John de Pontiſſara, biſhop of Wincheſter, in his palace of Wulveſey, all the books are only *Septemdecim peeiem librorum de diverſis ſcientiis*. This was in 1294. The ſame prelate, in 1299, borrows of his cathedrel convent of St Swithin at Wincheſter, *Bibliam bene gloſſatam*; i. e. the Bible with marginal Annotations, in 2 large folio volumes; but gives a bond for due return of the loan, drawn up with great ſolemnity. This Bible had been bequeathed to the convent by Pontiſſara's predeceſſor, biſhop Nicholas de Ely: and in conſideration of ſo important a bequeſt, *pro bona Biblia dicti epiſcopi bene gloſſata*, and 100 marks in money, the monks founded a daily maſs for the ſoul of the donor. When a ſingle book was bequeathed to a friend, it was ſeldom without many reſtrictions. If any perſon gave a book to a religious houſe, he believed that ſo valuable a donation merited eternal ſalvation: and he offered it on the altar with great ceremony. The moſt formidable anathemas were peremptorily denounced, againſt thoſe who ſhould dare to alienate a book preſented to the cloiſter or library of a religious houſe. The prior and convent of Rocheſter declare, that they will every year pronounce the irrevocable ſentence of *damnation* on him who ſhall purloin or conceal a Latin tranſlation of Ariſtotle's Phyſics, or even obliterate the title. Sometimes a book was given to a monaſtery on condition that the donor ſhould have the uſe of it during his life; and ſometimes to a private perſon, on the terms that he who received it ſhould pray for the ſoul of his benefactor. When a book was bought, the affair was of ſo much importance, that it was cuſtomary to aſſemble perſons of conſequence and character, and to make a formal record that they were preſent. Among the royal MSS. in the book of the Sentences of Peter Lombard, an archdeacon of Lincoln has left this entry. 'This book of the Sentences belongs to maſter Robert archdeacon of Lincoln, which he bought of Geoffrey the chaplain, brother, of Henry vicar of Northelkington, in the preſence of maſter Robert de Lee, maſter John of Lirling, Richard of Luda clerk, Richard the almoner, the ſaid Henry the vicar, and his clerk, and others; and the ſaid archdeacon gave the ſaid book to God and Saint Oſwald, and to Peter abbot of Barton, and the convent of Barden.' The diſputed property of a book often occaſioned the moſt violent altercations. Many claims appear to have been made to a MS. of Matthew Paris, belonging to the laſt mentioned library; in which John Ruſſel, biſhop of Lincoln, conditionally defends or explains his right of poſſeſſion; and concludes thus; A. D. 1488, "Whoever ſhall obliterate or deſtroy this writing, let him be anathema." About 1225, Roger de Inſula, dean of York, gave ſeveral Latin bibles to the univerſity of Oxford, on the condition, that the ſtudents who peruſed them ſhould depoſite a cautionary pledge. The library of that univerſity, before, A. D. 1300, conſiſted only of a few tracts, chained or kept in cheſts in the choir of St Mary's church. In 1327, the ſcholars and citizens of Oxford pillaged the opulent Bendictine abbey of the neighbouring town of Abingdon. Among the books they found there, were 100 pſalters, as many grayles, 40 miſſals, which undoubtedly belonged to the choir of the church, and 22 codices, on common ſubjects. And although the invention of paper, at the cloſe of the 11th century, contributed to multiply MSS. and conſequently to facilitate knowledge, yet, even ſo late as the reign of Henry VI. the following remarkable inſtance occurred of the inconveniences and impediments to ſtudy, which muſt have been produced by a ſcarcity of books. It is in the ſtatutes of St Mary's college at Oxford, founded as a ſeminary to Oſeney abbey in 1446: 'Let no ſcholar occupy a book in the library above one hour, or two hours at moſt; ſo that others ſhall not be hindered from the uſe of the ſame.' The famous library eſtabliſhed in the univerſity of Oxford by that munificent patron of literature, Humphrey duke of Glouceſter, contained only 600 vols. About the commencement of the 14th century, there were only 4 claſſics in the royal library at Paris. Theſe were one copy of Cicero, Ovid, Lucan, and Boethius. The reſt were chiefly books of devotion, which included but few of the fathers: many treatiſes of aſtrology, geomancy, chiromancy, and medicine, originally written in Arabic, and tranſlated into Latin or French: pandects, chronicles, and romances. This collection was principally made by Charles V. who began his reign in 1365. This monarch was paſſionately fond of reading: and it was the faſhion to ſend him preſents of books from every part of the kingdom of France. Theſe he ordered to be elegantly tranſcribed and richly illuminated; and he placed them in a tower of the Louvre, from thence called *La Toure de la Libraire*. The whole conſiſted of 900 volumes. They were depoſited in 3 chambers, wainſcotted with Iriſh oak, and cieled with cypreſs curiouſly carved. The windows were of painted glaſs, fenced with iron bars and copper wire. The Engliſh became maſters of Paris in the year 1425; on which event the Duke of Bedford, regent of France, ſent the whole library, then conſiſting of only 853 volumes, and valued at 2223 livres, into England; where perhaps they became the ground-work of Duke Humphrey's library. Even ſo late as the year 1471, when Louis XI. of France borrowed the works of the Arabian phyſician, Rhaſis, from the faculty of medicine at Paris, he not only depoſited by way of pledge a quantity of valuable plate, but was obliged to procure a nobleman to join with him as a ſurety in a deed, by which he bound himſelf to return it, under a conſiderable forfeiture. The exceſſive prices of books in the middle ages afford numerous and curious proofs. In 1174, Walter, prior, of St Swithin's at Wincheſter, a writer in Latin of the lives of the biſhops who were his patrons, purchaſed of the monks of Dorcheſter in Oxfordſhire, Bede's Homilies and St Auſtin's Pſalter, for 12 meaſures of barley, and a pall, on which was embroidered in ſilver the hiſtory of St Birinus converting a Saxon king. Among the royal MSS. in the Britiſh muſeum there is Comeſtor's Scholaſtic Hiſtory in French; which, as it is recorded in a blank page at the beginning,

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was taken from the king of France at the battle of Poictiers; and being purchaſed by William Montague Earl of Saliſbury for 100 marcs, was ordered to be ſold by the laſt will of his counteſs Elizabeth for 40 livres. About A. D. 1400, a copy of John of Meun's *Roman de la Roze* was ſold before the palace gate at Paris for 40 crs. or 33l. 6s. 6d."

(12.) BOOKS, SYBILLINE, in Roman antiquity, were books ſaid to have been compoſed by thoſe pretended propheteſſes, the Sybils, and carefully depoſited in the Capitol, to be conſulted in all extraordinary emergencies. See SYBILS.

* *To* BOOK. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To regiſter in a book.—I beſeech your grace, let it be *booked* with the reſt of this day's deeds; or I will have it in a particular ballad elſe, with mine own picture on the top of it. *Shakeſpeare.*—He made wilful murder high treaſon: he cauſed the marchers to *book* their men, for whom they ſhould make anſwer. *Davies on Ireland.*

* BOOKBINDER. *n. ſ.* [from *book* and *bind.*] A man whoſe profeſſion it is to cover books.

BOOK-BINDING, the art of gathering together and ſewing the ſheets of a book, and covering it with a back, &c. It is performed thus: The leaves are firſt folded with a folding-ſtick, and laid over each other in the order of the ſignature; then beaten on a ſtone with a hammer, to make them ſmooth and open well; and afterwards preſſed. They are ſewed upon bands, which are pieces of cord or packthread; fix bands to a folio book; five to a 4to, 8vo, &c. which is done by drawing a thread through the middle of each ſheet, and giving it a turn round each band, beginning with the firſt and proceeding to the laſt. After this the books are glued, and the bands opened and ſcraped, for the better fixing the paſteboards; the back is turned with a hammer, and the book fixed in a preſs between two boards, in order to make a groove for fixing the paſteboards; theſe being applied to the ſides of the book, holes are made for faſtening them to it, when it is preſſed a third time. Then the book is at laſt put to the cutting preſs, betwixt two boards; the one lying even with the preſs, for the knife to run upon; the other above it, for the knife to run againſt: after which the paſteboards are ſquared. The next operation is the ſprinkling the leaves of the book; which is done by dipping a bruſh into vermillion or ſap-green, holding the bruſh in one hand, and ſpreading the hair with the other; by which motion the edges of the leaves are ſprinkled in a regular manner, without any ſpots being bigger than the others. There remain the covers, which are either of calf-ſkin or of ſheep ſkin: theſe being moiſtened in water, are cut out to the ſize of the book; then ſmeared over with paſte made of wheat-flour; and afterwards ſtretched over the paſteboard on the outſide, and doubled over the edges within-ſide; after having firſt taken off the four angles, and indented and platted the cover at the head-band: which done, the book is covered, and bound firmly between two boards, and then ſet to dry. Afterwards it is waſhed over with a little paſte and water, and then ſprinkled with a fine bruſh, unleſs it ſhould be marbled; when the ſpots are to be made larger by mixing the ink with vitriol. After this the book is glazed twice with the white of an egg beaten, and at laſt poliſhed with a poliſhing iron paſſed hot over the glazed cover.

BOOKER, John, an Engliſh aſtrologer, who is ſaid by Lilly "to have had a curious fancy in judging of thefts, and as being ſucceſsful in reſolving love queſtions." Another adept, George Wharton, publiſhed a book againſt him, entitled, Mercuriocœlico Maſtix; or an Anticaveat to all ſuch as have had the Misfortune to be cheated and deluded by that great and treacherous Impoſtor, John Booker, 1664. He wrote ſome pieces in aſtrology, and was made licenſer of mathematical books. He died in 1667.

* BOOKFUL. *adj.* [from *book* and *full.*] Full of notions gleaned from books; crouded with undigeſted knowledge.—

The *bookful* blockhead, ignorantly read,
With loads of learned lumber in his head,
With his own tongue ſtill edifies his ears,
And always liſt'ning to himſelf appears. *Pope.*

* BOOKISH. *adj.* [from *book.*] Given to books, acquainted only with books. It is generally uſed contemptuouſly.—

I'll make him yield the crown,
Whoſe *bookiſh* rule hath pull'd fair England down. *Shakeſpeare.*

—I'm not *bookiſh*, yet I can read waiting-gentlewoman in the 'ſcape. *Shakeſpeare's Winter's Tale.*—Xantippe follows her nameſake; being married to a *bookiſh* man, who has no knowledge of the world. *Spectator.*

* BOOKISHNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *bookiſh.*] Much application to books; over-ſtudiouſneſs.

BOOK-KEEPER, *n. ſ.* one who keeps the accounts of another. *Aſh.*

BOOK-KEEPING.

INTRODUCTION.

DEFINITION, *and* GENERAL OBSERVATIONS.

(1.) * BOOK-KEEPING. *n. ſ.* [from *book* and *keep.*] The art of keeping accounts, or recording pecuniary tranſactions, in ſuch a manner, that at any time a man may thereby know the true ſtate of the whole, or any part, of his affairs, with clearneſs and expedition. *Harris.*

(2.) A merchant's books ſhould contain every particular which relates to his affairs. They ſhould exhibit the ſtate of his buſineſs, the connection of the different parts, the amount and ſucceſs of the whole. They ſhould be ſo arranged, as to afford ready information in every point for which they may be conſulted.

(3.) The matter they ſhould contain is comprehended under the following heads: I. The debts owing to the owner, and the debts he owes to others. II. The articles of property which belonged to him; the quantity and value ſold, or otherwiſe diſpoſed of; and the quantity and value

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lue which ſtill remain in his poſſeſſion. III. The amount of his ſtock when the books were opened; the profits he has obtained, and the loſſes he has ſuffered, ſince; and the amount of his ſtock at preſent.

(4.) That method of book-keeping which anſwers theſe purpoſes moſt clearly and conciſely, is the beſt. The ITALIAN METHOD, by DOUBLE ENTRY, is generally preferred; at leaſt, it is founded upon the moſt univerſal principles, and is the moſt convenient in extenſive and complicated buſineſs: and the accountant who underſtands it, will find little difficulty in following, or even in inventing other methods that are better accommodated to any particular purpoſe.

(5.) But as the method by SINGLE ENTRY, has alſo its advantages, being more convenient for tradeſmen, and all others who do not carry on buſineſs very extenſively, we ſhall ſubjoin directions reſpecting that method; and conclude with an account of the SUBSIDIARY BOOKS, moſt of which are equally neceſſary in both methods.

PART I.

OF THE ITALIAN METHOD BY DOUBLE ENTRY.

(6.) The Italian method requires three principal books, *viz.* the Waſte Book, Journal and Leger.

SECT. I. *Of the* WASTE BOOK.

(7.) The waſte book, or day book, contains an exact regiſter of all occurrences in buſineſs in the ſame order as they take place. It begins with an inventory of every thing belonging to the owner, a liſt of the debts due to him, and of the debts he owes to others: It is carried on with a full relation of all the money he receives or pays; of all the goods he buys or ſells; and of every other occurrence in his buſineſs. Each article ſhould be entered as ſoon as the tranſaction takes place, and ſhould be clearly expreſſed in the plaineſt language. It ſhould require no ſupply from the accountant's memory, but ſhould be fully intelligible to any perſon, however unacquainted with the buſineſs: at the ſame time, it ſhould be written with all convenient brevity; and, therefore, ſometimes refers to invoices and other accounts, for particulars. The accountant's firſt care ſhould be to have nothing defective or ambiguous; his ſecond, to have nothing ſuperfluous.

(8.) The date is written in text on the top of each page. The articles are ſeparated from each other by a line; and the tranſactions of one day are ſeparated from thoſe of another by a double line, in the middle of which there is a blank ſpace for inſerting the day of the month. This book muſt be kept with the greater care and accuracy, as it contains the materials from which the other books are compoſed. Beſides, it is the book whoſe authority is truſted to, and which muſt be exhibited to judges, or arbiters, when an account is diſputed. As the journal is filled up from the waſte-book, the authority of the latter is eſteemed more authentic, unleſs there be an obvious miſtake through hurry; and either of theſe books is depended on rather than the leger, which, from its form, is more liable to error, and may be more eaſily vitiated by a fraudulent deſign.

(9.) As the waſte-book contains the whole ſubſtance of the buſineſs, it may be applied ſo as to afford any information that can be wanted: but the labour of conſulting it would be very great, and much expoſed to the riſk of omiſſions. To prevent this inconvenience, the leger is uſed, in which the articles are arranged in a methodical order. We ſhall conſider it next; becauſe the journal, though it comes before it in the order of writing, cannot be well underſtood, till the nature of the leger be explained.

SECT. II. *Of the* LEGER.

(10.) In the leger, articles of the ſame kind are collected together; and, for that purpoſe, it is divided into many accounts, under which the different branches of buſineſs are arranged. Each account is introduced by a proper title, to explain the nature of the articles it contains; and articles of oppoſite kinds, which belong to the ſame account, are placed on the oppoſite pages of the ſame folio: for inſtance, money received on the one ſide, and money paid on the other; or goods bought on the one ſide, and goods ſold on the other. The left hand page is called the *Debtor* ſide of the account, and the right hand page the *Creditor* ſide. The difference between the ſums of the Dr. and Cr. ſide is called the *Balance*.

(11.) Accounts in the leger are of three kinds, which anſwer to the three purpoſes of book-keeping mentioned § 3.

(12.) I. PERSONAL Accounts. It is neceſſary to open an account for every perſon or company with whom there are any dealings on credit. At opening the books, if they be indebted to the owner, the debt is entered on the Dr.; but, if he be indebted to them, it is entered on the Cr. During the courſe of the buſineſs, goods ſold on truſt, money paid, and every thing for which they are accountable to him, is entered on the Dr.; but goods bought on truſt, money received, and every thing for which he is accountable to them, is entered on the Cr. The balance ſhows how much they owe him, when the Dr. ſide is greateſt; and how much he owes them, when the Cr. ſide is greater.

(13.) II. REAL Accounts. By this we underſtand accounts of property of whatever kind, ſuch as ready money, goods, houſes, lands, ſhips, ſhares in public companies, and the like.

(14.) The account of ready money is intitled *Caſh*. On the Dr. ſide, the money on hand at opening the books is entered, and afterwards every article of money received. On the Cr. ſide, there is entered every article of money paid out; and the balance ſhows how much ought to be on hand. The ſum of the Dr. ſide of this account is always greater than that of the Cr. ſide.

(15.) Accounts of goods are generally ruled with inner columns for entering the quantities. When the books are opened, the goods on hand are entered on the Dr. ſide of the reſpective accounts; the quantities being placed in the inner, and the values in the outer column. Goods bought are entered in the ſame manner, and goods ſold

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ſold are entered on the Cr. ſide; the quantities and values being placed in the proper columns. Charges laid out on goods are entered on the Dr. ſide; and, when an incidental advantage ariſes from them, ſuch as the public bounty, it is entered on the Cr. If the ſums of the inner columns on the oppoſite ſides be equal, it ſhows that the goods are all ſold, and then the balance of the money column ſhows the gain or loſs. If the Cr. ſide be greater, it is gain; if the Dr. ſide be greater, it is loſs. If the ſum of the inner column be greater on the Dr. ſide, it ſhows that part of the goods are on hand; and their value muſt be added to the ſum of the Cr. ſide, in order to determine the gain or loſs.

(16.) If there be two or more kinds of the ſame ſort of goods, they may be entered in the ſame account, allowing as many inner columns as there are kinds, and entering the quantities of each kind in the inner column reſerved for it. This method exhibits the gain or loſs on the whole goods; but does not ſhow how much of it ariſes from each kind. Or, a ſeparate account may be opened for each kind, diſtinguiſhing the titles by the qualities, or by ſome other mark. Thus, one account may be kept for fine linen, another for coarſe linen; &c.; and thus the gain or loſs on each kind, will be ſeen.

(17.) When there are more kinds than can be conveniently introduced in the ſame account, they may be divided into ſeveral claſſes, each claſs being placed in a ſeparate account; and the particular kinds diſtinguiſhed in inner columns. Thus the account of fine linen may be divided into ſeveral columns, for different kinds diſtinguiſhed by the number of threads in the breadth, or by any other convenient character.

(18.) Accounts of ſhips contain in the Dr. the value of the ſhip when the books are opened, and all expences laid out thereon; on the Cr. all freights received. In like manner, accounts of houſes or lands have the value of the ſubject, and all repairs, or other charges, entered on the Dr. and all rents or other profits received on the Cr. If the ſubject be ſold in whole or in part, the ſale is entered on the Cr. And the balance, after valuing the ſubject (if any) on hand, ſhows the gain or loſs.

(19.) Accounts of property in the public funds, or ſhares in companies, public or private, contain the value, or money paid in, on the Dr. and the dividends received on the Cr. and are ballanced as other real accounts. Some perſons open accounts for houſehold furniture, plate, jewels, books, or the like. The entries on theſe accounts are made in the ſame manner. In general, real accounts contain the value of the property, and all charges, on the Dr. and the ſales and other returns on the Cr. When the account is to be balanced, if any property remains, the value thereof is placed on the Cr.; and then the balance ſhows the loſs or gain, according as the Dr. or Cr. ſide is greateſt.

(20.) III. Accounts of STOCK, PROFIT and LOSS, and their ſubſidiary accounts, which are ſometimes called *fictitious accounts*.

(21.) The STOCK account contains on the Dr. the amount of the debts which the owner owes when the books are opened; and on the Cr. the amount of ready money, goods, debts, and property of every kind belonging to him: therefore the balance ſhows what his nett ſtock is; or, in caſe of bankruptcy, how much his debts exceed his effects. There is nothing further entered on this account till the books are balanced: and then, if the buſineſs has yielded profit, the nett gain is entered on the Cr.; if it has been unſucceſsful, the nett loſs is entered on the Dr.: after which the balance ſhows the nett ſtock at the time the books are cloſed.

(22.) The PROFIT *and* LOSS account contains every article of gain on the Cr. and every article of loſs on the Dr. The balance ſhows the nett gain or loſs, and is transferred to the proper ſide of the ſtock account, as mentioned above. This account is partly compoſed of articles that occur while the books are running. For example, legacies received are entered on the Cr. goods deſtroyed on the Dr. The reſt of the articles are thoſe of gain and loſs, ariſing from the real accounts, which are collected, when the books are balanced.

(23.) It has been found convenient to open ſeveral SUBSIDIARY ACCOUNTS, in order to ſhorten and methodiſe that of profit and loſs. Theſe contain certain articles of gain or loſs, which may be reduced under diſtinct heads. They are in effect ſo many parts of the profit and loſs account, and their balances are entered on the proper ſide of that account when the books are cloſed. Thus,

(24.) The *Intereſt account* contains on the Dr. ſums paid or incurred for intereſt; and on the Cr. ſums received, or become due for it.

(25.) *Commiſſion account* contains on the Cr. articles of gain received or owing for trouble in tranſacting buſineſs for others. There are ſeldom any entries on the Dr.

(26.) *Charges of merchandize* contains on the Dr. all charges paid or incurred on the buſineſs, which do not belong to any particular account, as ſhop-rent, public burdens for trade, clerks wages, poſtages, and the like. If any of theſe ſhould afterwards be charged to ſome other account, the ſum ſo charged is entered on the Cr.

(27.) *Account of proper expences* contains on the Dr. money or any thing elſe, withdrawn from the trade for our private uſe. There are ſeldom any entries on the Cr. The amounts of this account, as well as the former, is not properly loſs; but as it has the ſame effect in diminiſhing the ſtock, it is placed in the ſame manner to the Dr. of profit and loſs.

(28.) *Loſs by bad debts* contains on the Dr. ſuch debts as we reckon deſperate; and on the Cr. any of theſe which may happen to be unexpectedly recovered.

(29.) *Account of abatements* contains on the Dr. diſcounts allowed by us on payments received; on the Cr. diſcounts allowed to us on payments made. It is particularly uſeful in retail buſineſs, where diſcounts are often given, to ſhow how much they amount to.

(30.) *Inſurance account* contains on the Cr. premiums received for making inſurances; and, on the Dr. loſſes ſuſtained on the ſame; there may be

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be ſeveral accounts of this kind. Inſurances againſt ſea-hazard and fire are the moſt common. The balance ſhews the gain or loſs which ariſes from being concerned in inſurance.

(31.) Every ſimple tranſaction in buſineſs belongs to two accounts, and muſt be entered on the Dr. of the one and on the Cr. of the other. Hence the diſtinguiſhing title of this method, *by double entry*. Thus, when a perſon becomes indebted to us, the article he owes muſt be entered on the Dr. of his account; and, if it be for money paid him it is alſo entered on the Cr. of caſh; if for goods ſold, it is entered on the Cr. of the account of goods; if for any thing delivered him by another perſon at our deſire, it is entered on the Cr. of the deliverer's account; if for any wager or bargain, by which we are gainers, it is entered on the Cr. of profit and loſs. Thus, in whatever way the debt ariſes, it is entered on the Cr. of ſome other account, as well as on the Dr. of the perſon's account who owes it.

(32.) In like manner, when we become indebted to any perſon, the article we owe muſt be entered on the Cr. of his account. If it be for money received, it is alſo entered on the Dr. of caſh; if for goods bought, it is entered on the Dr. of the account of goods; if for any thing delivered to another perſon at our deſire, it is entered on the Dr. of the receiver's account; and if it be in conſequence of a loſing bargain, it is entered on the Dr. of profit and loſs.

(33.) When goods are received, the tranſaction is entered on the Dr. of the account of goods. If they are bought for ready money, it is alſo entered on the Cr. of caſh; if on truſt, it is entered on the Cr. of the ſeller; if they be exchanged for other goods, it is entered on the Cr. of the goods delivered; if they be obtained by ſome profitable buſineſs, without any return, it is entered on the Cr. of profit and loſs.

(34.) When goods are delivered, the tranſaction is entered on the Cr. of the account of goods; and, if they be ſold for ready money, it is alſo entered on the Dr. of caſh; if on credit, it is entered on the Dr. of the purchaſer; if exchanged for other goods, it is entered on the Dr. of the goods received; and, if they be given gratis, or deſtroyed, it is entered on the Dr. of profit and loſs.

(35.) When any loſs occurs, the tranſaction is entered on the Dr. of profit and loſs; and as we muſt either pay it in money or goods, or remain indebted to ſome perſon for it, it muſt be entered on the Cr. of caſh, or of goods delivered, or of the perſon intitled to receive it. And, when an article of gain occurs, it is entered on the Cr. of profit and loſs, and alſo on the Dr. of caſh or goods, if money or goods be received; and on the Dr. of the perſon accountable for it, if not immediately paid.

(36.) Thus, every article in any account, whether perſonal or real, or belonging to profit and loſs, correſponds to ſome other article on the oppoſite of a different account. The ſame ſum is entered on the Dr. of one account and on the Cr. of the other; and it follows from this, that, *If all the accounts in the leger be added, the amount of the ſums of the Dr. will be equal to thoſe of the Cr.*

SECT. III. *Of the* JOURNAL.

(37.) The journal is a fair record of all the tranſactions compiled from the waſte-book, in the ſame order as they ſtand there; but expreſſed in a technical ſtyle, that it may be tranſferred to the leger with more eaſe.

(38.) When we are to enter any article in the journal, we muſt conſider which account in the leger it will require to be placed to, both on the Dr. and Cr. and write *the former account Dr. to the latter account*; then we annex an explanation of the article, and place the ſum in the money column.

(39.) EXAMPLE.—Waſte-book.) Sold for ready money, 30 yards linen, at 3 s. L.4 10 —

Journal.) *Caſh Dr. to Linen.* Sold 30 yards, at 3s. L.4 10 —

Here we conſider, that the article muſt be entered on the Dr. of caſh, becauſe money is received; and on the Cr. of linen, becauſe linen is delivered: Therefore we write *Caſh Dr. to Linen*, to which we annex the nature of the tranſaction. The article thus entered is called a *journal poſt*; *Caſh* is called the *Dr.*; *Linen*, the *Cr.*; the words "Caſh Dr. to Linen," the *Entry*, and the words that follow, the *Narration*.

(40.) The purpoſe of expreſſing the article in this form, is to point out the accounts in the leger, to which it will require to be poſted, and thereby enable the accountant to write the leger with more eaſe than he could do, if it were filled up immediately from the waſte-book. The learner will be able, from this example, to enter any ſimple article in the journal, providing he knows the accounts to which it ſhould be poſted on the Dr. and Cr. of the leger. This muſt be collected from the deſcription of the leger accounts already given, § 12—30, and the nature and tendency of the article.

(41.) GENERAL RULES *for* JOURNAL ENTRIES:

I. *Every thing received, or perſon accountable to us, is* Dr.

II. *Every thing delivered, or perſon to whom we are accountable, is* Cr.

(42.) As the whole art of writing the journal depends on a proper choice of the Drs. and Crs. we ſhall give ſome particular rules for the moſt common caſes, and a few examples for the illuſtration and practice of each.

(43.) Rule I. *The perſon to whom any thing is delivered, is* Dr. *to the thing delivered, when nothing is received in return.* Therefore when money is paid, the receiver is Dr. to caſh. When goods or other property is ſold on credit, the purchaſer is Dr. to the thing ſold. Thus,

Waſte-book.) Paid Alex. Don in full L.52 — —

Journal.) *Alex. Don Dr. to Caſh*, paid him in full 52 — —

Waſte-book.) Sold 30 yards cloth to John Taylor, at 12s 30 — —

Journal.) *J. Taylor Dr. to Cloth*, ſold him 30 yards, at 12s 30 — —

(44.) Rule II. *A thing received is* Dr. *to the perſon from whom it is received, when nothing is delivered in return.* Therefore, when money is received, Caſh is Dr. to the payer; when goods are bought, the goods are Dr. to the ſeller. Thus;

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Waſte-book.) Received from Peter Monipenny, in full L. 72 — —
Journal.) *Caſh Dr. to P. Monipenny*, received in full 72 — —
Waſte-book.) Bought from S. Shearer, 60 lb. wool, at 9 d. 2 5 —
Journal.) *Wool Dr. to S. Shearer*, bought 60 lb. at 9 d 2 5 —

(45.) Rule III. *A thing received is* Dr. *to the thing given for it.* Therefore goods bought for ready money are Dr. to Caſh. When goods are ſold for ready money, Caſh is Dr. to the goods. When goods are bartered, the goods received are Dr. to the goods delivered. Thus,

Waſte-Book.) Bought for ready money 10 hds. wine, at L. 15 L. 150 — —
Journal.) *Wine Dr. to Caſh*, bought 10 hds. at L. 15 150 — —
Waſte-book.) Sold for ready money 100 gallons rum, at 9 s 45 — —
Journal.) *Caſh Dr. to Rum*, ſold 100 gallons, at 9 s 45 — —
Waſte-book.) Bartered 3 hds. wine, at L. 15, for 100 gallons rum, at 9 s. 45 — —
Journal.) *Rum Dr. to Wine*, received 100 gallons at 9 s, in barter for 3 hds. at L. 15 45 — —

(56.) Rule IV. *Goods and other real accounts are* Dr. *for all charges laid out on them. If money be laid out, they are* Dr. *to Caſh; if any thing elſe be delivered, they are* Dr. *to the thing delivered; if the charge be taken in truſt, they are* Dr. *to the perſon to whom it is due.* Thus,

Waſte-book.) Paid for repairs to ſhip Commerce L. 18 — —
Journal.) *Ship Commerce Dr. to Caſh*, paid for repairs 18 — —
Waſte-book.) Delivered wood from my timber-yard, for repairing the George Inn 15 — —
Journal.) *George Inn Dr. to Wood*, delivered for repairing the ſame 15 — —
Waſte-book.) Due to Will. Wright, for repairs to the George Inn 12 — —
Journal.) *George Inn Dr. to William Wright*, due him for repairs 12 — —

(47.) Rule V. *When rents of houſes or lands, freight of ſhips, bounties on goods, or any other profits from real accounts are received, Caſh is* Dr. *to the account from which the profit ariſes: if any thing beſides money be received, the article received is* Dr.: *if they remain unpaid, the perſon who owes them is* Dr. Thus,

Waſte-book.) Received freight of the ſhip Commerce, for a voyage to London L. 35 — —
Journal.) *Caſh Dr. to ſhip Commerce*, received freight to London 35 — —
Waſte-book.) Received 100 barrels ſalmon, being the rent of Tay fiſhery, at 52 s 260 — —
Journal.) *Salmon Dr. to Tay fiſhery*, received the rent, being 100 barrels, at 52 s 260 — —
Waſte-book.) John Jolly owes me a year's rent of the George Inn 52 — —
Journal.) *John Jolly Dr. to George Inn* for a year's rent due by him 52 — —

(48.) Rule VI. *When an article of loſs occurs, Profit and Loſs, or ſome ſubſidiary account, is* Dr. *If the Loſs be paid in ready money, it is* Dr. *to Caſh; if it is paid in any thing elſe, it is* Dr. *to the thing delivered. If it remain unpaid, it is* Dr. *to the perſon to whom it is owing.* Thus,

Waſte-book.) Given my daughter Frederica at her marriage 500 — —
Journal.) *Profit and Loſs Dr. to Caſh*, given my daughter at her marriage 500 — —
Waſte-book.) Taken for family uſe from my granery 3 bolls meal, at 13 s 4 d 2 — —
Journal.) *Profit and Loſs* [or *Proper expences*] *Dr. to meal*, taken for family uſe, 3 bolls, at 13 s 4 d 2 — —
Waſte-book.) Due William Ritchie, for a year's intereſt on L. 1000, at 4 *per cent.* 40 — —
Journal.) *Profit and Loſs* [or *Intereſt account*] *Dr. to William Ritchie*, due him a year's intereſt on L. 1000, at 4 *per cent.* 40 — —

(49.) Rule VII. *When an article of gain occurs, that is not immediately connected with any real account, Caſh, the article received, or the perſon accountable for it, is* Dr. *to Profit and Loſs, or to ſome ſubſidiary account.* Thus,

Waſte-book.) Received in a gift from my father 100 — —
Journal.) *Caſh Dr. to Profit and Loſs*, received from my father 100 — —
Waſte-book.) Received in like manner at opening ſhop, 100 yards cloth, at 12 s 60 — —
Journal.) *Cloth Dr. to Profit and Loſs*, received from my father at opening ſhop 100 yards, at 12 s 60 — —
Waſte-book.) William Nielſon owes me a year's intereſt of L. 1000 50 — —
Journal.) *William Nielſon Dr. to Profit and Loſs* [or *Intereſt account*] due by him for a year's intereſt of L. 1000 50 — —

(50.) Rule VIII. *When one perſon pays money, or delivers any thing elſe to another on our account, the perſon who receives it is* Dr. *to the perſon who pays it.* Thus,

Waſte-book.) John Fairney has paid the bank of Scotland, on my account L. 100 — —
Journal.) *Bank of Scotland Dr. to John Fairney*, paid them by him 100 — —
Waſte-book.) Arthur M'Ewen has delivered John Baxter 100 quarters wheat, for which I am to account to him at 30 s 150 — —
Journal.) *John Baxter Dr. to Arthur M'Ewen*, for 100 quarters wheat delivered him on my account, at 30 s 150 — —

Payments of this kind are often tranſacted by bills of exchange.

(51.) Theſe examples will make the learner acquainted with the form of the journal, and the rules extend to the greateſt part of the ſimple tranſactions

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transactions that occur in domestic trade. The technical sense of the words *Dr.* and *Cr.* has a kind of analogy to their meaning in common language, but is not precisely the same. Thus, in *Ex.* 1. Rule VIII. the journal entry is, *Bank of Scotland Dr. to John Fairney;* by which we are not to understand that the bank is indebted to John Fairney; for a debt between them has no connection with our business, and therefore ought not to be entered in our books: the meaning of the entry is, that the bank becomes indebted to us by the transactions narrated; and that we become indebted to John Fairney by the same.

(52.) An article which contains more Drs. or more Crs. than one, is called a COMPLEX POST. The form of these will appear from the following examples.

Ex. 1.] Sold William Webster
25 pieces cloth, at L.15
per piece L. 375 — —
130 stones wool, at 5s 6d
per stone 35 15 —
L.410 15 —

(53.) If the two articles sold to William Webster were entered separately in the waste-book, and transferred to the journal by Rule I. they would stand thus:

William Webster Dr. to Cloth, sold him
25 pieces at L.15 L. 375 — —
William Webster Dr. to Wool, sold him
130 stones, at 5s 6d 35 15 —

And if these were posted to the leger, there would be two articles placed to the Dr. of William Webster, one to the Cr. of Cloth, and one to the Cr. of Wool. But the sales may be entered in the form of one complex journal post, as follows:

William Webster Dr. to Sundries.
To Cloth, for 25 pieces,
at L.15 L. 375 — —
To Wool, for 130 stones,
at 5s 6d 35 15 —
L.410 15 —

And then there is only one article on the Dr. of William Webster in the leger.

(54.) *Ex.* 2.] Sold W. Webster
10 pieces cloth at L.15 L. 150 — —
12 ditto to J. Mercer, at
do. 180 — —
L.330 — —
22

This example also falls under Rule I. But whereas there was one Dr. and two Crs. in the former example, there are two Drs. and one Cr. in this; William Webster and John Mercer, the purchasers, are Drs. for their respective quantities; and cloth, which is the only thing delivered, is Cr. for the whole quantity. The journal post is,

Sundries Dr. to Cloth,
W. Webster, for 10 pieces,
at L.15 L. 150 — —
J. Mercer, for 12 ditto at
L.15 180 — —
L.330 — —
22

(55.) *Ex.* 3.] Bt. from John Duncan,
50 qrs. wheat at 35s L.87 10 —
12 ditto from R. Brown at
36s 21 12 —
L.109 2 —
62

This example falls under Rule II. There is only one Dr. wheat being the only thing received; and two Crs. because it is received from different persons.

Wheat Dr. to Sundries.
To J. Duncan, for 50 qrs.
at 35s L.87 10 —
To R. Brown, for 12 qrs.
at 36s L.21 12 —
L.109 2 —
62

(56.) *Ex.* 4.] Sold Peter Coke
150 qrs. beans, at 13s 4d L.100 — —
75 do. to Octavius Mitchel, at 13s 4d 50 — —
18 do. for ready money, 13s 2d 11 17 —
243 L.161 17 —

Here beans are delivered, some to different purchasers on trust, and some for ready money. The purchasers are Drs. for the quantities sold to each by Rule I.; Cash is Cr. for the quantity sold for ready money, by Rule III.; and beans are Cr. for the whole.

Sundries Dr. to beans.
P. Coke for 150 qrs. at
13s 4d L 100 — —
O. Mitchel, for 75 13s 4d 50 — —
Cash, for 18 13s 2d 11 17 —
L 161 17 —

(57.) *Ex.* 5.] John Clark being bankrupt, I have accepted a composition on the debt due by him to me of L 150, and discharged the same.
The composition received, at 15s
per L. is L 112 10 —
And the balance lost 37 10 —
L 150 — —

Here the whole debt of L 150, due by John Clark is cancelled; and he must therefore be stated as Cr. for that sum. Cash is Dr. for the sum received, by Rule II; and Profit and Loss, or Loss by bad debts, for the rest, by Rule VI.

Sundries Dr. to John Clark.
Cash, for comp. on L 150, at
15s *per* L. L 112 10 —
Profit and Loss, for balance
lost 37 10 —
L 150 — —

(58.) The learner may be assisted in understanding these and other complex posts, by resolving them into simple ones. Most of them might have been stated in that manner; and the complex form is only preferred for abridging the leger In some articles the different clauses are so connected, that they cannot be separated with propriety.

(59.) In some articles, there are both more Drs. and more Crs. than one. These may be entered in one journal post, *Sundries Drs. to Sundries*, specifying first the Drs. and then the Crs. But,

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as this method is somewhat confused, we would recommend it as a better way to divide the transaction into two journal posts; so that the first may contain only one Dr. and the second only one Cr.

(60.) Ex. Bartered with
A. Farquharson 100
pieces Osnaburgs, at
12 s. L. 60 — —
100 lb. thread, at 3s 6d 17 10 —
——— L. 77 10 —
For 10 hds. lintseed, at 50s L. 25 — —
500 yds. linen, at 1s 6d 37 10 —
And received the balance in money 15 — —
——— L. 77 10 —

Sundries Dr. to A. Farquharson.
Lintseed, for 10 hds. at 50s L. 25 — —
Linen, for 500 yds at 1s 6d 37 10 —
Received in barter
Cash, received balance 15 — —
——— L. 77 10 —

A. Farquharson Dr. to Sundries.
To Osnaburgs, for 100
pieces, at 12s. L. 60 — —
To Thread, for 100 lb. at
3s 6d 17 10 —
Delivered in barter ——— L. 77 10 —

(61.) It is neither practicable nor necessary to enumerate all kinds of complex posts that may occur in business. We shall here only mention the entries which occur at opening the books. The first journal post contains the substance of the inventory. The entry is *Sundries Drs. to Stock*: the particular Drs. are Cash, the different kinds of goods and other property belonging to us, and the persons indebted to us. The second journal post contains the debts due by us. The entry is, *Stock, Dr. to Sundries*; the particular Crs. are the persons to whom we are indebted. The forms of these entries is more fully exhibited at the beginning of the following set.

(62.) The journal should be written by one person, in a fair hand and at leisure hours. The articles are separated, and the titles and dates marked in the same manner as in the waste-book, § 7—9. The entries are written in half text, for ornament and distinction. In the inventory, the designation (or the business, station, and place of residence) of every person is mentioned; and the same is done the first time that any name occurs in journal entry. At other times, it is sufficient to enter the name without the designation, unless we have dealings with two persons of the same name; in which case, it is always necessary to annex the designation, in order to distinguish them. The narration should be complete, without referring to the waste-book; and so clear, that every person, acquainted with the style of the journal, may understand it with ease. When the post is written, we mark a dash / against the article, on the margin of the waste-book, to show how far the writing of the journal is advanced.

Sect. IV. *Of* Posting *the* Leger.

(63.) The first thing to be done in the leger, is to allot a proper space for each account. The accounts may be either opened in the same order that they occur in the journal; or accounts of the same kind may be placed together; the personal on one part of the leger, and the real accounts in another. The accounts of Stock, and Profit and Loss, are generally placed at the beginning.

(64.) The number of the folio is marked in text at each corner of the top line; and the titles of the accounts are written in text through both folios, if necessary. The designations of the personal accounts may be written in half text, or Italian hand. Some write the titles in Saxon, or German Text, for ornament. The word *Dr.* is prefixed to the title on the left-hand page; and *Contra Cr.* annexed to it on the right-hand page.

(65.) An Index must be provided, for pointing out the folios where the accounts are opened. The titles of the accounts are entered alphabetically in the index, and the number of the folio annexed. Personal accounts are entered by the first letter of the firname; companies, by the first letter of the firname of the first partner; and all other accounts, by the first letter of the first word. The most convenient kind of index is a long narrow book, of 24 leaves. A is marked on the top of the first leaf, and the paper pared away below it; B on the 2d leaf, under A; and the other letters on the following leaves, in the same manner; by means of which we can turn at once to any letter required.

(66.) In posting the leger, First, look for the Dr. of the journal post in the index, under the proper letter, which directs to the folio of the leger where the account is, if it be already opened: if not, you must allot a space for it, write the title, and enter it in the index. Then enter the article on the left hand page of the account under the title of the former article, by writing the date on the margin, and the name of the creditor on the line, with the word *To* prefixed, and a short narration of the transaction annexed, and inserting the sum in the money column, and the quantity, if it be an account of goods, in the inner column. Then turn to the account of the Cr. of the journal-post, and enter the article in the right hand page, prefixing the word *By* to the name of the Dr.

(67.) This being done, turn to the journal, and mark on the margin the number of the folios to which the article is posted. The figures which point out the reference to the Dr. and Cr. folios should be separated by a line: for example, if the Dr. entry be on the first folio, and the Cr. entry on the eighth, the reference is marked $\frac{1}{8}$. These figures show how far the posting is advanced, and are useful in comparing the books. The figures for dates or references should be written in a lighter hand, than the figures in the columns for money or quantity.

(68.) There is often a reference column ruled in the leger, for pointing out the other entry, corresponding to any article. In this column, the folio of the Cr. entry is marked against the Dr. article, and the folio of the Dr. entry against the Cr. article. Sometimes the accounts are numbered according

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according to their order in the leger; and the references, both in the journal and leger, point out the number of the account inſtead of the folio.

(69.) In complex poſts, turn to the ſeveral Drs. or Crs. in their order, and enter the articles according to the foregoing directions; placing the ſums belonging to each in the money column, againſt the reſpective entries.

(70.) An article in the leger is generally comprehended in one line. The narration ſhould be as full as can be contained in that bounds. If it cannot be narrated completely, the journal is referred to for further particulars, by writing *per Journal*, (or *p. J.*) either after an incomplete narration, or immediately after Dr. or Cr. when there is no room for a proper narration. In complex poſts, there can ſeldom be any narration annexed to the ſingle Dr. or the ſingle Cr. The entry is generally *To Sundries per J.* or, *By Sundries per J.* If the ſenſe of the whole article can be narrated, it ſhould be done; but it is improper to narrate the firſt or any other part of the article, and omit the others.

(71.) When the ſpace allotted for an account in the leger is filled up, the account muſt be tranſported to another folio. For this purpoſe add the columns on both ſides, and write againſt the ſum, *Tranſferred to folio* , inſerting the number of the folio where the new account is opened, in the reference-column, or on the line, if no reference-column be uſed. Then, after titling the new account, and entering the number of the folio in the index, write on the Dr. *To amount, brought from folio* , inſerting the number of the folio where the old account was; and on the Cr. *By amount) brought from folio* ; and place the ſums, and quantities, if any, in the proper columns. When either ſide of an account is full, both ſides ſhould be tranſported, and diagonal lines drawn to fill up the vacant ſpace of the ſide which requires it.

(72.) The books ſhould be written up as frequently as can be done conveniently; ſo that the journal may keep pace nearly with the waſte-book, and the leger with the journal. Each book ſhould be carefully reviſed, and compared with the book from which it is poſted. In comparing the leger, obſerve the following directions.

(73.) Begin with the firſt journal poſt, and turn to the folio of the leger where the Dr. is entered, which you are directed to by the marginal reference, and compare the date, entry, and ſum. If they correſpond, it is well; if not, the leger muſt be altered till it correſpond with the journal. Then place a dot before the reference figure in the journal, and a mark, thus Λ, before the ſum in the leger. Proceed in the ſame manner to compare the Cr. of the journal poſt, and all the following poſts in their order. The dots in the journal ſhow how far the compariſon is advanced, and the marks in the leger ſhow what articles are compared. The ſums of accounts tranſported ſhould be left blank till the books be compared; as an error in any article will occaſion an alteration in the ſum.

(74.) In correcting errors in the leger, obſerve the following rules: I. If an article be omitted, do not attempt to interline it at the place where it ſhould have been; but inſert it under the laſt article when you diſcover the omiſſion, and mark a croſs × againſt it on the margin, and another at the place where it ſhould have been. II. If you diſcover a miſtake immediately when committed, correct it without cancelling any thing, as in this example: *To caſh, Jay, To James Spence received to account.* III. If you have written a line entirely wrong, or in a wrong place, write the word *Error* at the end, prefix a croſs, and omit or cancel the ſum. IV. Cancel errors, by drawing a line lightly through them, ſo that the old writing may ſtill be legible; by which it will be evident, that the book has not been vitiated for a fraudulent purpoſe. The ſame method ſhould be followed in correcting errors in the journal.

(75.) When the compariſon of the books is finiſhed, glance over the leger, to obſerve if the mark of compariſon be affixed to every article.

(76.) Becauſe the whole ſum of the Dr. ſide of the leger ſhould be equal to the whole ſum of the Cr. § 36. it is proper to try if they correſpond. For this purpoſe, you may add the Dr. of every account, except ſuch as are already balanced, placing the ſums in an inner column, and extending them at the end of one or more folios, as you find moſt convenient, to the outer column: and, as you go along, add the Cr. in the ſame manner. If the ſum total of both ſides be equal, it gives a preſumption that the books are right; if they differ, there is certainly ſome miſtake. This is called the *Trial Balance*. The labour beſtowed upon it is not loſt, as the ſums may be reſerved for aſſiſting to collect the ballances.

(77.) If the ſums of the trial balance do not correſpond the books muſt be examined again. For this purpoſe, begin with the firſt article on the Dr. ſide of the firſt account, and turn to the account where the correſponding entry is, which you will find by the figure in the reference column. If the articles agree, mark them with a dot. Proceed in like manner with the other articles on the Dr. of the firſt account; then with articles on the Cr. of the ſame; and then with the following accounts in their order, till the error or errors be diſcovered.

(78.) In complex entries, obſerve if the amount of the ſums on one ſide be equal to the ſum on the other. When you come to a dotted article, you may paſs it by, becauſe it has been examined already. If the errors be not diſcovered at the firſt reviſal, you muſt repeat the ſame operation again, till you bring the books to balance. Marks different from the former ones, or differently placed, may be uſed, to ſignify that an article has been examined a 2d or 3d time. As the detection of errors is the moſt tedious and diſagreeable part of book-keeping, the accountant muſt guard againſt them with all poſſible care.

SECT. V. *Of* BALLANCING *the* BOOKS.

(79.) Before we explain the method of ballancing the books, it will be proper to direct the learner how to balance particular accounts. When we ſettle accounts with any perſon, and aſcertain how much is owing at either hand, it is neceſſary to balance his account in the leger, and open a new one, beginning with the ſum that was due according

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ing to the settlement: and when we clear accounts again, we must go back to that article, and no farther.

(80.) If any article be charged on either side, at the time of settling, they must be immediately entered on the waste book; from which they will pass in course to the journal and leger; and a remark must be entered in the waste-book, that the account was settled, and the balance transferred to the proper side of the new account. This remark is transcribed in the journal; and the leger account is ballanced, when it occurs, in the course of posting.

(81.) If the ballance be due to you, write on the Cr. *By ballance due to him to Dr. new account*, and insert the sum due you; after which, the amount of both sides will be equal. Add the account, placing the sums opposite to each other; and, if the sides be unequal, draw a diagonal line through the vacant space of the shorter side, and close the old account by drawing lines under the sums. Then open the new account immediately under the old one, or in a new folio, if the old one be full, by writing on the Dr. *To balance of former account due by him.*

(82.) If the balance be due by you to him, the entries are made on the opposite sides, with the necessary alterations. When the new account is opened in the same folio, it is unnecessary to repeat the title; but the year and month, as well as the day, must be repeated at the date of the first article. Sometimes when an account is ballanced, one or more articles are left out on purpose: For example, goods lately bought on credit may be left out, and the settlment may only relate to articles of longer standing. When this is the case, if the article omitted be on the Dr. of the leger, write on the Cr. thus, *By articles sold him since 1st January replaced:* and when we have balanced the account, and opened a new one, we write on the Dr. *To articles replaced in settling, furnished since 1st January:* or, if the articles were left out for any other reason, we explain the same in the narration. If the omitted articles be on the Cr. the like entries are made on the opposite sides. It should be noticed in the waste-book and journal when this operation is necessary.

(83.) when we post any common article from the journal, we enter the sum on the Dr. of one account, and on the Cr. of another: when we balance an account, we place the balance sum on the Dr. of the old account, and on the Cr. of the new one, or contrarywise: and when we replace an article, as above directed to the Dr. or Cr. of the old account, we place it after balancing to the Cr. or Dr. of the new one. Thus, in these entries, as well as in common posts, there are like sums entered on the Dr. and Cr. of the leger, and the general quality of the sides is still preserved.

(84.) Merchants generally balance their books once a-year. The design of this operation is, to collect the various branches of their business, diffused through the books, into a concise abstract: to ascertain the gain or loss since the last balance: and exhibit the present state of their funds. If the business be of such a kind, that most of the branches naturally come to an issue at a certain time of year, that time is the proper one for making the balance. Otherwise the end of the year, or the least busy time may be chosen.

(85.) Before balancing, it is proper to settle as many personal accounts as possible; to clear all arrears and small charge: to take an exact inventory of the goods on hand, as far as can be done: and affix a moderate value to each article, according to the current prices at the time; such a value as you would be willing at present to buy for. It is more proper to value the goods on hand in conformity to the current prices, than at prime cost: for the design of affixing any value is to point out the gain or loss, and the gain is in reality obtained so soon as the prices rise, or the loss suffered so soon as they fall; therefore it is impossible to make up a just state of the affairs, unless the present prices be attended to.

(86.) These things being done, proceed to make the balance as follows: Prepare two sheets of paper, ruled with money columns, in the form of Dr. and Cr.; write *Profit and Loss* as the title of the first, and *Ballance* as the title of the second. Prepare also some paper for computing the balances, and mark down the folios, titles, and sums of each account in the leger, in a regular order. If a trial-balance was made, the sums may be transcribed from it. Pass by such accounts as are already closed; also the accounts of Stock and Profit and Loss, which are always the last of being balanced. Then subtract the lesser sum from the greater, and enter the difference on either of the sheets, that the nature of the article points out, and on the side of that sheet which corresponds to the greater sum of the account.

(87.) In *personal* accounts, enter the difference, which is the debt owing to you, or by you, on the proper side of the balance-sheet. In the *Cash* account, enter the difference, which is the money in hand, on the Dr. side of the balance-sheet. In accounts of *goods* or other *property*, if there be nothing remaining on hand, enter the difference, which is the gain or loss, on the proper side of the profit and loss sheet.—If the whole be still on hand, enter the present value on the Dr. of the balance-sheet; and, if this be different from the prime cost, charges included, enter the difference on the proper side of the profit and loss sheet. If part be sold and part on hand, place the value of the quantity on hand under the sum of the Cr. and add them. The sum is the whole return that will be obtained, if the rest of the goods be sold at the estimated value; and this, being compared with the sum of the Dr. which is the whole expence, shows the gain or loss. Enter the same in the proper side of the profit and loss sheet, and enter the quantity and value on hand on the Dr. of the balance sheet.

(88.) Observe if the quantities in the inner columns be equal on both sides, when the goods are all sold; or, if the difference, when only part is sold, be equal to the quantity on hand. If they correspond, you have a just account of the goods. If the Dr. be greater, there is something amissing, which you must enter on the Dr. of the balance-sheet, and mark the cause of the deficiency, as in lake, waste, or the like. If the Cr. be greater, there is an excess, which you must enter on the Cr.

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Cr. of the balance ſheet, together with the occaſion of it, as difference of meaſure, or the like.

(89.) In accounts ſubſidiary to profit and loſs, enter the difference on the proper ſide of the profit and loſs ſheet. When there is nothing written on one ſide of an account, enter the ſum of the article or articles on that ſheet which the kind of the account points out.

(90.) When you have collected all the balances, ſum up both ſheets, and add to the profit and loſs ſheet the ſums of the profit and loſs account in the leger: then ſubtract the leſſer ſum of each ſheet from the greater. This being done, mark the ſums of your ſtock account on your computation paper, and add thereto the balances of the profit and loſs ſheet, on the ſide which correſponds with the greater ſum of that account: then ſubtract the leſſer ſum from the greater. The remainder will be equal to the difference of the ſides of the balance ſheet, if the books be right, and the balances exactly collected.

(91.) This equality muſt always hold, from the nature of the articles collected. The Dr. of the balance ſheet contains every kind of property belonging to you, and every debt owing to you; and the Cr. contains every debt owing by you: therefore the difference of the ſides ſhows what your nett eſtate amounts to. The profit and loſs ſheet, when the articles from the leger are included, contains every thing you have gained on the Cr. and every thing you have loſt on the Dr. and the difference of your ſides is your nett gain or loſs. The ſtock account contained your effects and debts at the time the books were opened; and therefore, when the gain or loſs is added to the proper ſide, it muſt ſhow the extent of your nett eſtate at preſent. Thus the ſtock account and the balance ſheet both point out how much you are worth at preſent; the one from your former ſtock, allowance being made for your gain or loſſes; the other from a view of your preſent effects and debts; and they will correſpond, if the books be correct.

(92.) Though the books muſt balance, if free from error, yet it is ſometimes difficult to adjuſt them exactly, eſpecially when the buſineſs is extenſive, and the error trifling. If there be ſtill a difference, which we do not think it worth while to make further ſearch for, we may cloſe the books, by making Profit and Loſs Dr. or Cr. for the ſame. This introduces an article on one ſide of the leger, which has none correſponding to it on the other, but is balanced by ſome undiſcovered error.

SECT. VI. *Of* CLOSING *the* BOOKS.

(93.) The balance being ſtruck, the next work is to cloſe the books. Every article in the leger ſhould be poſted from the journal; therefore the moſt regular way of finiſhing both is by inſerting the following articles in the journal, and poſting them in the common manner to the leger.

I. *Profit and Loſs Dr. to Sundries, for loſs, on the following accounts.* The particulars are taken from the Dr. of the Profit and Loſs ſheet.

II. *Sundries Dr. to Profit and Loſs, for Gain, on the following accounts.* The particulars are taken from the Dr. of the Profit and Loſs ſheet.

III. *Balance account Dr. to Sundries, for debts and property belonging to me.*

VI. *Sundries Dr. to balance account, for debts due by me.* The particulars of this and the former are taken from the reſpective ſides of the balance-ſheet.

V. *Profit and Loſs Dr. to Stock for nett gain; or Stock Dr. to Profit and Loſs, for nett loſs.*

VI. *Balance account Dr. to Stock, for nett ſtock.*

(94.) When the four firſt of theſe articles are poſted in the leger, all the perſonal, real, and ſubſidiary accounts will balance, and you may add them as you go along. In accounts of goods, if there be any deficiency, you muſt enter it on the Cr. in the inner column; and if there be any outcome, you muſt enter it on the Dr. before you add the account. Then the ſums of every account and every column on the oppoſite ſides will be equal.

(95.) The only accounts that remain open are. *Profit and Loſs, Stock, and Balance.* The fifth poſt balances the profit and loſs account, and the ſixth balances the ſtock account. It was noticed, § 36. that the whole ſums of Dr. and Cr. of the leger are equal; and therefore, if the ſides of every account, except one, be balanced, that one will balance of its own accord. The balance account alone remains open, and, upon trial, you will find that the ſides are equal. This affords an additional proof, or, at leaſt, a different view, of what was demonſtrated, with reſpect to the balance of the books, in § 91.

(96.) The lines above and under the ſums, at a general balance, may be drawn with red ink; and, at the balancing of particular accounts, with black ink, for diſtinction. Some inſert the particulars of the profit and loſs and balance ſheets in the reſpective accounts of the leger. If this be done, it is unneceſſary to enumerate them alſo in the journal.—Some balance the accounts of goods, whenever the quantity is ſold off; and this method leſſens the work at the general balance, which is always ſufficiently laborious.

(97.) Thus is the ſtate of a perſon's affairs brought together, in a ſhort compaſs, under his view; and the articles of the balance ſheet ſupply materials for a new inventory. It is convenient, however, to alter the order, and arrange the real accounts together, and the perſonal ones together.

SECT. VII. SPECIMENS *of the* WASTE-BOOK, JOURNAL, LEGER, *&c.*

(98.) It is not neceſſary to begin new books, or to open the accounts anew, unleſs the old folios be full. The accounts may be continued in the former folios; but it is beſt to begin a new leger, if the old one be not likely to hold all the buſineſs of the next year. When one comes to have ſeveral ſets of books, it is common to diſtinguiſh them by the letters of the alphabet. The firſt waſte-book, journal, and leger, are marked A, the ſecond, B; and ſo on.

(99.) In the following SPECIMENS, the WASTE-BOOK and JOURNAL are placed on oppoſite pages, that the learner may the more eaſily compare them; and the rules are referred to by their numbers.

WASTE-BOOK,

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(1.) (100.) WASTE-BOOK.
Perth, JANUARY 1, 1807.

(101.) JOURNAL.
Perth, JANUARY 1, 1807.

✓ INVENTORY of ready money goods, and debts, belonging to Alex. Harvey, merchant in Perth.

Ready money			L75 10 —						
200 bolls meal, at 13s		L130 — —							
6 hds Port wine, at L15		90 — —							
70 reams paper, at 10s 5d		36 15 —							
120 sp. 5 hank yarn, at 28 3d		13 10 —							
			270 5 —						
A house in High-street, Perth, value			300 — —						
John Bell, merch. Perth, owes per account		L73 4 —							
J. Purdie writer, Perth, owes per do.		12 3 8							
H. Hood, merch. Glasgow, per bill		75 — —							
W. Mill, manuf. Dundee, per receipt		18 — —							
			178 7 8						
(§ 61.)			824 2 8						

Sundries Dr. to Stock, for articles belonging to Alex. Harvey, merch. Perth.

.1	*Cash* on hand		L75 10 —						
.1	*Meal.* For 200 bolls at 13s		L130 — —						
.2	*Port wine.* For 6 hds, at L15		90 — —						
.2	*Paper.* For 70 rms, at 10s 6d		36 15 —						
.2	*Yarn.* For 120 sp. 5 hank, at 28 3d		13 10 —						
				270 5 —					
.2	*House in High-street*, Perth, value			300 — —					
.2	*John Bell*, mer. Perth, per ac.		L73 4 —						
.2	*J. Purdie* writer Perth, per do		12 3 8						
.2	*H. Hood* merch. Glas. per bill		75 — —						
.2	*W. Mill*, manuf. Dundee, per								
.1	receipt		18 — —						
				178 7 8	824	2	8		

✓ LIST of debts by the said A. Harvey.

	To the bank of Perth per account		L230 — —						
	To Charles Fox, mercht. London, per do.		54 — —						
	To Jas. Low, carpenter, Newburgh, per do.		28 7 3						
	(§ 61.)			312 7 3					

Stock Dr. to Sundries.

.1	*To bank of Perth* per acct.		L230 — —						
.3	*To Charles Fox*, merch. London per account		54 — —						
.3	*To James Low*, carpenter Newburgh, per do		28 7 3						
				312 7 3					

3.

✓ Bought for ready money 105 yards calicoe, at 3s 2d *Rule* III. — 16 12 6

.3 *Calico Dr. to Cash.* Bought 105 yards at 3s 2d — .1 — 16 12 6

✓ Sold Hugh Cook, merch. Aberdeen, 50 bolls meal, at 13s 3d *Rule* I. — 33 2 6

.3 *Hugh Cook* merchant, Aberdeen, *Dr. to Meal*, sold 50 bolls, at 13s 3d — .1 — 33 2 6

5.

✓ Bartered 60 spindles 5 hank yarn, at 2s 4d, for 80 yards diaper, at 1s 9d *Rule* III. — 7 — —

.3 *Diaper Dr. to Yarn.* Delivered 60 sp. 5 hank in barter for 80 yards, at 1s 9d — .2 — 7 — —

10.

✓ Paid James Low in full *Rule* I. — 28 7 3

.3 *James Low Dr to Cash.* Paid him in full — .1 — 28 7 3

13.

✓ Bought from Hugh Pringle, merch. Leith, 200 bushels salt, at 1s 8d — L16 13 4
320 stones iron, at 3s 4d — 53 6 8
Rule II. — 70 — —

Sundries Dr. to Hugh Pringle, merch. Leith.

.3	*Salt.* For 200 bushels, at 1s 8d		L16 13 4						
.4	*Iron.* For 320 stones, at 3s 4d		53 6 8						
				70 — —					

Perth,

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(2) WASTE-BOOK.

Perth, JANUARY 15, 1807.

15.

Sold 30 rms paper to John Bell, at 12s L18 — —
12 to John Hunt ſtationer Edin. at 12s 7 4 —
5 for ready money, at 11s 2 15 —
— 27 19 —
47 *Rules* I. III

19.

Sold W. Hunt merch. Dunbar 150 buſhels ſalt, at 1s 9d, L13 2 6
Received in part L10 — —
And he owes the ballance 3 2 6
Rules I. III. 13 2 6

Received from H. Hood in payment of his bill L75 — —
And for intereſt on do 2 10 —
Rules II. VII. 77 10 —

Paid the Bank of Perth 100
Rule I.

26.

Bought from W. Wallace merchant Dundee 500 ſp. 4 four hank yarn, at 1s 11d L47 18 4
Paid him in part L15 — —
And the balance due him is 32 18 4
Rules II. III. 47 18 4

30.

Received 150 bolls meal, 13s 2d L98 : 15s, in barter for 6 hhds Port wine, at L16 L96 — —
Paid the balance 2 15 —
Rule III. 98 15 —

Perth, 2d FEB. 1807.

Sold John Bell 48 buſh. ſalt, being the rem. at 1s 8½d L4 2 —
60 ſp. 5 hank yarn, at 2s 3½d 6 17 6
100 ſtone iron, at 3s 4½d 16 17 6
Rule I. 27 17 —

3.

Received from Hugh Cook in part 30 — —
Rule II.

10.

Bartered 22 reams paper, at 12s L13 4 —
30 bolls meal, at 13s 6d 20 5 —
L33 9 —
For 334½ ſp. 4 hank yarn, at 2s 33 9 —
Rule III.

JOURNAL.

Perth, JANUARY 15, 1807.

15.

Sundries Dr. to Paper.
.2 *John Bell* for 30 rms, at 12s L18 — —
.4 *John Hunt* ſtationer Edin. for 20 12s 7 4 —
.1 *Caſh.* For 5 11s 2 15 —
.2 47 27 19 —

19.

Sundries Drs. to Salt, for 150 buſh. at 1s 9d, L13 2 6
.1 *Caſh.* Received in part L10 — —
.4 *W. Hunt* merch. Dunbar, for balance due by him 3 2 6
.3 13 2 6

.1 *Caſh Dr. to Sundries.*
.2 *To H. Hood.* Received payment of his bill L75 — —
.1 *To Profit and Loſs.* Rec. intereſt on do 2 10 —
77 10 —

.2 *Bank of Perth Dr. to Caſh.* Paid them. 100 — —
.1

26.

.2 *Yarn Dr. to Sundries*, for 500 ſp. 4 hank, at 1s 11d. L47 18 4
1 *To Caſh.* Paid in part L15 — —
.4 *To W. Wallace* merch. Dundee, for balance 32 18 4
47 18 4

30.

.1 *Meal Dr. to Sundries*, for 150 bolls, at 13s 2d L98 : 15
.2 *To Port Wine.* For 6 hhds delivered in barter, L18 L96 — —
.1 *To Caſh.* Paid ballance 2 15 —
98 15 —

Perth, 2d FEB. 1807.

.2 *John Bell Dr. to Sundries.*
.3 *To Salt*, for 48 buſh. being the rem. at 1s 8½d L4 2 —
.2 *To Yarn*, for 60 ſp. 5 hank, at 2s 3½d 6 17 6
.4 *To Iron*, for 100 ſtones, at 3s 4½d 16 17 6
27 17 —

3.

.1 *Caſh Dr. to Hugh Cook.* Received in part 30 — —
.3

10.

2 *Yarn, Dr. to Sundries.* For 333½ ſp. 4 hank yarn, at 2s. L33 : 9s
.2 *To Paper.* For 22 rms delivered in barter, at 12s L13 4 —
.1 *To Meal.* For 30 bolls, at 13s 6d 20 5 —
33 9 —

(2)

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(3.) WASTE-BOOK.

Perth, FEBRUARY 15, 1807.

Taken for the use of my shop the remaining ream paper, value — 10 6
Rule VI.

—16.—

Rec. from W. Hunt in full L 3 2 6
from John Bell in part 70 — —
73 2 6
Rule II.

Paid the Bank of Perth 100 — —
Rule I.

—19.—

Bartered 100 yards callicoes, at 3s 6d L 17 : 10s
For one hhd. Port wine L 14 10 —
Received the balance 3 — —
17 10 —
Rule III.

Sold for ready money,
30 bolls meal at 13s 8d L 20 10 —
45 to H. Hood, at 13s 10d 31 2 6
27 to William Hunt, at 13s 10d 18 13 6
52 to Bell and Caw, Banff, at 13s 10d 35 19 4
106 5 4
154 *Rules* I. III.

—23.—

Drawn on the Bank of Perth 120 — —
Rule II.

Paid H. Pringle in part L 50 — —
W. Wallace in full 32 18 4
And Cha. Fox's bill on me at sight 35 — —
117 18 4
Rule I.

—*Perth*, MARCH 2, 1807.—

Paid charges and cellar-rent of salt L 1 2 6
Charges and loft rent of meal 3 3 —
4 5 6
Rule IV.

—4.—

Received from J. Purdie in full L 12 — —
Discounted him — 3 8
12 3 8
Rules II. VI.

—5.—

Sold H. Yorke, Manchester,
60 sp. 4 hank yn. at 2s 4½d L 6 1 3
300 do do at 1s 11¼d 29 13 9
35 15 —
360 *Rule* I.

—12.—

Received from Paulus Van Trump Amsterdam, 6 bags clover seed, qt 200 lb. each, amount per invoice *f.* 312, at 22d per *f.* L. 28 12 —
Paid freight and charges 1 5 —
29 17 —
Rules II. IV.

JOURNAL.

Perth, FEBRUARY 15, 1807.

(3.)

Charges Merchandize Dr. to Paper, taken for the use of shop, 1 ream, value — 10 6

—16.—

Cash Dr. to Sundries.
To W. Hunt. Rec. in full L 3 2 6
To John Bell. —— in part 70 — —
73 2 6

Perth Bank, Dr to Cash. Paid them 100 — —

—19.—

Sundries Drs. to Callicoes. For 100 yards delivered in barter, at 3s 6d, L. 17 : 10s
Port wine. For 1 hd. L. 14 10 —
Cash. Received balance 3 — —
17 10 —

Sundries Drs. to Meal.
Cash. For 30 bolls, at 13s 8d L 20 10 —
H. Hood. For 45 at 13s 10d 31 2 6
W. Hunt. For 27 at 13s 10d 18 13 6
Bell and Caw,
Banff. For 52 at 13s 10d 35 19 4
106 5 4
154

—23.—

Cash Dr. to Bank of Perth. Drawn on them 120 — —

Sundries Drs. to Cash.
H. Pringle. Pd him in part L 50 — —
W. Wallace. Paid him in full 32 18 4
Cha. Fox. Paid his bill on me at sight 35 — —
117 18 4

—*Perth*, MARCH 2, 1807.—

Sundries Drs. to Cash.
Salt. Paid charges and cellar-rent L. 1 2 6
Meal. Paid charges and loft-rent 3 3 —
4 5 6

—4.—

Sundries Drs. to J. Purdie.
Cash. Received in full L. 12 — —
Profit and Loss. Discounted him — 3 8
12 3 8

—5.—

H. Yorke, Manchester, *Dr. to Yarn.*
For 60 sp. 4 hank, at 2s 4½d L 6 1 3
300 do at 1s 11¼d 29 13 9
35 15 —
360

—12.—

Clover seed Dr. to Sundries.
To Paulus Van Trump, for 6 bags, qt. 200 lb. each, is 1200 lb. amount per invoice, *f.* 312, at 22d L. 28 12 —
To Cash. Paid freight and charges 1 5 —
29 17 —

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(4) WASTE BOOK.
Perth, 17*th* MARCH, 1807.

Bartered with John Bell 2 bags clover feed, at L.6, L.12, for 2 hds. lintf. at 55s L.5 10 —
Received in money 5 — —
And he owes the balance 1 10 —
12 — —

Rules III. I.

Paid Cha. Fox in full L.19 — —
And for intereft 1 10 —
20 10 —

Rules I. IV.

—21.—

Sold 140 lb. clover-feed to W. Peat, farmer at Duplin, at 7½d L.4 7 6
70 to H. Cook, at 7½d 2 3 9
120 for ready money, at 7¼d 3 12 6
10 3 9
330 *Rules* I III.

—24—

John Bell has paid the Bank of Perth on my account
40 — —
Rule VIII.

—25.—

Bought from D. Richards merchant Alloa, one third fhare of the fhip Adventure, for
150 — —
Rule II.

—28.—

Sold Bell and Caw,
150 ftone iron, at 3s 7d L.26 17 6
1 hd. Port wine 15 5 —
42 2 6
Rule I.

—*Perth*, 2*d* APRIL, 1807.—

Sold for ready money
50 yards diaper, at 1s 11d L4 15 10
30 bolls meal, at 13s 7d 20 7 6
1 hd. lint-feed 3 3 —
160 lb. clover feed, at 7¾d 5 3 4
30 ftone iron, at 3s 6½d 5 6 3
38 15 11
Rule III.

—6.—

Drawn on the Bank of Perth, for
60 — —
Rule II.

Bought for ready money
30 caſks train oil, at 22s L33 — —
30 bolls meal,
at 13s L19 10 —
40, at 13s 2d 26 6 8
45 16 8
70
78 16 8
Rule III.

Sold Dav. Richards 30 yds. diaper, at 2s L.3 — —
And paid him 30 — —
3 — —
Rule I.

(4) JOURNAL.
Perth, 17*th* MARCH, 1807.

Sundries Drs. to Clover-feed. For 2 bags, at L.6 L.12 — —
Lint-feed, for 2 hds. recd. in bart. 55s 5 10 —
Caſh. In part 5 — —
John Bell, for balance 1 10 —
12 — —

Sundries, Drs. to Caſh.
C. Fox. Paid him in full L.19 — —
Profit & Loſs. Paid him int. 1 10 —
20 10 —

—21.—

Sundries Drs. to Clover-feed.
Will. Peat, farmer at Duplin, for 140 lb. at 7½d L.4 7 6
H. Cook, 70 7½d 2 3 9
Caſh, 120 7d¼ 3 12 6
330
10 3 9

—24.—

Bank of Perth Dr. to John Bell. Paid them by him
40 — —

—25.—

Share of ſhip Adventure, Dr. to D. Richards, merchant Alloa, bought one third ſhare for
150 — —

—25.—

Bell and Caw Drs. to ſundries.
To Iron. For 150 ſtone, at 3s 7d L.26 17 6
To Port wine. For 1 hd. 15 5 —
42 2 6

—*Perth*, 2*d* APRIL, 1807.—

Caſh Dr. to Sundries.
To Diaper. For 50 yards, at 1s 11d. L. 4 15 10
To Meal. For 30 bolls at 13s 7d 20 7 6
To Lint-feed, For 1 hd. 3 3 —
To Clover feed. For 160 lb. at 7¾d 5 3 4
To Iron. For 30 ſt. at 3s 6½d 5 6 3
38 15 11

—6.—

Caſh Dr. to Bank of Perth. Drawn on them for
60 — —

Sundries Drs. to Caſh.
Train-oil. For 30 caſks, at 22s L.33 — —
Meal. For 30 bolls, at 13s L19 10 —
And 40 at 13s 2d 26 6 8
45 16 8
70
78 16 8

D. Richards Dr. to Sundries
To Diaper. For 30 yds at 2s L3 — —
To Caſh. Paid him 30 — —
33 — —

T 2 *Perth*

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(5.) WASTE-BOOK.
Perth, 8th APRIL, 1807.

✓ Bell and Caw have paid D. Richards, at my desire, balance of my share of the ship Adventure 117 — —
Rule VIII.

11.

✓ Sold J. Bell 20 casks train-oil, at 27s 27 — —
Rule I.

14.

✓ Sold Will. Gib, merch. Stirling
10 casks train-oil, at 28s L14 — —
1 hd. lint-seed 3 5 —
35 bolls meal, at 13s 8d 23 18 4
L41 3 4
Received in part L35 — —
And he owes the balance 6 3 4
Rules I. II. 41 3 4

16.

✓ Paid Bell and Caw's bill on me to G. Free, at sight 38 18 2
Rule I.

18.

✓ Taken for the use of my family, the remaining 5 yards calicoe, at 3s 2d — 15 10
Rule VI.

22.

✓ The Bank of Perth have paid Paulus Van Trump's bill to me, 1 mdt. at my desire 28 12 —
Rule VIII.

25.

✓ Received my proportion of profits on a voyage to Amsterdam, by the Adventure 33 — —
Rule V.

30.

✓ Paid for small charges on my business since 1st January L5 3 8
Personal & family expences 32 — —
Rule. VI. 37 3 8

✓ Due Peter Penman, my clerk, for wages 8 — —
Rule VI.

✓ Due the Bank of Perth for interest 2 11 2
Rule VI.

✓ Previous to the balancing of my books, I had taken an inventory of goods in my shop and ware-house,
124 bolls meal, at 13s 6d L83 14 —
174 sp. 4 hank yarn, at 2s 47 8 —
40 stone iron, at 3s 4d 6 13 4
300 lb. clover-seed, at 6d 7 10 —
L145 5 4
I value my house at 300 — —
And my share of ship Adventure 140 — —
L585 5

JOURNAL. (5.)
Perth, 8th APRIL, 1807.

Dav. Richards Dr. to Bell and Caw. Paid him by them on my account, being balance of share of ship Adventure 117 — —

11.

John Bell Dr. to Train-oil. Sold him 20 casks at 27s 27 — —

14.

Will. Gib Dr. to Sundries.
To Train-oil. For 10 casks, at 28s L14 — —
To Lint-seed. For 1 hd. 3 5 —
To Meal. For 35 bolls, at 13s 8d 23 18 4
41 3 4

Cash Dr. to W. Gib. Received in part 35 — —

16.

Bell and Caw Drs. to Cash. Paid their bill on me to Geo. Free, at sight 38 18 2

18.

Proper Expences Dr. to Calicoes. For 5 yards taken for family use, at 3s 2d — 15 10

22.

Paulus Van Trump Dr. to Bank of Perth. For his bill on me 1 mdt. paid by them 28 12 —

25.

Cash Dr. to Share of Ship Adventure. Received my proportion of profits on a voyage to Amsterdam 33 — —

30.

Sundries Drs. to Cash.
Charges Merchandize. Paid small charges, since Jan. 1. L5 3 8
Proper Exp. Paid personal and family charges 32 — —
37 3 8

Charges of Merchandize Dr. to Peter Penman, my clerk. Due him for wages 8 — —

Profit and Loss Dr. to Bank of Perth. Due them for Interest 2 11 2

Profit and Loss Dr. to Sundries, for articles of loss.
To Salt L— 11 4
To Charges Merchandize 13 14 2
To Proper expences 32 15 10
(See § 93.) 47 1 4

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(6) JOURNAL.
Perth, 30*th* APRIL, 1807.

Sundries Drs. to Profit and Loss, for articles of gain.

.1	*Meal*	L 9	18	—	
.2	*Port wine*	6	15	—	
.2	*Paper*	4	18	6	
.2	*Yarn*	2	3	2	
.3	*Calico*	1	13	4	
.3	*Diaper*	—	15	10	
.4	*Iron*	2	7	11	
.4	*Clover-seed*	5	—	1	
.5	*Lint-seed*	—	18	—	
.5	*Share of Ship Adventure*	23	—	—	
.5	*Train oil*	8	—	—	
.5					65 9 10
.1					

Bal. Account Dr. to Sun. for articles belonging to me.

.6	*To Cash*	L 8	3	10	
.1	*To Meal.* For 124 bolls, at 13s 6d	83	14	—	
.1	*To Yarn.* For 474 sp. at 2s Amissing ½ spindle	47	8	—	
.2	*To House in Perth*	300	—	—	
.2	*To John Bell*	37	11	—	
.2	*To Henry Hood*	31	2	6	
.3	*To William Mill*	18	—	—	
.3	*To Hugh Cook*	5	6	3	
.4	*To Iron.* For 40 stones, at 3s 4d	6	13	4	
.4	*To John Hunt*	7	4	—	
.4	*To William Hunt*	18	13	6	
.4	*To Henry Yorke*	35	15	—	
.4	*To Clover-seed.* For 300 lb. at 6d	7	10	—	
	Inlake 10 lb.				
.5	*To William Peat*	4	7	6	
.5	*To Share of Ship adventure*	140	—	—	
.5	*To William Gib*	6	3	4	
					757 12 3

30.

Sundries Drs. to Balance-account.

.1	*Meal.* Outcome 3 bolls				
.3	*Bank of Perth*	L 201	3	2	
.4	*Hugh Pringle*	20	—	—	
.6	*Peter Penman*	8	—	—	
.6					229 3 2
.1					

Profit and Loss Dr. to Stock, for nett gain 16 13 8

Stock Dr. to Balance-account, for nett stock 528 9 1

The next JOURNAL would begin thus
Perth 1st MAY, 1807.

Sundries Drs. to Stock.

Cash on hand			L 8	3 1
Meal. For 124 bolls, at 13s	L 83	14 —		
Yarn. For 474 sp. 4 hank, at 2s	47	8 —		
Iron. For 40 st. at 3s 4d	6	13 4		
Clov. seed. For 300 lb. at 6d	7	10 —		
			145	5
House in Perth, value	L 300	— —		
Share in Ship Adventure. For one third	140	— —		
			440	— —
J. Bell, Perth, Due by him	L 37	11 —		
H. Hood, Glasgow Do	31	2 6		
W. Mill, Dundee Do	18	— —		
H. Cook, Aberdeen Do	5	6 3		
J. Hunt, Edinburgh Do	7	4 —		
W. Hunt, Dunbar Do	18	13 6		
H. Yorke, Manchester Do	35	15 —		
W. Peat, Duplin Do	4	7 6		
W. Gib, Stirling Do	6	3 4		
			164	3 1

Stock Dr. to Sundries.

To Bank of Perth. Due them		L 201	3 2
To Hugh Gib, Leith. Due him		20	— —
P. Penman, my clerk, Do.		8	— —

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(102.) LEGER. Fo.

Stock,

1	To Sundries per J.		312	7	2
30	To Balance acc. for nett ſtock	5	528	9	1
			840	16	4

Profit and Loſs,

4	To J. Purdie, diſcounted him	2	—	3	8
17	To Caſh, paid C. Fox intereſt	1	1	10	—
30	To Bank of Perth, for intereſt due them	3	2	11	2
—	To Sundries per J.		47	1	4
—	To Stock, for nett gain	1	16	13	8
			67	19	10

Caſh,

1	To Stock on hand	1	75	10	—
15	To paper, for 5 reams, at 11s	2	2	15	—
19	To Salt, in part, per J.	3	10	—	—
22	To Sundries for H. Hood's bill, with intereſt		77	10	—
3	To Hugh Cook, in part	3	30	—	—
16	To Sundries, per J.		73	2	6
19	To Calicoes, for bal. of 100 yds. per J.	3	3	—	—
—	To meal, for 30 bolls, at 13s 8d	1	20	10	—
23	To Bank of Perth, drawn on them	3	120	—	—
4	To J. Purdie, in full	2	12	—	—
17	To Clover ſeed, in part, for 2 bags	4	5	—	—
21	To Clover ſeed, for 120 lb. at 7½d	4	3	12	6
2	To Sundries, per J.		38	15	11
6	To Bank of Perth, drawn on them	3	60	—	—
14	To W. Gib, in part	5	35	—	—
25	To ſhare of ſhip Adventure for ſhare profits per J.	5	33	—	—
			599	15	11

Meal,

		Bolls				
1	To ſtock on hand, at 13s	200	1	130	—	—
30	To Sundries, per J. at 13s 2d	150		98	15	—
2	To Caſh, paid charges & loft-rent		1	3	3	—
6	To Caſh, per J.	70	1	45	16	8
30	To Profit and Loſs, for gain		1	9	18	—
	Outcome	3				
		423		287	12	8

LEGER. Fo. (1.)

Contra Cr.

1807 Jan.	1	By Sundries, per J.		824	2	8
Apr.	30	By Profit and Loſs, for nett gain	1	16	13	8
				840	16	4

Contra Cr.

1807 Jan.	22	By Caſh, received int. on H. Hood's bill	1	2	10	—
Apr.	30	By Sundries, per J.		65	9	10
				67	19	10

Contra Cr.

1807 Jan.	3	By calicoes, for 105 yards, at 3s 2d	3	16	12	6
	10	By J. Low, in full	3	28	7	3
	22	By Bank of Perth, paid them	3	100	—	—
	26	By Yarn, in part, for 500 ſp. 4 hank	2	15	—	—
	30	By Meal, paid bal. of 150 bolls	1	2	15	—
Feb.	16	By Bank of Perth, paid them	3	100	—	—
	23	By Sundries, per J.		117	18	4
Mar.	2	By Sundries, per J.		4	5	6
	12	By Clover-ſeed, paid freight & charges	4	1	5	—
	17	By Sundries, paid C. Fox, with intereſt per J.		20	10	—
Apr.	6	By Sundries, per J.		78	16	8
	—	By D. Richards, paid him	5	30	—	—
	16	By Bell and Caw, paid their b. on me ſt.	4	38	18	2
	30	By Sundries, for charges and expences, per J.		37	3	8
	—	By Balauce account	6	8	3	10
				599	15	11

Contra Cr.

			Bolls.				
1807 Jan.	3	By H. Cook, at 13s 3d	50	3	33	2	6
Feb.	16	By Yarn in barter, at 13s6d	30	2	20	5	—
	19	By Sundries, per J.	154		106	5	4
Apr.	2	By Caſh, at 13s 7d.	30	1	20	7	6
	14	By W. Gib, at 13s 8d.	35	5	23	18	4
	30	By Balance acc. at 13s 4d.	124	6	83	14	—
			423		287	12	8

Dr.

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(2.) LEGER. Fo.

Dr. *Port wine,*

1807			Hds				
Jan.	1	To Stock on hand, at L15	6	1	90	—	
Feb.	19	To Calicoes, in barter	1	3	14	10	—
Apr.	30	To Profit and Loſs for gain		2	6	15	—
			7		111	5	—

Dr. *Paper,*

1807			R.				
Jan.	1	To ſtock on hand at 10s 6d	70	1	36	15	—
Apr.	30	To Profit and Loſs, for gain		1	4	18	6
			70		41	13	6

Dr. *Yarn,*

1807			Spindles 4 H	Spindles 5 H				
Jan.	1	To Stock on hand, at 2s 3d		120	1	13	10	—
	26	To Sundries, per J. at 1s 11d	500			47	18	4
Feb.	10	To Sundries, per J. at 2s	334½			33	9	—
Apr.	30	To profit and Loſs, for gain			1	2	3	2
			834½	120		97	—	6

Dr. *Houſe in High Street,*

1807							
Jan.	1	To Stock, for value		1	300	—	—

Dr. *John Bell, merchant, Perth,*

1807							
Jan.	1	To Stock due by him, per acc.		1	73	4	—
	15	To paper, for 30 reams at 12s		2	18	—	—
Feb.	2	To Sundries, per J.			27	17	—
Mar.	17	To Clover-ſeed, for bal. of 2 bags, per J.		4	1	10	—
Apr.	11	To Train-oil, for 20 caſks, at 27s		3	27	—	—
					147	11	—

Dr. *J. Purdie, writer, Edinburgh,*

1807							
Jan.	1	To Stock due by him, per acc.		1	12	3	8

Dr. *H. Hood, merchant, Glaſgow,*

1807							
Jan.	1	To Stock due by him per bill		2	75	—	—
Feb.	19	To Meal, for 45 bolls, at 13s 10d		1	31	2	6

LEGER. Fo. (2.)

Contra Cr.

1807			Hds				
Jan.	30	By Meal, in barter, at 16l.	6	1	96	—	—
Mar.	28	By Bell and Caw	1	4	15	5	—
			7		111	5	—

Contra Cr.

1807			R.				
Jan.	15	By Sundries, per J.	47		27	19	—
Feb.	10	By Yarn, in barter, at 12s	22	2	13	4	—
		By Charges Merchandize for ſhop uſe	1	4	—	10	6
			70		41	13	6

Contra Cr.

1807			Spindles 4 H	Spindles 5 H				
Jan.	5	By Diaper, at 2s 4d		60	3	7	—	—
Feb.	2	By J. Bell, at 2s 3½d		60	2	6	17	6
Mar.	5	By H. Yorke, per J.	360		4	35	15	—
Apr.	30	By Balance acc. at 2s Amiſſing	474		6	47	8	—
			½					
			834½	120		97	—	6

Contra Cr.

1807							
Apr.	30	By Balance account		6	300	—	—

Contra Cr.

1807							
Feb.	16	By Caſh in part		2	70	—	—
Mar.	24	By Bank of Perth pd. in by him		3	40	—	—
Apr.	30	By Balance account		6	37	11	—
					147	11	—

Contra Cr.

1807							
Mar.	4	By Sundries in full, with diſcount, per J.			12	3	8

Contra Cr.

1807							
Jan.	22	By Caſh in full		1	75	—	—
Apr.	30	By Balance account		6	31	2	6

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Dr

(3) LEGER. Fo.

Dr. *W. Mill Manufacturer Dundee,*

1807
Jan. 1 To Stock due by him per receipt 1 18 — —

Dr. *Bank of Perth,*

1807
Jan. 22 To Cash, paid them 1 100 — —
Feb. 16 To Cash, paid them 1 100 — —
Mar. 24 To John Bell, paid them by him 2 40 — —
Apr. 30 To Balance-account 6 201 3 2

441 3 2

Dr. *Chas. Fox merchant London.*

1807
Feb. 23 To Cash, paid his bill on me at sight 1 35 — —
Mar. 17 To cash, in full 1 19 — —

54 — —

Dr. *J. Low carpenter Newburgh,*

1807
Jan. 10 To Cash, paid him in full 1 28 7 3

Dr. *Calicoes,*

1807 Yds.
Jan. 3 To Cash, at 3s 2d 105 1 16 12 6
Apr. 30 To Profit and Loss, for gain 1 1 3 4

105 18 5 10

Dr. *H. Cook merchant Aberdeen.*

1807
Jan. 3 To Meal, for 50 bolls, at 13s 3d 1 33 2 6
Mar. 21 To Clover-seed, for 70 lb. at 7½d 4 2 3 9

35 6 3

Dr. *Diaper,*

1807 Yds.
Jan. 5 To Yarn in barter, at 1s 9d 80 2 7
Apr. 30 To Profit & Loss, for gain 1 — 15 10

80 7 15 10

Dr. *Salt.*

1807 Bush.
Jan. 13 To Wm. Gib, at 1s 8d 200 5 16 13 4
Mar. 2 To Cash, paid charges and cellar rent. 1 1 2 6

200 17 15 10

LEGER. Fo. (3)

Contra Cr.

1807
Apr. 30 By balance-account 6 18 — —

Contra Cr.

1807
Jan. 1 By Stock, due them p. account 1 230 — —
Feb. 23 By Cash, drawn on them 1 120 — —
Apr. 6 By Cash, drawn on them 1 60 — —
22 By P. Van Trump, for his bill paid them per Journal 5 28 12 —
30 By Profit and Loss, for interest due them 1 2 11 2

441 3 2

Contra Cr.

1807
Jan. 1 By Stock, due him per account 1 54 — —

54 — —

Contra Cr.

1807
Jan. 1 By Stock, due him per account 1 28 7 3

Contra Cr.

1807 Yds.
Feb. 19 By Sundries, p. J. at 3s 6d 100 1 17 10 —
Apr. 18 By proper Expences taken at 3s 6d 5 5 — 15 10

105 18 5 10

Contra Cr.

1807
Feb. 3 By Cash in part 1 30 — —
Apr. 30 By Balance account 6 5 6 3

35 6 3

Contra Cr.

1807 Yds.
Jan. 2 By Cash at 1s 11d 50 1 4 15 10
Apr. 3 By David Richards, at 2s 30 5 3 — —

80 7 15 10

Contra Cr.

Bush.
19 By Sundries, p. J. at 1s 9d 150 13 2
1807 2 By J. Bell, for the rem. at 1s 8½d 48 2 4 2
Jan.
Feb. 30 By Profit and Loss Inlake 2 1 — 11 4
Apr.

200 17 15 10

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(4) LEGER. FO.

Dr. *H. Pringle mercht. Leith.*

1807				£	s	d
Feb.	23	To Cash in part		50	—	—
Apr.	30	To Balance-account	6	20	—	—
				70	—	—

Dr. *Iron.*

1807				Stones.	£	s	d
Jan.	13	To H. Pringle, at 38 4d.	4	320	53	6	8
Apr.	30	To Profit & Loss, for gain	1		2	7	11
				320	55	14	7

Dr. *John Hunt stationer Edinburgh.*

1807				£	s	d
Jan.	15	To paper, for 12 reams at 12s.	1	7	4	—

Dr. *W. Hunt merchant Dunbar.*

1807				£	s	d
Jan.	19	To Salt, for balance of 150 bushels, per J.	3	3	2	6
Feb.	19	To Meal, for 27 bolls, at 13s 10d	1	18	13	6

Dr. *W. Wallace merchant Dundee.*

1807				£	s	d
Feb.	23	To Cash, in full		32	18	4

Dr. *Charges Merchandize.*

1807				£	s	d
Feb.	10	To paper, taken for shop use, 1 ream	2	—	10	6
Apr.	30	To cash, for small charges since 1st January	1	5	3	8
		To P. Penman, for wages	6	8	—	—
				13	14	2

Dr. *Bell and Caw Banff.*

1807				£	s	d
Feb.	19	To Meal, for 52 bolls, at 13s 10d	1	35	19	4
Mar.	28	To Sundries, per J.		42	2	6
Apr.	16	To Cash, paid their bill on me to George Freer, st.	1	38	18	2
				117	—	—

Dr. *Henry Yorke Manchester.*

1807				£	s	d
Mar.	5	To Yarn, for 360 spindles four hank, per J.	2	35	15	—

Dr. *Clover seed.*

1807				lb.	£	s	d
Mar.	12	To Sundries, per J. for prime cost and charges		1200	29	17	—
Apr.	30	To profit and loss, for gain	1		5	—	1
				1200	34	17	1

LEGER. FO.

Contra Cr.

1807				£	s	d
Jan.	13	By Sundries, per J.		70	—	—
				70	—	—

Contra Cr.

1807				Stones	£	s	d
Feb.	2	By John Bell, at 38 4½d	2	100	16	17	6
Mar.	18	By Bell and Caw, at 38 7d	4	150	26	17	6
Apr.	2	By Cash, at 38 6½d	1	30	5	6	3
	30	By Balance-acct. at 38 4d	6	40	6	13	4
				320	55	14	

Contra Cr.

1807				£	s	d
Apr.	30	By Balance account	6	7	4	—

Contra Cr.

1807				£	s	d
Feb.	16	By Cash, in full	1	3	2	6
Apr.	30	By Balance account	6	18	13	6

Contra Cr.

1807				£	s	d
Jan	26	By Yarn, for balance of 500 spindles, per J.	2	32	18	4

Contra Cr.

1807				£	s	d
Apr.	30	By Profit and Loss	1	13	14	2

Contra Cr.

1807				£	s	d
Apr.	8	David Richards paid him by them	5	117	—	—

Contra Cr.

1807				£	s	d
Apr.	7	By Balance account	6	35	15	—

Contra Cr.

1807				lb.	£	s	d
Mar.	17	By Sundries, per J.		400	12	—	—
	21	By Sundries, per J.		330	10	3	9
Apr.	2	By Cash, at 7¼d	1	160	5	3	4
	30	By Balance account, at 6d	5	300	7	10	—
		Inlake		10			
				1200	34	17	1

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(5) LEGER. FO.

Dr. *P. Van Trump mercht. Amſterd.*

1807 Apr. 22 To Perth Bank, for his bill on me paid by them — 3 — 28 12 —

Dr. *Lintſeed.*

1807			Hds.			
Mar.	17	To clover ſeed, in barter at 55s	2 4		5 10	—
Apr.	30	To Profit and Loſs, for gain			18	—
			2		6 8	—

Dr. *W. Peat farmer at Duplin.*

1807 Mar. 21 To clover ſeed, for 140 lb. at 7½d. — 4 — 4 7 6

Dr. *Share of ſhip Adventure,*

1807					
Mar.	25	To D. Richards bought ¼ ſhare for	5	150	—
Apr.	30	To Profit and Loſs	1	23	—
				173	—

Dr. *D. Richards merch. Alloa.*

1807					
Apr.	6	To Sundries, per J.		33	—
	8	To Bell and Caw, for balance paid by them	4	117	—
				150	—

Dr. *Train-oil.*

1807			Caſks.			
Apr.	6	To Caſh, at 22s	30	1	33	—
	30	To profit and Loſs, for gain		1	8	—
			30		41	—

Dr. *W. Gib merchant Stirling.*

1807 Apr. 14 To Sundries, per J. — 41 3 4

Dr. *Proper Expences.*

1807					
Apr.	18	To Calicoes, for 5 yds. at 3s 2d	3	15	10
	30	To Caſh, for charges ſince 1ſt January	1	32	—
				32	15 10

LEGER. FO.

Contra Cr.

1807 Mar. 12 By Clover ſeed, for 6 bags, per J. — 4 — 28 12 —

Contra Cr.

1807			Hds.			
Apr.	2	By Caſh	1	1	3	3 —
	14	By William Gib	1	5	3	5 —
			2		6	8 —

Contra Cr.

1807 Ap 30 By Balance account — 6 — 4 7 6

Contra Cr.

1807					
Apr	25	By Caſh, for ſhare profit of a voyage to Rotterdam	1	33	—
	30	By Balance account	6	140	—
				173	—

Contra Cr.

1807 Mar 25 By Share of Ship Adventure, for ¼ bought from him — 5 — 150 —

150 —

Contra Cr.

1807			Caſks.			
Apr.	11	By John Bell, at 27s	20	2	27	—
	14	By W. Gib, at 28s	10		14	—
			30		41	—

Contra Cr.

1807 Apr 14 By Caſh in part — 1 — 35 — —

30 By Balance account — 6 3 4

41 3 4

Contra Cr.

1807 Apr. 30 By Profit and Loſs — 1 — 32 15 10

32 15 10

LEGER.

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(6) LEGER. Fo

Peter Penman, my Clerk,

Dr.

1807 Apr.	30	To balance account	6	8	—	—

Balance account,

Dr.

1807 Apr.	30	To Sundries, per J.		757	12	3
				757	12	3

LEGER. Fo (6)

Contra Cr.

1807 Apr.	30	By Charges Merchandize, due him for wages	4	8	—	—

Contra Cr.

1807 Apr.	30	By Sundries, per J.	1	229	3	2
		By Stock		528	9	1
				757	12	3

(103.) TRIAL-BALANCE.

	Dr				Cr.			
Stock	L 312	7	3		L 824	2	8	
Profit and Loſs	4	4	10		2	10	—	
Caſh	599	15	11		591	12	1	
				L 916 8 —				L 1418 4 9
Meal	L 277	14	8		L 203	18	8	
Port wine	104	10	—		111	5	—	
Paper	36	15	—		41	13	6	
Yarn	94	17	4		49	12	6	
Houſe in Perth	300	—	—		—	—	—	
				813 17 —				406 9 8
John Bell	L 247	11	—		L 110	—	—	
H. Hood	31	2	6		—	—	—	
William Mill	18	—	—		—	—	—	
Bank of Perth	140	—	—		441	3	2	
				436 13 6				551 3 2
Calicoes	L 16	12	6		L 18	5	10	
Hugh Cook	35	6	3		30	—	—	
Diaper	7	—	—		7	15	10	
Salt	17	15	10		17	4	6	
				76 14 7				73 6 2
Iron	L 53	6	8		L 49	1	3	
Hugh Pringle	50	—	—		70	—	—	
John Hunt	7	4	—		—	—	—	
William Hunt	18	13	6		—	—	—	
Charges Merchandize	13	14	2		—	—	—	
				142 18 4				119 1 3
Henry York	L 35	15	—		L —	—	—	
Clover ſeed	29	17	—		27	7	1	
Flax-ſeed	5	10	—		6	8	—	
William Peat	4	7	6		—	—	—	
Sharp of Ship Adventure	150	—	—		33	—	—	
				225 9 6				66 15 1
Train-oil	L 33	—	—		L 41	—	—	
William Gib	41	3	4		35	—	—	
Proper Expences	32	15	10		—	—	—	
Peter Penman	—	—	—		8	—	—	
				106 19 2				84 — —
				L 2719 — 1				L 2719 — 1

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(104.) COMPUTATIONS.

	Dr	Cr.
1 Cash	L 599 15 11	L 591 12 1
	591 12 1	
	L 8 3 10	
Meal	L 277 14 8	L 203 18 8
Dr. 420 bolls		83 14 —
Cr. 299	L 83 14 —	
		L 287 12 8
121		277 14 8
124		
	Profit	L 9 18 —
3 outcome		
2 Port wine	L 104 10 —	L 111 5 —
		104 10 —
	Profit	L 6 15 —
Paper	L 36 15 —	L 41 13 6
		36 15 —
	Profit	L 4 18 6
Yarn	L 94 17 4	L 49 12 6
Spindles		L 49 12 6
834½ 120	L 47 8 —	
360 120		L 91 — 6
		94 17 4
474½		
Amiffing ½	Profit	L 2 3 2
Houfe in Perth	L 300 — —	
John Bell	L 147 11 —	L 110 — —
	110 — —	
	L 37 11 —	
H. Hood	31 2 6	
3 W. Will	L 18 — —	
Bank of Perth	L 240 — —	L 441 3 2
		240 — —
		L 201 3 2
Calicoes	L 16 12 6	L 18 5 10
		16 12 6
	Profit	L 1 13 4
H. Cook	L 35 6 3	
	30 — —	
	L 5 6 3	
Diaper	L 7 — —	L 7 15 10
		7 — —
	Profit	L — 15 10

	Dr.	Cr.
Salt	L 17 15 10	L 17 4 6
	17 4 6	
	Loſs L — 11 4	
4 Hugh Pringle	L 50 — —	L 70 — —
		50 — —
		L 20 — —
Iron	L 53 6 8	L 49 1 3
320 ſtone		6 13 4
280	L 6 13 4	
		L 55 14 7
40		53 6 8
	Profit	L 2 7 11
John Hunt	L 7 4 —	
W. Hunt	L 18 13 6	
Char. Merchant	L 13 14 2 loſs.	
Henry Yorke	L 35 15 —	
Clover ſeed	L 29 17 —	L 27 7 1
1200 lb.		L 7 10 —
890	L 7 10 —	
		L 34 17 1
310		29 17 —
300		
	Profit	L 5 — 1
10 inlake		
6 Lint-ſeed	L 5 10 —	L 6 8 —
		5 10 —
	Profit	L — 18 —
W. Peat	L 4 7 6	
Share Adventure	L 150 — —	33 — —
		140 — —
	L 140 — —	
		L 173 — —
		150 — —
	Profit	L 23 — —
Train-oil	L 33 — —	L 41 — —
		33 — —
	Profit	L 8 — —
W. Gib	L 41 3 4	L 35 — —
	35 — —	
	L 6 3 4	
Proper Ex.	L 32 15 10 loſs.	
7. P. Penman		L 8 — —
STOCK	L 312 7 3	L 824 2 8
Balance	528 9 1	prof. 16 13 8
	L 840 16 4	L 840 16 4

(103.) PROFIT &c

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(105.) PROFIT AND LOSS SHEET.

Salt			L— 11 4	Meal			L 9 18 —
Charges Merchandize			13 14 2	Port-wine			6 15 —
Proper Expences			32 15 10	Paper			4 18 6
			L47 1 4	Yarn			2 3 4
In Leger			4 4 10	Calicoes			1 13 4
			L51 6 2	Diaper			— 15 10
				Iron			2 7 11
				Clover ſeed			5 — 1
				Lint ſeed			— 18 —
				Share of ſhip Adventure			23 — —
				Train-oil			8 — —
							L65 9 10
Nett gain			16 13 8	In Leger			2 10 —
			L67 19 10				L 67 19 10

(106.) BALANCE-SHEET.

Caſh			L 8 3 10	Meal, outcome 3 lb.			
Meal, 124 b. at 13s 6d			83 14 —	Bank of Perth			L 201 3 2
Yarn, 274 ſp. at 2s			47 8 —	Hugh Pringle			20 — —
Amiſſing ½				Peter Penman			8 — —
Houſe in Perth			300 — —				
John Bell			37 11 —				L 229 3 2
Henry Hood			31 2 6				
William Mill			18 — —				
Hugh Cook			5 6 3				
Iron, 40 ſtone, at 3s 4d			6 13 4				
John Hunt			7 4 —				
William Hunt			18 13 6				
Henry Yorke			35 15 —				
Clover ſeed, 300 lb. at 6d			7 10 —				
Inlake 10 lb.							
William Peat			4 7 6				
Share of Ship Adventure			140 — —				
William Gib			6 3 4	STOCK			528 9 1
			L757 12 3				L757 12 3

PART II.

OF BOOK-KEEPING BY SINGLE ENTRY.

(107.) Having explained the method of Book-keeping by DOUBLE ENTRY, we ſhall add a few directions for keeping books by SINGLE ENTRY; becauſe this method although leſs perfect, is yet the ſimpleſt and ſhorteſt. It is generally uſed by ſhop-keepers, and requires two principal books, a DAY BOOK and LEGER.

(108.) The DAY BOOK begins with a liſt of the debts due to the owner, and of the debts due by him to others. Then every tranſaction by which new debts are contracted, or former debts diſcharged, is entered as it occurs with the quantities and prices of goods bought or ſold or other circumſtances neceſſary for explaining the tranſaction.

(109.) When goods are ſold on credit we write *A. B.* [the purchaſer] *Dr.* and then mention the article or articles with the rates and amount. When we pay money we write *C. D.* [the receiver] *Dr to Caſh*; when we buy goods, *E. F.* [the ſeller] *Cr.* for the articles purchaſed; when we receive money, *G. H.* [the payer] *Cr. by Caſh.*

(110.) If debts be diſcharged or contracted by any other means, the perſon who becomes indebted to us, or to whom we pay a debt we formerly owed, is entered *Dr.* and the perſon to whom we become indebted, or who pays a debt he formerly owed, is entered *Cr.* and the nature of the tranſaction explained.

(111.) The LEGER contains an account for every perſon with whom there are dealings on credit, where the articles for which he is accountable to us, and thoſe for which we are accountable to him

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him, are placed in oppoſite pages of the ſame folio; the *Dr.* articles on the left hand pages, and the *Cr.* articles on the right hand pages.

(112.) To POST the leger, allot a ſpace for every perſon or company whoſe name occurs in the liſt of debts at the beginning of the day book; write the title and enter the debts on the proper ſide, referring to the page of the former leger, where the account was; and enter the name in an index prepared as directed PART I § 65; then proceed to poſt the articles from the day-book in their order, in the accounts of the perſons they belong to, allotting a ſpace for the account and writing the title, if it was not opened before. The date of the article is written on the margin, and the tranſaction is entered on the *Dr.* ſide, when the perſon is marked *Dr.* in the day-book; and on the *Cr.* ſide, when he is marked *Cr.* in the day-book.

(113.) When a ſingle article is bought or ſold, we mention it, with the quantity and rate, in the leger; but when ſeveral articles are bought or ſold at the ſame time, it is more uſual to enter only the ſum of the whole, writing *To Sundries*, or *By Sundries*, and referring to the day-book for particulars. The number of the folio, in which each article is poſted, is marked on the margin of the day-book. If the ſpace aſſigned for an account, be filled up, it muſt be tranſferred to another folio.

(114.) Inſtead of entering the *Dr.* and *Cr.* articles on oppoſite pages, ſome enter them all on the ſame page, and rule two ſets of money columns, one for extending the ſums of the *Dr.* articles and another for the ſums of the *Cr.* articles.

(115.) Thoſe who keep their books upon this plan, ought alſo to have a CASH BOOK, and an INVOICE BOOK; (ſee PART III. § 119, and 122,) which will make it unneceſſary to enter the particulars of ſuch articles in the day-book.

(116.) It is eaſy to collect a ſtate of all the debts due to the owner of the books, and thoſe due by him, once a year, or oftener; from which, together with an inventory of the goods on hand, and ready money, the ſtock of the owner will be eaſily known, and this compared with the amount of his ſtock at the beginning of the year, found in the ſame manner, ſhews the gain or loſs upon his trade during the year.

(117.) Some ſhop-keepers enter all their ſales, thoſe for ready money, as well as thoſe on credit, in their day-book; and when this is done, a column is generally ruled in the day book for extending the caſh articles, and the amount of money received is entered once a-week, or once a-day in the caſh-book. This method is the beſt, when the articles are not very numerous or minute.

PART III.

OF THE SUBSIDIARY BOOKS.

(118.) Though all merchants accounts may be kept by the WASTE-BOOK, JOURNAL, and LEGER, alone; yet men of great buſineſs find it convenient, either for abridging theſe, or for other ends, to uſe ſome others, generally called SUBSIDIARY or SUBSERVIENT BOOKS; the moſt common of which are the following, *viz.*

(119.) I. *The* CASH-BOOK is kept in a folio form, like the leger, and ſerves to abridge the caſh account there. On the left-hand page, or Dr ſide, *Caſh* is charged Dr. for all the ſums received; and on the right-hand page, *Caſh* is made Cr. for all the ſums paid. Once a-week, or, which is more ordinary, once a-month, this book is poſted to the leger; or, firſt to the journal, by two entries, *viz. Caſh* Dr. to *Sundries*, for all the receipts, and *Sundries* Drs. to *Caſh*, for all the payments. By this means the caſh account in the leger will be ſo far contracted as to conſiſt of 12 lines, *viz.* one for each month in the year.

(120.) II. *Book of* CHARGES *of* MERCHANDIZE. This book is only paged, and deſigned to abbreviate the caſh-book. It contains particular charges on goods and voyages; ſuch as carriage, cuſtom, freight, cranage, wharfage, &c. alſo other expences that affect trade in general; ſuch as, warehouſe rent, ſhop rent, accountant's wages, poſtage of letters, and the like. At the end of each month the money columns of this book are added up, and the ſum carried to the credit ſide of the caſh book.

(121.) III. *The* BOOK *of* HOUSE EXPENCES is alſo paged, and deſigned to eaſe the caſh book. It contains all diſburſements for family proviſions, ſervants wages, houſe rent, apparel, utenſils, &c. The money columns of this book are alſo added up at the end of each month, and the ſum tranſferred to the credit ſide of the caſh book.

(122.) IV. *The* INVOICE-BOOK, uſed chiefly by factors, is paged, and contains copies of the invoices of goods ſent to ſea, or of goods received from abroad.

(123.) V. *The* SALES-BOOK is alſo chiefly uſed by factors; and into it is poſted, from the waſte-book, the particular ſales of every conſigned cargo; by which the ſeveral articles of a ſale, that lie ſcattered in the waſte-book, are brought together, and repreſented under one view, and that in a manner more full and minute than in the leger. This book exhibits the ſales of every conſignment ſeparately and by themſelves: to which are ſubjoined the reſpective charges, ſuch as freight, cuſtom, the factor's commiſſion, as alſo abatements allowed to buyers, &c. whoſe ſum ſubtracted from the groſs amount of ſales gives the neat proceeds. From this book, when a cargo is ſold off, an account of ſales is drawn out, in order to be tranſmitted to the employer.

(124.) VI. *The* BILL-BOOK, or MONTH-BOOK, is intended to furniſh a merchant with a ready way of knowing the time when bills or other debts become payable to or by him. It conſiſts of 12 folios, one for each month in the year. The left hand page contains the debts that fall due to the merchant in the month on the top, and the right hand page contains the debts payable by him to others in the ſame month.

(125.) VII. RECEIPT-BOOK. In this book a merchant takes receipts of the payments he makes. The receipt ſhould contain the date; the ſum received, expreſſed in words at large, and alſo in figures in the money columns; the reaſon why; and

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and whether in full or in part; and muſt be ſigned by the perſon receiving.

(126.) VIII. LETTER-BOOK. It is very imprudent in any perſon to ſend away a letter of buſineſs, without keeping a copy of it; and therefore to prevent the bad conſequences of ſuch a careleſs practice, merchants are provided with a large book in folio, into which is copied *verbatim* every letter of buſineſs before it be ſent off. So that this book, together with the letters received, (which muſt alſo be carefully kept in files or boxes,) makes a complete hiſtory of all the dealings that paſs betwixt a merchant and his coreeſpondents; which may be very uſeful on many occaſions.

(127.) IX. POCKET-BOOK. This is a ſmall book, of a portable ſize, which a merchant carries in his pocket when buſineſs calls him abroad to a tavern, a fair, the country, or other places. In this he ſets down the bargains he makes, the expences he is at, the debts he pays or ſums he receives, with every other part of buſineſs he tranſacts while abroad; as alſo any occurrence or piece of news he thinks worth while to record. And when he comes home, he transfers the things containd in this book, each to their proper places in the waſte book, or books ſubſidiary.

(128.) X. Factors of great buſineſs ſometimes keep another ſmall book, called the *Momorandum-book*. Into this book is copied, from letters as they come to hand, ſhort notes of the ſeveral commiſſions for buying goods contained in them; and as commiſſions are effected, the notes are croſſed, or have ſome mark affixed to them. This is more convenient in doing buſineſs, than to be continually running to the letters themſelves.

(129.) The above are the ſubſidiary books moſt in uſe: but a merchant may keep ſome, and neglect others, or invent more as the nature of his buſineſs requires.

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BOOKLAND. See BOCK-LAND.

* BOOKLEARNED. *adj.* [from *book* and *learned*.] Verſed in books or literature: a term implying ſome ſlight contempt.—

Whate'er theſe *booklearned* blockheads ſay,
Solon's the veri'ſt fool in all the play. *Dryden.*

—He will quote paſſages out of Plato and Pindar, at his own table, to ſome *booklearned* companion, without bluſhing. *Swift.*

* BOOKLEARNING. *n. ſ.* [from *book* and *learning*.] Skill in literature; acquaintance with books: a term of ſome contempt.—They might talk of *booklearning* what they would: but he never ſaw more unfeaty fellows than great clerks. *Sidney.*—Neither does it require ſo much *booklearning* and ſcholarſhip, as good natural ſenſe, to diſtinguiſh true and falſe, and to diſcern what is well proved, and what is not. *Burnet's Theory.*

*BOOK-

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* BOOKMAN. *n. f.* [from *book* and *man*.] A man whose profession is the study of books.—

This civil war of wits were much better us'd
On Navarre and his *bookmen*; for here 'tis abus'd. *Shak.*

* BOOKMATE. *n. f.* [from *book* and *mate*.] Schoolfellow.—

This Amardo is a Spaniard that keeps here in court,
A phantasm, a monarch, and one that makes sport
To the prince and his *bookmates*. *Shakespeare.*

(1.) * BOOKSELLER. *n. f.* [from *book* and *sell*.] He whose profession it is to sell books.—He went to the *bookseller* and told him in anger, he had sold a book in which there was false divinity. *Walton.*

(2.) BOOKSELLERS, GENERAL ACCOUNT OF. Booksellers, among the ancient Romans, were stiled *Bibliopolæ*. Their office was distinct from that of *librarii*. Venders of small books were more particularly denominated *libellliones*. At Rome, the Argiletum was the chief mart of books. Booksellers in many places are ranked among the members of universities, and intitled to the privileges of students. At Tubingen, Salisburg, &c. and at Paris before the revolution, they have always been distinguished from the mechanical traders, and exempted from many taxes laid on their companions. Formerly, the offices of booksellers and printers were united in the same persons. Labbe gives a list of learned booksellers, most of whom were also printers and authors. Of late, booksellers, leaving the labour of composing books to one set of persons, and that of printing them to another, content themselves with the gainful part. In this view they have been useful agents between authors and the public; and have contributed in no small degree, to the encouragement of genius. The fairs of Francfort and Leipsic are famous for the resort of booksellers, not only from all parts of the empire, but from Holland, Flanders, &c. They have each their shop or warehouse, over which is inscribed the name of some celebrated bookseller of former times; such as *officina Elzeviriani*, *Frobeniana*, *Morelliana*, *Janſoniana*, &c. The traffick books was anciently very inconsiderable, insomuch that the book merchants of England, France, Spain, and other countries, were distinguished by the appellation of STATIONERS; as having no shops, but only stalls and stands in the streets. During this state, the civil magistrates took little notice of the booksellers, leaving the government of them to the universities, to whom they were supposed more immediate retainers; who accordingly gave them laws and regulations, fixed prices on their books, examined their correctness, and punished them at discretion. But when, by the invention of printing, books and booksellers began to multiply, it became a matter of more consequence; and the sovereigns took the direction of them into their own hands, giving them new statutes, appointing officers to fix prices, and granting licences, privileges, &c.

(3.) BOOKSELLERS, MARKS USED BY SEVERAL FAMOUS. An acquaintance with the marks, on the title pages of books, is of some use; because many ancient books have no other designation either of printer, bookseller, or even city. The anchor is the mark of Raphelengius at Leyden; the same with a dolphin twisted round it, of the Manutii at Venice and Rome; the Arion of Oporinus at Basil; the caduceus, or Pegasus, of the Wecheliuses at Paris and Francfort; the cranes of Cramoisy; the compass of Blantin at Antwerp: the fountain of Vascosan at Paris; the sphere in a balance, of Janson and Blaew, at Amsterdam; the lily, of the Juntas at Venice, Florence, Lyons, and Rome; the mulberry tree, of Morel at Paris; the olive tree, of the Stephenses at Paris and Geneva, and the Elzevirs at Amsterdam and Leyden: the bird between two serpents, of the Frobeniuses at Basil; the truth, of the Commelins at Heidelberg and Paris; the Saturn, of Colinæus: and the printing press, of Badius, Ascensius, &c.

(1.) * BOOKWORM. *n. f.* [from *book* and *worm*.] 1. A worm or mite that eats holes in books, chiefly when damp.—My lion, like a moth or *bookworm*, feeds upon nothing but paper, and I shall beg of them to diet him with wholesome and substantial food. *Guardians.* 2. A student too closely given to books; a reader without judgement.—Among those venerable galleries and solitary scenes of the university, I wanted but a black gown, and a salary, to be as mere a *bookworm* as any there. *Pope's Letters.*

(2.) BOOK-WORM is an insect of the mite kind, which afterwards becomes a fly, bred from eggs deposited in the month of August in books, especially in the leaves nearest the covers. It is not unlike the mite or BLATTA found in corn. When the time of its transformation approaches, it seeks to get into the air, and eats through, till it gets to the extremity of the book.

(3.) BOOK-WORMS, ANTIDOTES AGAINST. The mixture of juice of wormwood and other bitter ingredients in the paste, (which is an expedient used by book-binders) is no security to books against book-worms. The best security is from mineral salts, which all insects hate. For this purpose book-binders, ought to mix with the paste employed in binding, the salt called ARCANUM DUPLICATUM, alum, and vitriol. With this precaution, books may be preserved from all injury by this mischievous little creature. M. Prediger, in his Instructions to German bookbinders, (Leipsic, 1741,) recommends making paste of starch, instead of flour; and advises to powder slightly the books, their covers, and the shelves on which they stand, with a mixture of powder of alum, and fine pepper; and in the months of March, July, and September, to rub the books with a piece of woollen cloth steeped in powdered alum.

BOOLIE. *adj. Obſ.* beloved.

* BOOLY. *n. f.* [an Irish term.] All the Tartarians, and the people about the Caspian Sea, which are naturally Scythians, live in hordes; being the very same that the Irish *boolies* are, driving their cattle with them, and feeding only on their milk and white meat. *Spenſer.*

* BOOM. *n. f.* [from *boom*, a tree, Dutch.] 1 [In sea language.] A long pole used to spread out the clue of the studding sail; and sometimes the clues of the mainsail and foresail are boomed out.

2. A

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2. A pole with bushes or baskets, set up as a mark to shew the sailors how to steer in the channel, when a country is overflown. *Sea Dictionary.* 3. A bar of wood laid across a harbour, to keep off the enemy.—

As his heroick worth struck envy dumb,
Who took the Dutchmen, and who cut the *boom*. *Dryden.*

* *To* BOOM. *v. n.* [from the noun. A sea term.] 1. To rush with violence; as a ship is said to come *booming*, when she makes all the sail she can. *Dict.* 2. To swell and fall together.—

Booming o'er his head,
The billows clos'd; he's number'd with the dead. *Young.*

Forsook by thee, in vain I sought thy aid,
When *booming* billows clos'd above my head. *Pope.*

BOOMITES, a kind of agate, of a remarkable brightness and transparence, which represents the figures of shrubs, trees, mosses, &c. in the manner of the DENDRACHATES, or *moch-stone*.

(1.) * BOON. *adj.* [*bon*, Fr.] Gay; merry: as, a *boon* companion.—

Satiate at length,
And heighten'd as with wine, jocund and *boon*,
Thus to herself she pleasingly began. *Par. Lost.*

—I know the infirmity of our family; we play the *boon* companion, and throw our money away in our cups. *Arbuthnot.*

(2.) * BOON. *n. s.* [from *bene*, Sax. a petition.] A gift; a grant; a benefaction; a present.—

Vouchsafe me for my need but one fair look:
A smaller *boon* than this I cannot beg,
And less than this, I'm sure, you cannot give. *Shakes.*

—That courtier, who obtained a *boon* of the emperor, that he might every morning whisper him in the ear, and say nothing, asked no unprofitable suit for himself. *Bacon.*—

The blust'ring fool has satisfy'd his will;
His *boon* is giv'n; his knight has gain'd the day,
But lost the prize. *Dryden's Fables.*

What rhetorick didst thou use,
To gain this mighty *boon*? she pities me! *Addison.*

BOONEN, Arnold, portrait painter, born at Dort in 1669, was at first a disciple of Arnold Verbuis, and afterwards of Godfrey Schalcken, with whom he continued six years. The sweetness of his colouring, and the neatness of his touch, with a striking likeness in his portraits, procured him many admirers. He painted subjects by candle light, very natural; and much more of his work was requested than it was possible for him to undertake. He painted the portraits of Peter the Great of Muscovy; Fredric I. of Prussia; the Duke of Marlborough, many of the princes of Germany, and most of the noblemen who attended the Czar. His small pictures are in the taste of Schalcken; but his excessive application, to answer the multitude of his engagements, impaired his health, while it enriched him. He died in 1729, aged 32.

BOONETON, a small town of the United States, in New Jersey; 160 m. from Philadelphia.

BOONSBOROUGH, a small town of Kentucky, agreeably situated on the S. side of the river Kentucky, about 160 miles above its confluence with the Ohio, and 20 SE. of Lexington. Lon. 9. 45. W. Lat. 37. 57. N.

(1.) BOOPS, in ichthyology, the trivial name of a species of balæna. See BALÆNA, § I. N. 1.

(2.) BOOPS is also the name of a fish caught in the Mediterranean, and sold at Naples, Messina, and Genoa; seldom exceeding 5 inches in length, and remarkable for the largeness of its eyes. It is a species of SPARUS.

BOOPTHALMUS, [from βους, an ox, and ὀφθαλμος, an eye,] a kind of grey agate with large dark blue circles in it, resembling an ox's eye.

* BOOR. *n. s.* [*beer*, Dutch; *gebure*, Sax.] A ploughman; a country fellow; a lout; a clown.—The bare sense of calamity is called grumbling; and if a man does but make a face upon the *boor*, he is presently a malecontent. *L'Estrange.*—He may live as a *boor* of Holland, whose cares of growing still richer waste his life. *Temple.*

* BOORISH. *adj.* [from *boor*.] Clownish; rustick; untaught; uncivilized.—Therefore, you clown, abandon, which is, in the vulgar, leave the society, which, in the *boorish*, is company of this female. *Shakes.*

* BOORISHLY. *adv.* [from *boorish*.] In a boorish manner; after a clownish manner.

* BOORISHNESS. *n. s.* [from *boorish*.] Clownishness; rusticity; coarseness of manners.

BOOR-WORM, in natural history, a, name given by Rumphius, to the *folen lignorum*, a sea worm, which bores the bottoms of ships.

* BOOSE. *n. s.* [*bosig*, Sax.] A stall for a cow or an ox.

BOOSHATTER, formerly the city of UTICA, famous for the retreat and death of Cato, lies about 7 miles inland from PORTO FARINO in the bay of TUNIS. Nothing remains of its ancient grandeur, except part of a large aqueduct, some cisterns, and other magnificent ruins, which cover a large extent of ground, and shew it to have been a very considerable place. The sea came up anciently to this city, though now 7 miles distant.

BOOSHOOANAS, a tribe of Caffers, in the southren part of Africa, the capital of which, Lectakoo, contains according to the estimate of commissioners who visited it in 1781, between 2 and 3,000 houses, and from 10 to 15,000 people. They live almost entirely upon vegetables and milk, notwithstanding which, they are tall and athletic, and are principally shepherds: the women divide their time between agriculture and their family. The skins of the beasts which they kill in hunting, are made up into shoes and cloaks. Their houses are circular, about 10 feet in diameter; the lower part for nearly 4 feet, is formed of stone bedded in clay, with wooden spars at certain distances: on the east side a fourth part of each house is left open: the building is finished with a round pointed roof, well thatched with long reeds: from the centre to the back part, a round appartment is formed, with a narrow entrance; and in this the head of the family takes his rest, while the others sleep in the front, or between the two circles in the inside. Every house is inclosed by palisades, and in the space formed between the house and railing, their grain and pulse are stored, in large vessels, made of baked clay

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clay in the form of oil jars, and these are set on tripods, raised about 9 inches from the ground, made of the same materials; they are also covered with a round straw roof, supported by poles and of such a height as to admit a ready entrance to the jars, the tops of which are 5 or 6 feet from the ground.

(1.) * BOOT. *n. s.* [from the verb.] 1. Profit; gain; advantage; something given to mend the exchange.—

My gravity,
Wherein, let no man hear me, I take pride,
Could I, with *boot*, change for an idle plume,
Which the air beats for vain. *Shakes.*

2. *To boot.* With advantage; over and above; besides.—

Man is God's image; but a poor man is
Christ's stamp *to boot*: both images regard.
Herbert.

—He might have his mind and manners formed, and be instructed *to boot* in several sciences, *Locke.*

3. It seems, in the following lines, used for *booty*, or plunder.—

Others, like soldiers, armed in their stings,
Make *boot* upon the summer's velvet buds.
Shakespeare.

(2.) * BOOT. *n. s.* [*bottas*, Armorick; *botes*, a shoe, Welch; *botte*, French.] 1. A covering for the leg, used by horsemen.—

That my leg is too long—
—No; that it is too little.—
—I'll wear a *boot*, to make it somewhat rounder.
Shakespeare.

—Bishop Wilkins says, he does not question but it will be as usual for a man to call for his wings, when he is going a journey, as it is now to call for his *boots*. *Addison's Gardiner.* 2. A kind of rack for the leg, formerly used in Scotland for torturing criminals.

(3.) BOOT, among the ancient Romans, was called OCHREA; and by middle age writers, GREVA, GAMBERIA, *bainberga*, *bembarga*, or *benberga*. The boot is said to have been the invention of the Carians. It was at first made of leather, afterwards of brass or iron; whence Homer calls the Greeks *brazen booted*. The boot was used by the foot, as well as by the horsemen. It only covered half the leg; some say the right leg, which was more advanced than the left, it being advanced forwards in an attack with the sword; but in reality it appears to have been used on either leg, and sometimes on both. Those who fought with darts or other missile weapons, advanced the left leg foremost, so that this only was booted.

(4.) BOOT, [BORDEKIN,] as above defined, (§ 2. *def.* 2.) was used in *England*, as well as in this country, to extort confession by torture. A boot, stocking, or buskin of parchment, being put on the leg moist, and brought near the fire, in shrinking squeezes the leg violently, and occasions intolerable pain. There is also another kind of boot; consisting of 4 thick strong boards bound round with cords: two of these are put between the criminal's legs, and the two others placed one on the outside of one leg, and the other on the other; then squeezing the legs against the boards by the cords the criminal's bones are severely pinched, and sometimes even broken. This and most other barbarous punishments are now abolished in Britain and France; but it is still used in some other countries.

(5.) * BOOT OF A COACH. The space between the coachman and the coach.

(6.) BOOTS, among the moderns, (§ 2. *def.* 1.) are used on horseback, both to keep the body more firm, and defend the part from the injuries of the weather. Boots seem to have taken their name from the resemblance they bear to a sort of jacks or leathern bottles formerly in use, and called *bottæ*, in the old French *bouts*. Borel derives the name from the old French word *bot*, a stump, because the boot gives the leg this appearance. The Chinese have a kind of boots made of silk, or fine stuff lined with cotton, a full inch thick, which they always wear at home; and when a visit is made them, if they happen to be without their boots, their guest must wait till they put them on. They never stir out of doors without their boots on. Their scrupulousness in this respect is the more ridiculous, as they are always carried in chairs.

(7.) BOOTS, FISHING, are a thick strong sort used in dragging ponds, and the like.

(8.) BOOTS, HUNTING, a thinner kind used by sportsmen.

(9.) BOOTS, JACK, a very strong kind of boots used by troopers.

(1.) * *To* BOOT. *v. a.* [*baten*, to profit, Dutch; *bot*, in Saxon, is recompence, repentance, or fine paid by way of expiation; *botan*, Sax. is, to repent, or to compensate; as,

He is wis that bit and bote
And bet bivoren dome.]

1. To profit; to advantage: it is commonly used in these modes, *it boots*, or *what boots it?*—It shall not *boot* them, who derogate from reading, to excuse it, when they see no other remedy; as if their intent were only to deny that aliens and strangers from the family of God are won, or that belief doth use to be wrought at the first in them, without sermons. *Hooker.*—

For what I have, I need not to repeat;
And what I want it *boots* not to complain.
Shakespeare.

If we shun
The purpos'd end, or here lie fixed all,
What *boots* it thus these wars to have begun.
Fairfax.

What *boots* the regal circle on his head,
That long behind he trails his pompous robe?
Pope.

2. To enrich; to benefit.—

And I will *boot* thee with what gift beside,
That modesty can beg. *Shakes.*

(2.) * *To* BOOT. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To put on boots.—*Boot*, *boot*, master Shallow; I know the young king is sick for me: let us take any man's horses. *Shakespeare.*

BOOTAN, a mountainous country of Hindoostan Proper, and a feudatory province of Thibet. It lies between Thibet and Bengal. Tassaudon is the capital.

* BOOT-CATCHER. *n. s.* [from *boot* and *catch.*] The person whose business at an inn is to pull off the boots of passengers.—The ostler and the *bootcatcher* ought to partake. *Swift.*

* BOOTED.

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* BOOTED. *adj.* [from *boot.*] In boots; in a horſeman's habit.—

A *booted* judge ſhall ſit to try his cauſe,
Not by the ſtatute, but by martial laws. *Dryd.*

BOOTES, a conſtellation of the northern hemiſphere, conſiſting of 23 ſtars according to Ptolemy's catalogue; of 18 in Tycho's; of 34 in Bayer's; of 52 in Hevelius's; and of 54 in Flamſtead's catalogue. It is alſo called ARCTOPHYLAX, BUBULCUS, BUBULUS, &c.

(1.) BOOTH, Barton, a famous tragedian, born in Lancaſhire in 1681, and educated in Weſtminſter ſchool under the celebrated Dr Buſhby. He was intended for the church, but his ſucceſs in the Latin plays, commonly performed by the ſcholars, gave him an inclination for the ſtage; and, running away from ſchool to Dublin, he there commenced actor. His firſt appearance was in the part of Oroonoko, in which he received every mark of approbation. From this time he continued daily improving; and, after two ſucceſsful campaigns, returned to his native country, to try his abilities on the Engliſh ſtage. Having, by letter, reconciled himſelf to his friends, he obtained a recommendation from Lord Fitzharding to Mr Betterton, who gave him all the aſſiſtance in his power. The firſt part he appeared in at London was that of Maximus in Lord Rocheſter's Valentinian, wherein his reception exceeded his moſt ſanguine expectations. His performance of Atraban, in Rowe's Ambitious Stepmother, which was a new tragedy, eſtabliſhed his reputation. In Pyrrhus, in the Diſtreſſed Mother, he ſhone without a rival. But he was indebted to a happy coincidence of merit and chance, for that height of fame which he at length attained in the character of Cato, as drawn by Mr Addiſon, in 1712. For this being conſidered as a party play, the Whigs, in favour of whoſe principles it was evidently written, thought it their duty ſtrongly to ſupport it, while the Tories, unwilling to have it conſidered as a reflection on *their* adminiſtration, were ſtill more vehement in their approbation of it; which they carried to ſuch a height, that they made a collection of 50 guineas in the boxes during the performance, and preſented them to Mr Booth, with this compliment, "That it was a ſlight acknowledgement for his honeſt oppoſition to a perpetual dictator, and his dying ſo bravely in the cauſe of liberty." He alſo got a preſent of an equal ſum from the managers, in conſideration of the great ſucceſs of the play, which they attributed in a good meaſure to his extraordinary merit; and certain it is, that no one ſince has ever equalled, or even nearly approached, his excellence in that character. Nor were theſe the only advantages he reaped from his ſucceſs in this part; for Lord Bolingbroke ſoon after procured a ſpecial licence from Q. Anne, recalling all the former ones, and nominating Mr Booth as joint manager with Wilks, Cibber, and Dogget; the laſt of whom took it ſo much amiſs, that he withdrew from any further ſhare in the management. In 1704, Mr Booth had married a daughter of Sir William Barkham Bart. who died in 1710, without iſſue. In 1719 he married the celebrated Miſs Heſter Santlow, a woman of a moſt amiable diſpoſition, whoſe great merit as an actreſs, added to the utmoſt diſcretion and prudential œconomy, had enabled her to ſave a conſiderable fortune. During the 20 years in which Mr Booth continued a manager, the theatre was in the greateſt credit; and his death, which happened on the 10th of May 1733, contributed not a little to its decline. Mr Booth wrote a dramatic work entitled *Dido and Æneas*; but his maſter-piece was a Latin inſcription to the memory of Mr William Smith, a celebrated actor. Mr Booth's dramatic excellency lay wholly in tragedy, not being fond of ſuch parts as had not ſtrong paſſion. Dignity rather than complacency, rage rather than tenderneſs, ſeemed to be his taſte. For a complete idea of his abilities, we muſt refer to the deſcriptions given by Cibber in his *Apology*, and by Aaron Hill, Eſq.; in a political paper, called the *Prompter*, which may be ſeen in Cibber's Lives of the Poets, and Chetwood's Hiſtory of the Stage.—His character as a man was adorned with many amiable qualities.

(2.) BOOTH, Henry, earl of Warrington, was born in 1651, and was member for Cheſter in ſeveral parliaments during the reign of Charles II. Being a zealous proteſtant, he was active in promoting the bill for excluding the D. of York from the throne. This with his vigorous and conſtant oppoſition to the arbitrary meaſures then prevailing, rendered him ſo very obnoxious to the court, that in 1684, (ſoon after his becoming Lord Delamer, by the death of his father,) he was committed cloſe priſoner to the tower, and though liberated ſoon after, he was committed a 2d and 3d time in 1685; and at laſt, in Jan. 1686, tried for high treaſon; but in ſpite of all the efforts of the court, and the bloody Jefferies, was unanimouſly acquitted by his jury. After this he lived retired till matters ripened for the revolution, to which he contributed by raiſing forces and every other means in his power. Upon its accompliſhment, he was made a privy counſellor, chancellor of exchequer, lord lieutenant of Cheſter, &c.; but though he held ſome of theſe offices for life, he was diſmiſſed from others, as he oppoſed the court meaſures, and wiſhed for further limitations of the royal prerogative. But to avoid all appearance of ingratitude, his diſmiſſion was accompanied with the creation of the new title of E. of Warrington, in 1690, and a penſion of L. 2000 a-year. He died 2d Jan. 1694. He wrote ſeveral political tracts, and the caſe of William E. of Devonſhire; which, with his ſpeeches made in parliament, and ſome family prayers, were publiſhed in one vol. 8vo. in 1694.

(3.) BOOTH, in geography, a village in the E. Riding of Yorkſhire, near the Ouſe.

(4.) * BOOTH. *n. ſ.* [*boed*, Dutch; *bwth*, Welch.] A houſe built of boards, or boughs, to be uſed for a ſhort time.—The clothiers found means to have all the queſt made of the northern men, ſuch as had their *booths* in the fair. *Cambden.*—Much miſchief will be done at Bartholomew fair by the fall of a *booth. Swift.*

To BOOT-HALE, *v. a. Obſ.* To rob; to plunder.

BOOT-HALER, *n. ſ. obſ.* A robber.

* BOOT-HOSE. *n. ſ.* [from *boot* and *hoſe.*] Stockings to ſerve for boots; ſpatterdaſhes.—His

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lacquey with a linen ſtock on one leg, and a *boot-hoſe* on the other, gartered with a red and blue liſt. *Shakeſpeare.*

BOOTHS, a town in the High Peak of Derby.

BOOTHS-HALL, a village in Lancaſhire, 3 miles NE. of Leigh. It has fairs, on Whitſ. Sat. and Sat. before October 23.

BOOTING, a kind of rack. See BOOT, § 2, 4.

BOOTING CORN, in our ancient cuſtoms, a rent of corn paid by tenants, by way of boot to the proprietor, for granting them leaſes.

BOOT-LAST. See BOOT-TREE.

BOOTLE, a village in Cumberland, 5 m. from Ravenglaſs. It has fairs April 5, and Sept. 24.

BOOT-LEGS, *n. ſ.* pieces of leather cut for making the legs of boots. *Aſh.*

* BOOTLESS. *adj.* [from *boot.*] 1. Uſeleſs; unprofitable; unavailing; without advantage.—

When thoſe accurſed meſſengers of hell
Came to their wicked man, and 'gan tell
Their *bootleſs* pains, and ill ſucceeding night.
Spenſer.

—God did not ſuffer him, being deſirous of the light of wiſdom, with *bootleſs* expence of travel, to wander in darkneſs. *Hooker.*—

Bootleſs ſpeed,
When cowardice purſues, and valour flies. *Shak.*

Let him alone;
I'll follow him no more with *bootleſs* prayers:
He ſeeks my life. *Shakeſpeare.*

2. Without ſucceſs.—

Doth not Brutus *bootleſs* kneel? *Shakeſp.*

Thrice from the banks of Wye,
And ſandy bottom'd Severn, have I ſent
Him *bootleſs* home, and weather beaten back.
Shakeſpeare.

BOOT-MAKER, *n. ſ.* one who makes boots.

BOOTON, a town in Norfolk, E. of Repham.

(1.) BOOTS, in botany, the marſhmallows.

(2.) BOOTS. See BOOT, § 6—9.

BOOT-TOPPING, in ſea language, the act of cleaning the upper part of the ſhip's bottom, or that part which lies immediately under the ſurface of the water, and daubing it over with tallow, or with a mixture of tallow, ſulphur, reſin, &c.

* BOOT-TREE. *n. ſ.* [from *boot* and *tree.*] Two pieces of wood, ſhaped like a leg, to be driv n into boots, for ſtretching and widening them.

(1.) * BOOTY. *n. ſ.* [*buſt*, Dutch; *butin*, Fr.] 1. Plunder; pillage; ſpoils gained from the enemy.

One way a band ſelect from forage drives
A herd of beeves, fair oxen, and fair kine,
Their *booty*. *Milton.*

—His conſcience is the hue and cry that purſues him; and when he reckons that he has gotten a *booty*, he has only caught a Tartar. *L'Eſtrange.*—

For, ſhould you to extortion be inclin'd,
Your cruel guilt will little *booty* find. *Dryden.*

2. Things gotten by robbery.—If I had a mind to be honeſt, I ſee fortune would not ſuffer me; ſhe drops *booties* in my mouth. *Shakeſpeare.* 3. *To play booty.* To play diſhoneſtly, with an intent to loſe. The French uſe, *Je ſuis bott*, when they mean to ſay, *I will not go.*—We underſtand what we ought to do; but when we deliberate, we *play booty* againſt ourſelves: our conſciences direct us one way, our corruptions hurry us another. *L'Eſtrange.*—I have ſet this argument in the beſt light, that the ladies may not think that I *write booty*. *Dryden.*

(2.) BOOTY, among the Greeks, was divided in common among the army, the general only claiming a larger ſhare. By the military diſcipline of the Romans, ſpoils taken from the enemy belonged to the republic, particular perſons having no right to them. Sometimes indeed they divided it among the ſoldiery, to animate them, and ſerve in lieu of a reward. But this diſtribution depended on the generals, who were to conduct themſelves herein with great equity and moderation; otherwiſe it became a crime of peculation to lay hands on the pillage. The conſuls Romulus and Vaturius were condemned for having ſold the booty taken from the Æqui. During the Jewiſh republic, the booty was divided equally between the army and the people; but under the kings a different kind of diſtribution obtained.—Among the Mahometans, two thirds of the ſpoils are allowed to the army: the other third to God, to Mahomet and his relations, and to the orphans, the poor, and the pilgrims. Among us, formerly the booty was divided among the ſoldiers. If the general be in the field, every body takes what he can lay hold on: if the general be abſent, the booty is diſtributed among the ſoldiers, two parts being allowed the cavalry, and one to the infantry. A captain is allowed ten ſhares, a lieutenant ſix, and a cornet four.

BOOZ. [בּוֹעַז, Heb. *i. e.* ſtrength.] See BOAZ.

* BOPEEP. *n. ſ.* [from *bo* and *peep.*] The act of looking out, and drawing back as if frighted, or with the purpoſe to fright ſome other.—

And I for ſorrow ſung,
That ſuch a king ſhould play *bopeep*. *Shak.*

Where both from ſide to ſide may ſkip,
And only encounter at *bopeep*. *Hudibras.*

—There the devil plays at *bopeep*, puts out his horns to do miſchief, then ſhrinks them back for ſafety. *Dryden.*

BOPFINGEN, a town of Suabia in Germany, ſeated on the Egar. Lon. 9. 55. E. Lat. 48. 51. N.

BOPPART, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Rhine, and electorate of Treves; ſeated at the foot of a mountain, on the W. bank of the Rhine, 8 m. S. of Coblentz. It was taken by the French, in the end of 1794, along with BINGEN, BONN, COBLENTZ, and the reſt of the territory, W. of the Rhine; and is now included in one of the new departments into which that territory is divided. Lon. 7. 10. E. Lat. 50. 20. N.

BOQUINIANS, } a ſect of Sacramentarians,
BOQUINII, } who aſſerted that the body of Chriſt was preſent in the Euchariſt only to thoſe for whom he died; viz. the elect.

BOQUINUS, the founder of the ſect of BOQUINIANS, a Lutheran divine, who taught that Chriſt did not die for all mankind, but only for the faithful, and conſequently was only a particular Saviour. In this opinion he is not ſingular.

BORA, in natural hiſtory, the name uſed for the BUFONITES, by ſome authors; theſe are ſuppoſed by many to be real ſtones, but are only the teeth of a fiſh.

* BORABLE. *adj.* [from *bore.*] That may be bored.

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(1.) * BORACHIO. *n. f.* [*borracho*, Span.] A drunkard.—How you ſtink of wine! D'ye think my piece will ever endure ſuch a *borachio!* you're abſolute *borachio*. *Congreve*.

(2.) BORACHIO is the name of a ſort of leathern bottles, uſed in Spain for bringing wine from the mountains; whence the metaphor, § 1.

BORÆUM, in anc. geog. the name given by Ptolemy to the promontory on the coaſt of Antrim in Ireland, now called ST HELEN'S HEAD.

* BORAGE. *n. f.* [from *borago*, Lat.] A plant. *Miller*.

BORAGO, a ſynonime of the ANCHUSA.

BORAK. [Arab. *i. e.* ſhining.] See ALBORAK.

(1.) * BORAMEZ. *n. f.* The Scythian lamb, generally known by the name of *Agnus Scythicus*.—Much wonder is made of the *boramez*, that ſtrange plant, animal, or vegetable lamb of Tartary, which wolves delight to feed on; which hath the ſhape of a lamb, affordeth a bloody juice upon breaking, and liveth while the plants be conſumed about it. *Brown's Vulgar Errours*.

(2.) BORAMEZ. See AGNUS SCYTHICUS.

BORASSUS, in botany, a genus of plants deſcribed by Linnæus, but not claſſed. The male and female flowers grow on ſeparate plants, and give the plant ſuch a different figure, that they are called by different names, in the Hortus Malabaricus; the male being called AMPANA, and the female CARIMPANA. The male has for the cup of its flower the whole compound ſpatha, which is amentaceous and imbricated: the flower is divided into 3 ſegments, the petals being hollowed, and of an oval figure: the ſtamina are 6 thick filaments, and the antheræ are thick and ſtriated. In the female the cup is the ſame as in the male, but the petals of the flower, which is divided into 3 parts, in the manner of the male, are very ſmall, of a roundiſh figure, and remain when the piſtil, &c. fall off. The germen of the piſtil is roundiſh; the ſtyles are 3, and ſmall, and the ſtigmata are ſmall; the fruit is a roundiſh obtuſe berry, of a rigid ſtructure, and containing only one cell; the ſeeds are 3, and of an oval compreſſed figure.

(I.) * BORAX. *n. f.* [*borax*, low Latin.] An artificial ſalt, prepared from ſal amoniac, nitre, calcined tartar, ſea ſalt, and alum, diſſolved in wine. It is principally uſed to ſolder metals, and ſometimes an uterine ingredient in medicine. *Quincy*.

(II.) BORAX, ACCOUNTS OF THE ORIGIN OF. Borax is a ſalt in appearance ſimilar to alum, brought originally from the Eaſt Indies in an impure ſtate, and afterwards purified in Europe. It was long uncertain whether this ſalt was a natural or factitious ſubſtance; but it is now aſcertained that it is naturally produced in the mountains of Thibet, from whence other parts of the eaſtern continent are ſupplied. Mr Kirwan, in his mineralogy, informs us, that Mr Grill Adamſon ſent ſome to Sweden in 1772, in a cryſtalline form, as dug out of the earth in Thibet, where it is called *pouuxa*, *my-poost*, and *boui-poun*. It is ſaid to have been found in Saxony in ſome coal-pits. In the *Phil. Tranſ.* vol. 77. we have two different accounts of the place where it is found, and the manner of obtaining it. One of theſe is by William Blane, Eſq. who tells us that in the language of the country it is called *Swagah*, and is brought into Hindoſtan from the mountains of Thibet. It is produced in Jumlate, about 50 days journey N. from Betowle, a ſmall principality about 200 miles NE. of Lucknow. The place where it is found is ſaid to be a ſmall valley ſurrounded with ſnowy mountains, in which is a lake about 6 miles in circumference; the water of which is conſtantly ſo hot, that the hand cannot bear it for any time. Around this lake the ground is perfectly barren, not producing even a blade of graſs; and the earth is ſo full of a ſaline matter, that after falls of rain or ſnow it concretes in white flakes on the ſurface, like the natron of Hindooſtan. On the banks of this lake in winter, when the falls of ſnow begin, the earth is formed into ſmall reſervoirs ſix inches high: when theſe are filled with ſnow, the hot water from the lake is thrown upon it; which, together, with the water from the melted ſnow, remains in the reſervoir, to be partly abſorbed by the earth, and partly evaporated by the ſun; after which there remains at the bottom a cake, ſometimes half an inch thick, of crude borax, which is taken up for uſe. It can only be made in winter, becauſe the falls of ſnow are indiſpenſably requiſite, and alſo becauſe the ſaline appearances upon the earth are ſtrongeſt at that time. When once it has been made, it cannot be made again on the ſame ſpot, until the ſnow has fallen and diſſolved 3 or 4 times, when the ſaline efflorescence appears as before. The borax, in this ſtate, is carried from hill to hill upon goats, and paſſes through many hands, which increaſes the difficulty of obtaining any authentic information concerning the original manufacture. When brought down from the hills, it is refined from its groſs impurities by boiling and cryſtallization. Mr Blane could obtain no anſwer, from thoſe who gave him this account, to any of his queſtions concerning the quality of the water and the mineral productions of the ſoil. All they could tell him was, that the water was very hot, very foul, and as it were very greaſy; that it boils up in many places, and has a very offenſive ſmell; and that the ſoil is remarkable only for the ſaline appearances already mentioned. The country in general produces conſiderable quantities of iron, copper, and ſulphur; and Mr Blane was aſſured that all the borax in India came from this place. With reſpect to the credibility of the account, he obſerves, firſt, "That borax is really brought from the mountains of Thibet is certain, as he himſelf often had occaſion to ſee large quantities of it brought down, and had purchaſed it from the Tartar mountaineers, who brought it to market: 2dly, he had never heard of its being produced or brought into India from any other quarter; and, 3dly, if it were made on the coaſt of Coromandel, he thinks there can be little doubt but that the whole proceſs would have been fully inquired into, and given to the public long before this time." The other account is from father Joſeph de Ravato, preſident of the miſſion of Thibet, and ſent in a letter to the Royal Society, communicated by Joſeph Banks, Eſq. He pretends alſo to have had this intelligence from a native of the country, though it differs conſiderably from that of Mr Blane. "In the province of Marme (ſays he), 28 days

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days journey N. of Nepal, and 25 to the W. of Lassa, the capital of Thibet, there is a vale about 8 miles broad. In a part of this vale there are two villages, the inhabitants of which are wholly employed in digging the borax, which they sell into Thibet and Nepal. Near these two villages there is a pool of a moderate size, and some smaller ones, where the ground is hollow and the rain collects. In these pools, after the water has been some time detained in them, the borax is formed naturally: the men wading into the water, feel a kind of pavement under their feet, which is a sure indication that borax is there formed, and there they accordingly dig it. Where there is little water, the layer of borax is thin; where it is deep, it is thicker; and near the latter there is always an inch or two of soft mud, which is probably a deposit of the water after it has been agitated by rain or wind. Thus is the borax produced merely by nature, without either boiling or distillation. The water in which it is formed is so bad, that the drinking a small quantity of it will occasion a swelling of the abdomen, and in a short time death itself. The earth that yields the borax is of a whitish colour; and in the same valley, about 4 miles from the pools, there are mines of salt, which is there dug in great abundance for the use of all the inhabitants of these mountains, who live at a great distance from the sea. Ten days journey farther N. there is another valley named TAPRE, where they dig borax; and another still farther to the northward, named CIOGA. Borax, in the Hindoo and Nepalese languages, is called SOAGA. If it be not purified, it will easily deliquesce; and in order to preserve it for any time, till they have an opportunity of selling it, the people often mix it with earth and butter. In the territory of Mungden, 16 days journey N. of Nepal, there are rich mines of arsenic; and in various other places are found mines of sulphur, as also of gold and silver, whose produce is much purer than those of the mines of Pegu." See § V.

(III.) BORAX, CHEMICAL ANALYSIS OF. Borax is a peculiar neutral salt, formed by the union of a kind of acid with mineral alkali. This acid, from some supposed properties of allaying the heat of fevers, had the name of *sal sedativum*, which it still retains. According to Mr Kirwan, 100 parts of purified borax contain 32 of real boracic acid, 17 of mineral alkali, and about 47 of water; but of this quantity of mineral alkali only about 5 parts are saturated; whence, in many cases, borax acts as an alkali. Bergman informs us, that it requires an equal weight of acid to make the alkaline properties entirely disappear; and Dr Withering, that double the quantity of acid is required for this purpose, both in the tincal and refined borax. See § IV. N° 2 and 3.

(IV.) BORAX, DIFFERENT KINDS OF. Mr Fourcroy informs us, that borax is found, in commerce, in three different states.

1. BORAX, CHINESE, is somewhat pure, and is met with in the form of small plates or masses irregularly crystalized, and of a dirty white. It appears to consist of fragments of prisms and pyramids, confounded together without any symmetrical arrangement. A white powder appears on the surface, thought to be of an argillaceous nature.

2. BORAX, CRUDE, tincal, or chrysocolla, comes from Persia in greenish masses, of a greasy feel, or in opaque crystals of an olive green, which are six-sided prisms terminated by irregular prisms.—There are two varieties of these crystals differing in magnitude. This salt is very impure by the addition of foreign matters. Mr Kirwan tells us, that this kind is called *brute borax*, *tincal*, or *chrysocolla*, and that it is in the form of large, flat, hexangular, or irregular crystals, of a dull white or greenish colour, greasy to the touch, or in small crystals, as it were cemented together by a rancid yellowish oily substance, intermixed with marl, gravel, and other impurities. Mr Engestrom has a suspicion that the tincal is only the residuum of the mother liquor of borax evaporated to dryness; and that the greasiness arises from its being mixed with butter milk, to prevent its efflorescence.

3. BORAX, DUTCH, or purified borax, is in the form of portions of transparent crystals of considerable purity. Pyramids with several facets may be observed among them, the crystallization appearing to have been interrupted. "This form, (says Mr Fourcroy) shows to a certainty that the Dutch refine this salt by solution and crystallization."—Mr Kirwan says, that it is purified by solution, filtration, and installization; and the crystals thus obtained are calcined, to free them still farther from greasiness; and then dissolved, filtered, and crystallized a second time. Sometimes more mineral alkali is added, as tincal is said to contain an excess of sedative salt. Mr Fourcroy tells us, that a purified borax, not inferior to the Dutch, but perhaps even of a greater purity, is prepared by some chemists at Paris.

(V.) BORAX, DISCOVERIES AND OPINIONS RESPECTING. M. Fourcroy says, that M. La Piame, an eminent apothecary at Paris, has discovered, that borax is continually formed in the soap-suds and refuse waters of the kitchen, which a person preserves in a kind of ditch; and from which, at the end of a certain time, he obtains true borax in fine crystals. Some authors affirm, that it is produced by art in China. A mixture of grease, clay, and dung, is said to be deposited in a ditch, *stratum super stratum*. This mixture is sprinkled with water, and suffered to remain for some years; at the end of which time it is lixiviated, and affords crude borax by evaporation. Others have alledged, that it is obtained from water which filters through copper mines. Mr Beaume positively asserts, that the former of these processes succeeded very well with him; but Dr Black gives little credit to his assertions. Borax has been by some supposed to be an artificial production, and perhaps may be artificially made; (See CHEMISTRY, INDEX;) but Mr Hoefer, apothecary to the late Emperor Leopold II. when grand duke of Tuscany, discovered that the waters of several lakes in that country contain it in a state of great purity. It is probable, (says our author) that it may hereafter be found in other mineral waters; and it seems to be produced by the putrefaction of fat substances. Mr Hoefer first discovered this acid in the waters of Lagoon, named *Cerchiale*, near Monte Rotondo, of which discovery an account was published in 1778. The same was found in a concrete state in six places, viz. the lake

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lake of *Travale*, 20 miles W. of Sienna; that of *Rotonda*, 10 miles farther W.; of *del Saſſo*, 3 m. farther; of *Saraszano*, 6 m. from Monte Rotondo; of *Caſtel Nuovo*, 7 m. from Monte Rotondo and 24 from Sienna; and that of *Monte Cerboli*, 4 miles diſtant from *Caſtel Nuovo*. In the neighbourhood of all theſe lakes are conſiderable ſprings of hot water ruſhing out of the earth, ſome clear, and ſome muddy; either of a dark, or a whitiſh colour; and, in ſome, a kind of metallic cruſt or pellicle is perceived on the ſurface of the water. Many cavities from which the waters ruſh out ſeem to be true ſmall volcanic craters, and continually emit from the earth vapours of a ſulphureous and ammoniacal nature. Theſe waters not only contain the acid of borax, both in the fluid and concrete ſtate, but various other concretions are there obſerved, ſuch as martial vitriol, ammoniacal, aluminous, concrete boracic ſalt, brimſtone, &c. "It is remarkable, (ſays our author, p. 363.) that, near 40 years ago, Dr Hill, in his notes on *Theophraſtus's Treatiſe on Stones*, aſſerted, that borax was a ſalt made by evaporation of an ill taſted and foul water, of which there were ſprings in Perſia, Muſcovy, and Tartary. Mr Beaume, at Paris, pretended to have diſcovered the method of making the ſedative ſalt by a long maceration of greaſe and earthy ſubſtances; but nobody has yet been able to verify this fanciful diſcovery. The unrefined borax which is brought to Europe under the name of *tincal*, looks like ſoft ſoap, is fat, and covers or encruſts the borax cryſtals. Mr Swab has publiſhed ſome experiments upon this tincal in the acts of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Stockholm for 1756. He found it in a martial earth, and a fat ſubſtance, which, to ſmell, and other circumſtances, comes neareſt to a mineral fat; as alſo, that pure borax does not yield any *hepar ſulphuris* when united with a phlogiſton and a vitriolic acid; from which he concludes, that borax is prepared from its own particular mineral ſubſtance. Profeſſor Pott and M. d'Henouiville have very carefully examined the refined borax; and from their experiments, which have been publiſhed, it is evident, that it is of a peculiar nature. However, there remains to be known, for certain, from whence it is prepared by the Indians: for if it is produced from a mineral ſubſtance, as is very probable, there muſt exiſt other mixtures and compoſitions as yet unknown to the learned world. I have alſo found in the tincal ſmall bits of leather, bones, and ſmall peebles, whence there is no certainty to be concluded on from its examination; but if it ſhould happen that it is prepared from animal ſubſtances, it muſt be allowed, that nature has formed an alkaline ſalt in the animal kingdom analogous to the *ſal fuſibile microcoſmicum*."

(VI.) BORAX, USES OF. Borax ſerves as a flux to vitrifiable earths, with which it forms a good glaſs, and is employed in making artificial gems. It vitrifies clay, but much leſs completely than ſiliceous earths; and from this property it adheres to the inſide of crucibles, and glazes them. The acid of borax, (§ III.) as well as the borax in ſubſtance, is made uſe of to fuſe vitrifiable earths, with which it forms clear and nearly colourleſs glaſſes: by the aſſiſtance of heat it diſſolves the earth precipitated from the liquor of flints. It unites with ponderous earth, magneſia, lime, and alkalis, and forms, with different ſubſtances, ſalts diſtinguiſhed by one general name of borax, tho' only that formed by the combination of ſedative ſalt and mineral alkali is uſed in the arts. It is uſed in many other chemical operations as a flux, beſides that of glaſs-making; and the dyers alſo uſe it for giving a gloſs to ſilks. In medicine it has been given as a narcotic, and was formerly an ingredient in a powder for promoting delivery, but is now diſuſed.

BORBEREK, a town of Tranſylvania, in the county of Weſſenburg, ſeated on the river Maros. It has a caſtle ſeated on a high rock, and fortified with towers.

BORBETOMAGUS, in anc. geog. a city of of the Vangiones on the Rhine; now called WORMS.

BORBONIA, in botany, a genus of the decandria order, belonging to the diadelphia claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 32d order, *Caryophylleæ*. The ſtigma is emarginated; the calyx has pointed ſpines; and the legumen is pointed. There are ſix ſpecies, all natives of warm countries. They are a kind of broom; and riſe to the height of 10 or 12 feet, but in Europe ſeldom above 4 or 5. They muſt be kept conſtantly in the ſtove, and may be propagated by ſhoots; but as theſe are generally two years before they put forth roots, the beſt method is by ſeeds, which muſt be procured from their native places.

BORBONIA ASTRA, a denomination formerly given by ſome French writers to the ſolar ſpots, on a ſuppoſition that they were ſecondary planets.

BORBONIUS, Nicholas, a French Latin poet of the 16th century. He was highly eſteemed by the moſt learned men of his time. His poems were printed in 1540.

BORBORIANI, } in church hiſtory, a ſect of
BORBORITES, } gnoſtics, in the 2d century, who, beſides embracing the errors of theſe heretics, denied the laſt judgment. Their name comes from βορβορος, filth; on account of a cuſtom they had of daubing their faces and bodies with dirt.

BORBORYGMUS, [βορβορυγμος, Gr.] a rumbling or croaking of the inteſtines.

BORBOTHA, in ichthyology, a name given by ſome authors to the MUSTELA FLUVIATILIS, or eel-pout.

BORCH, a town of Lower Saxony, 14 miles NE. of Magdeburgh, ſeated on the Elbe. Lon. 12. 14. E. Lat. 52. 25. N.

BORCHLOEN, or LOOTS, a town in the ci-devant biſhopric of Liege, now included in one of the departments of the French republic. It is 15 miles NW. of Liege. Lon. 5. 28. E. Lat. 50. 50. N.

BORCOVIUM, in ancient geography, a town of the Ottadini in Britain, now called Berwick. See BERWICK, N° 2.

(I.) BORD, *n. ſ. obſ.* a cottage. *Spenſ.* See ABOARD.

(II.) BORD, *n. ſ. obſ.* a table, or board. *Chauc.*

(III.) BORD, in law, is variouſly applied: *e. g.*

1. BORD HALFPENNY, a ſmall toll by cuſtom paid to the lord of the town for ſetting up boards, tables, booths, &c. in fairs or markets.

2. BORD LANDS, the demeſnes which lords anciently

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ciently kept in their hands for the maintenance of their board or table.

3. BORD LODE, 1. a ſervice required of tenants, to carry timber out of the woods of the lord to his houſe: 2. the quantity of proviſion which the BORDARII, or bordmen, paid for their bord lands.

4. BORD MAN, a tenant on bord lands.

5. BORD SERVICE, the tenure of bord lands, by which ſome lands in certain places are held of the biſhop of London, and the tenants now pay 6d. per acre, in lieu of ſending proviſion as formerly for their lord's table.

To BORD, *v. a. obſ.* To approach. *Spenſer.*

BORDA, [old law Lat.] a board, or plank.

BORDAGE, or BORDAGIUM, } the condition of the *bordarii* or *barii.*

BORDARIA, in old records, a cottage.

BORDARII, often mentioned in the Domeſday inquiſition, were diſtinct from the SERVI and VILLANI, and ſeem to be thoſe of a leſs ſervile condition, who had a bord or cottage, with a ſmall parcel of land allowed to them, on condition they ſhould ſupply the lord with poultry and eggs, and other ſmall proviſions for his board and entertainment. Though, according to Spelman, the *bordarii* were inferior to the *villani*, as being limited to a ſmall number of acres.

BORDAT, in commerce, a ſmall narrow ſtuff, manufactured in ſome parts of Egypt, particularly in Cairo, Alexandria, and Damietta.

BORD CLOTH, *n. ſ. obſ.* a table-cloth. *Chauc.*

(1.) BORDE, Andrew, M. D. was born at Pevenſey in Suſſex, early in the 16th century. In his *Introduction to Knowledge*, he ſays, that he was a ſtudent of Oxford. He entered a brother of a Carthuſian convent in or near London; but, not liking their diſcipline, he returned to Oxford, and applied to phyſic. Some time after, he embarked for the continent; and, as he expreſſes it, "travelled through and round about Chriſtendom, and out of Chriſtendom into ſome parts of Africa." In 1541 and 1542, he reſided at Montpelier, where he was made M. D. and after his return to England received the ſame degree at Oxford. From his preface it appears that he had alſo been in Scotland. Having ſatisfied his inclination for travelling, he ſettled firſt at Pevenſey, afterwards at Wincheſter, and finally in London, where he became firſt phyſician to Henry VIII; notwithſtanding which, he had the misfortune to end his life in the Fleet priſon, in 1549. Wood ſays, "he was eſteemed a noted poet, a witty and ingenious perſon, and an excellent phyſician." Pitts calls him a man of ſufficient learning, but too volatile. His writings are, 1. A book of the introduction of knowledge, the whych doth teach a man to ſpeak part of all manner of languages, &c. Lond. 1542, 4to; dedicated, from Montpelier, to the lady Mary, daughter of Henry VIII. It is written partly in verſe, and partly in proſe. 2. The breviary of health, Lond. 1547, 4to. 3. Dietary of health, Lond. 1576, 8vo. 4. The merry tales of the madmen of Gotham: Printed, ſays Wood, in the time of Henry VIII. in whoſe reign, and after, it was accounted a book full of wit and mirth, by ſcholars and gentlemen. It is now ſold only on the ſtalls of ballad-ſellers. 5. A right pleaſant and merry hiſtory of the mylner of Abington, with his wife and his fair daughter, and of two poor ſcholars of Cambridge. Lond. 4to. 6. A book of every region, country, and province. &c. publiſhed by Hearne at end of *Benedictus abbas Peterb. de vita Henrici* II. Oxf. 1735, 8vo. 7. The principles of aſtronomy, Lond. 12mo. The author ſays, that he wrote this little book in 4 days, with one old pen without mending.

(2.) BORDE, *n. ſ. obſ.* A jeſt. *Chauc.*

To BORDE. *v. n. obſ.* To jeſt. *Chauc.*

BORGEKIN. See BOOT, § 4.

* BORDEL. } [*bordeel*, Teut. *bordel*, Armo-
* BORDELLO. } rick.] A brothel; a bawdy-houſe.—

From the *Bordello* it might come as well,
The ſpital, or pictchatch. *Ben Jonſon.*

—Making even his own houſe a ſtew, a *bordel*, and a ſchool of lewdneſs, to inſtil vice into the unwary ears of his poor children. *South.*

BORDENTOWN, a thriving town of the United States in Burlington County, New Jerſey; ſeated on the E. ſide of the Delaware, 26 miles above Philadelphia, and 4 SE. by S. of Trenton. It conſiſts of about 100 houſes, a grammar ſchool, and 2 churches for Baptiſts and Quakers. As it ſtands on a riſing ground, about 70 feet perpendicular above the Delaware, between two creeks which run into that river, it is extremely healthy. Lon. 29. 0. E. Lat. 40. 12. N.

(1.) * BORDER. *n. ſ.* [*bord*, Germ. *bord*, Fr.] 1. The outer part or edge of any thing.—They have looking-glaſſes, bordered with broad *borders* of cryſtal, and great counterfeit precious ſtones. *Bacon.*—The light muſt ſtrike on the middle, and extend its greateſt clearneſs on the principal figures; diminiſhing by degrees, as it comes nearer and nearer to the *borders*. *Dryden.* 2. The march or edge of a country; the confine.—If a prince keep his reſidence on the *border* of his dominions, the remote parts will rebel; but if he make the centre his ſeat, he ſhall eaſily keep them in obedience. *Spenſer.* 3. The outer part of a garment, generally adorned with needle-work, or ornaments. 4. A bank raiſed round a garden, and ſet with flowers; a narrow rank of herbs or flowers.—

There he arriving, round about doth fly
From bed to bed, from one to other *border*,
And takes ſurvey, with curious buſy eye,
Of every flower and herb there ſet in order.
Spenſer.

All with a *border* of rich fruit trees crown'd,
Whoſe loaded branches hide the lofty mound:
Such various ways the ſpacious alleys lead,
My doubtful muſe knows not what path to tread. *Waller.*

(2.) BORDERS, among florifts, the leaves which ſtand round the middle thrum of a flower.

(3.) BORDERS, in gardening, are made to incloſe parterres, that they may not be injured by walking in them. Borders are made either circular, ſtraight, or in cants; and are turned into knots, ſcrolls, volutes, and other compartments. They are rendered very ornamental by the flowers, ſhrubs, yews, &c. that are raiſed in them. They are always laid with a ſharp riſing in the middle; to render them more agreeable to the eye: the largeſt are allowed 5 or 6 feet, and the ſmalleſt commonly 4.

(1.) * *To*

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(1.) * *To* BORDER. *v. a.* 1. To adorn with a border of ornaments. 2. To reach; to touch; to confine upon; to be contiguous to.—Sheba and Raamah are thoſe parts of Arabia, which *border* the ſea called the Perſian gulf. *Raleigh.*

(2.) * *To* BORDER. *v. n.* [from the noun.] 1. To confine upon; to touch ſomething elſe at the ſide or edge: with *upon.*—It *bordereth upon* the province of Croatio, which, in time paſt, had continual wars with the Turks garriſons. *Knolles.*—Virtue and honour had their temples *bordering on* each other, and are ſometimes both on the ſame coin. *Addiſon.* 2. To approach nearly to.—All wit, which *borders upon* profaneneſs, and makes bold with thoſe things to which the greateſt reverence is due, deſerves to be branded with folly. *Tillotſon.*

* BORDERER. *n. ſ.* [from *border.*] He that dwells on the borders, extreme parts, or confines; he that dwells next to any place.—

They of thoſe marches, gracious ſovereign!
Shall be wall ſufficient to defend
Our inland from the pilfering *borderer. Shakeſp.*

—The king of Scots in perſon, with Perkin in his company, entered with a great army, though it chiefly conſiſted of *borderers*, being raiſed ſomewhat ſuddenly. *Bacon.*—

BORD-FREE, *adj.* not liable to pay the Bord halfpenny. See BORD, § III. N° 1.

BORDILLER, *n. ſ. obſ.* A frequenter of brothels. *Chauc.*

BORDOE, one of the FARO iſlands. It has a ſafe harbour called KLACK.

BORDONE. See BORDUNI.

* *To* BORDRAGE. *v. n.* [from *border.*] To plunder the borders. Not in uſe.—

Long time in peace his realm eſtabliſhed,
Yet oft annoy'd with ſundry *bordragings*
Of neighbour Scots, and foreign ſcatterlings.
Spenſer.

BORDRAGING, *n. ſ. obſ.* The act of plundering on the borders of a country. *Aſh.*

BORDUNI, or BORDONE, Paris, an excellent Italian painter, born at Venice about 1512. He was the diſciple of Titian; but has been admired more from the delicacy of his pencil, than for the truth of his outlines. For Francis I. of France, he drew not only abundance of hiſtory pieces, but the portraits of ſeveral court ladies, in ſo fine a manner, that original nature was hardly more charming. He died in 1587, aged 75.

BORDURE. See HERALDRY.

(1.) BORE, Catharine DE, wife of LUTHER, the celebrated reformer, was the daughter of a private gentleman, and was born about A. D. 1499. Having been early immured in the monaſtery of Nimptſchen, ſhe left it, along with other 8 nuns in 1523, during the buſtle of the *holy week*, and was married to Luther in 1526. On theſe accounts the Catholic writers raiſed many calumnies againſt her, from which Mr Bayle has very completely vindicated her; and points out numberleſs miſtakes of Varillas and others concerning her. He gives her an excellent character, and mentions, that Luther was ſatisfied with his choice, that he ſaid, "he would not change his condition for the wealth of Croeſus." She bore him 5 children, and ſurvived him a few years. She died at Torgau in 1552, aged 53.

(2.) * BORE. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. The hole made by boring.—

Into hollow engines long and round,
Thick ramm'd, at th' other *bore. Milton.*

2. The inſtrument with which a hole is bored.—So ſhall that hole be fit for the file, or ſquare *bore. Moxon.* 3. The ſize of any hole; the cavity; the hollow.—We took a cylindrical pipe of glaſs, whoſe *bore* was about a quarter of an inch in diameter. *Boyle.*—

The ſtrength of big-corn'd powder loves to try,
And ball and cartridge ſorts for every *bore.*
Dryden.

—It will beſt appear in the *bores* of wind inſtruments; therefore cauſe pipes to be made with a ſingle, double, and ſo on, to a ſextuple *bore*; and mark what tone every one giveth. *Bacon.*

(3.) * BORE. *preterite of bear.*

'Twas my fate
To kill my father, and pollute his bed,
By marrying her who *bore* me. *Dryden.*

(4.) BORE OF A GUN, or CANNON, denotes the diameter of it, or rather its whole cavity.

(5.) BORE, SQUARE, in ſmithery, a ſquare ſteel point, or ſhank well tempered, fitted in a ſquare ſocket in an iron wimble, ſerving to widen holes, and make them round and ſmooth within.

(1.) * *To* BORE. *v. a.* [*borian*, Sax.] 1. To pierce in a hole.—

I'll believe as ſoon,
This whole earth may *bor'd. Shakeſp.*

—Mulberries will be fairer, if you *bore* the trunk of the tree through, and thruſt, into the places *bored*, wedges of ſome hot trees. *Bacon.* 2. To hollow.—Take the barrel of a long gun, perfectly *bored*, and ſet it upright, and take a bullet exactly fit for it; and then if thou ſuck at the mouth of the barrel never ſo gently, the bullet will come up ſo forcibly, that it will hazard the ſtriking out your teeth. *Digby.* 3. To make by piercing.—Theſe diminutive caterpillars are able, by degrees, to pierce or *bore* their way into a tree, with very ſmall holes; which, after they are fully entered, grow together. *Ray.* 4. To pierce, to break through.—

Conſider, reader, what fatigues I've known,
What riots ſeen, what buſtling crouds I *bor'd*,
How oft I croſs'd where carts and coaches roar'd.
Gay.

(2.) * *To* BORE. *v. a.* 1. To make a hole.—A man may make an inſtrument to *bore* a hole an inch wide, or half an inch, not to *bore* a hole of a foot. *Wilkins.* 2. To puſh forwards toward a certain point.—

Thoſe milk paps,
That thro' the window bars *bore* at men's eyes,
Are not within the leaf of pity writ. *Shakeſp.*

(3.) * *To* BORE. *v. n.* [with farriers.] Is when a horſe carries his noſe near the ground. *Dict.*

BOREA, an ancient name for a ſpecies of jaſper, of a bluiſh green colour.

* BOREAL. *adj.* [*borealis*, Lat.] Northern; ſeptentrional.—

Crete's ample fields diminiſh to our eye;
Before the *boreal* blaſts the veſſels fly. *Pope.*

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BOREALIS, Aurora. See Aurora, N° II. § 2—6.

(1.) * BOREAS. *n. s.* [*Lat*] The north wind.

Boreas, and Cæcas, an Argeſtas loud,
And Thraciias, rend the woods, and ſeas up-turn. *Milton.*

(1.) Boreas is derived by Chambers from the Greek, βορα, food, becauſe the north wind creates an appetite. Pezon obſerves, that anciently Boreas ſignified the *north-eaſt wind* blowing at the time of the ſummer ſolſtice.

(2.) Boreas, in the ancient mythology, is repreſented as the ſon of the giant Aſtræus, by the goddeſs Aurora, and to have reigned in Thrace, becauſe Thrace lay N. of Greece. Notwithſtanding the coldneſs of his blaſts, he is ſaid to have been very warm in his love; and to have raviſhed Orithya the daughter of Erectheus, king of Athens, who bore him Zetes and Calais, two of the Argonauts, and 6 daughters. He is alſo ſaid to have carried off Chloris the daughter of Arcturus, and to have daſhed Pitys, another of his miſtreſſes, againſt a rock in a fit of jealouſy, becauſe ſhe preferred the god Pan: Mr Bayle has a long article full of learned and humorous remarks upon his amours. The Greeks paid divine honours to Boreas. The Megalopolitans honoured him as their chief deity; and the Athenians, conſidering him as their ally, by his marriage with their ancient king's daughter, implored his aid in their wars with the Perſians. He is repreſented on the temple at Athens with his robe before his mouth, as if he felt the cold of the climate over which he preſides; agreeably to which, Ovid calls him *gelidus tyrannus*, the ſhivering tyrant. But he is uſually deſcribed by the Roman poets as violent and impetuous. In painting, he is repreſented as an old man with a horrible look, his hair and beard covered with ſnow or hoar-froſt, with the feet and tail of a dragon. M. Spierlingius has a treatiſe in praiſe of Boreas, wherein he ſhows the honours paid to him by antiquity; Boreas, he ſays, purifies the air, renders it calm and ſalubrious, preſerves buildings from decay, drives away the plague and other noxious diſeaſes, and expels locuſts and other vermin hurtful to the grounds.

BOREASMI, feaſts inſtituted at Athens in honour of Boreas.

BORECH, a kind of ſalt brought from Perſia.

BORECOLE, a ſpecies, or rather variety, of cabbage. See Brassica.

* BOREE. *n. ſ.* A kind of dance.—

Dick could neatly dance a jig,
But Tom was beſt at *borees*. *Swift.*

BOREHAM, the name of three Engliſh villages: 1. in Eſſex, near Chelmſford, famous for a ſtately ancient fabric, once the moſt magnificent in the county, now in ruins: 2. in Suſſex, near Aſhburnham: 3. in Wiltſhire, near Warminſter.

BOREHILL, in Surry, near Horſbury hill.

BOREL, Peter, M. D. was the ſon of James Borel who publiſhed ſeveral poems, and was born at Caſtres in 1620. He applied himſelf to the ſtudy of phyſic, and practiſed with great ſucceſs in the city of Caſtres. Towards the end of 1653, he went to Paris, and was ſoon after made king's phyſician. In 1674, he was received into the academy of ſciences, and diſtinguiſhed himſelf by writing a great number of works. The moſt eſteemed are, 1. *Bibliotheca & obſervationum medico-phyſicarum*. 2. *Bibliotheca chymica*, 12mo. 3. *De vero teleſcopii inventore, cum brevi omnium conſpiciliorum hiſtoria*. He died in 1678.

BORELAND. See Borland, N° 1, & 2.

BORELL, *adj. obſ.* Ignorant; rude. *Chauc.*

BORELLI, John Alphonſo, a famous philoſopher, and mathematician born at Naples in 1608. He was profeſſor of philoſophy and mathematics at Florence and Piſa, where he became highly in favour with the princes of the houſe of Medicis; but having been engaged in the revolt of Meſſina, he was obliged to retire to Rome, where he ſpent the remainder of his life, under the protection of Chriſtiana queen of Sweden, who by his liberality ſoftened the rigour of his fortune. He continued two years in the convent of the regular clergy of St Pantaleon, called the *Pious Schools*, where he inſtructed the youth in mathematics. He died there of a pleuriſy, in 1679, aged 72. He wrote, in Latin. 1. Euclid reſtored. 2. The theory of the influence of the planets in medicine, deduced from phyſical cauſes. 3. Of percuſſive force. 4. Of natural motions depending upon gravity. 5. An hiſtorical and meteorological account of the burning of mount Ætna, in 1669. 6. Of the motion of animals; and ſome other works, ſome of which are in Italian.

BOREPLACE, in Kent, 5 miles W. of Tunbridge.

(1.) * BORER. *n. ſ.* [from *bore*.] A piercer; an inſtrument to make holes with.—The maſter-bricklayer muſt try all the foundations, with a *borer*, ſuch as well-diggers uſe, to try the ground. *Moxon.*

(2.) Borer, an inſtrument, uſed to make holes in various ſubſtances with. There is a very curious and ſimple machine, of this kind, uſed in America, conſiſting of the common centre-bit of the carpenters, followed by a wide flat thread-ſcrew, hammered up from a plate of iron, or ſteel: it is ſaid that it is uſed to bore holes, ſeveral feet in length, and it does it with this peculiar advantage, that it clears out the cuttings, without being itſelf drawn out, as is done with the augre, the gimblet, and other ſimilar tools. Whether this advantage would be as completely obtained in boring perpendicularly down, to conſiderable depths, is not ſo certain, but that it would be completely effected in horizontal, or ſlightly inclined holes, will appear beyond a doubt, by the following deſcription of its mode of working; the cuttings or ſhavings formed by the tool, are partly by their own weight, and partly by friction againſt the internal cylindrical ſurface, prevented from revolving along with the ſcrew, the conſequence is, that they are preſſed againſt its thread, and ſlide along it towards the handle; now as this motion, or ſhifting of the thread, is quicker than the progreſs of boring, by which the whole tool is carried forwards, the cuttings muſt come out with a ſpeed nearly equal to the difference between theſe two motions. Mr Eccleſton produced to the Society of Arts, an inſtrument for boring Peat, which conſiſts of a cylindrical body, 6 inches in diameter, and

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and about 2 feet long; one half of the mouth is sharpened like a carpenter's augre, and at the other end there is an aperture (through which the peat introduced by the action of boring, is drawn out,) over which are some slips of iron, joined at the top, and terminated by a screw, by which it is connected with the common boring rod.

BORESWORTH-HUSBAND, a village in Leicestershire near Northampton.

BORG. See BORGUE.

BORGARUTIUS, Prosper, an eminent Italian physician of the 16th century, and professor of anatomy at Padua. He published several works, particularly a treatise on anatomy, first in Italian and afterwards in Latin. He went to France in 1567, and was made king's physician to Charles IX. Having met with a MS. copy of Vesalius's *Chirurgia Magna*, at Paris, he revised and published it at Venice, in 1569, in 8vo.

BORG-BREGE. See BORGI FRACTURA.

BORGE, or } [Sax.] A pledge of security for
BORGHA, } another's keeping the peace, and conforming to the laws.

BORGE-FORDS, or BORGAN-FIORDER in geography, a district of Iceland, which is rendered famous by its warm baths, erected by Snorra Sturlison, the eminent historian, in the thirteenth century; they are so large and well planned, that a hundred persons may bathe in them at one time without inconvenience; near these is that remarkable one which received the name of the Cross Bath, from the inhabitants of the western part of the island, being baptized in it, Ann. Dom. 1000.

BORGHEIM, a town of Germany, in the electorate of Cologn, situated near the E. bank of the Rhine, between Dusseldorff and Nuys, in the territory which was over-run by the French republican army in 1794, and 1796.

BORGHETTO, a town of Italy, in the Veronese, near which Buonaparte obtained a victory over the Austrians, in June 1796.

(1.) BORGIA, Cardinal, was elected Pope in 1492, having obtained the chair of *infallibility* by bribery, and took the name of ALEXANDER VI. During his cardinalship, he had, by his mistress Vanozza, 4 sons, and a daughter, who was named *Lucretia*, but proved extremely unworthy of the name; for she had the monstrous depravity of not only committing incest with two of her brothers, but even of consenting to the brutality of her father; who, in a fit of jealousy, killed one of his sons, whom she preferred to him. His favourite son, Francis, the only good character in the family, was murdered by his brother Cæsar. The avarice of this monster was as unbounded as his lust, and he fell a deserved sacrifice to it at last: see N° 2. Alstedius has the following epitaph upon him:

Vendit Alexander sacramenta, altaria, Christum:
Emerat ille prius; vendere jure potest.

(2.) BORGIA, Cæsar, natural son of pope Alexander IV. was a brave general, but a most abandoned villain: see ITALY, HISTORY OF. It is incredible what numbers he caused to be taken off by poison, or by the sword. Swarms of assassins were constantly kept in pay by him at Rome, for removing all who were obnoxious or inconvenient to him. He experienced various turns of fortune, being sometimes very prosperous, sometimes the reverse. He narrowly escaped dying by poison in 1503; for having concerted with his father a design of poisoning nine newly created cardinals at once, for the sake of possessing their effects, the poisoned wine, destined for the purpose, was by mistake brought to and drank by themselves. The pope died of it; but Cæsar, by the vigour of his youth, and the force of antidotes, after many struggles, recovered. He only recovered to outlive his fortune and grandeur, to see himself depressed, and his enemies exalted; for he was soon after divested of all his acquisitions, and sent a prisoner to Spain, in order to free Italy from an incendiary, and the Italian princes from those dangers, which the turbulent spirit of Cæsar made them fear, even though he was unarmed. He escaped, however, and got safe to Navarre, to king John his brother-in-law, who was then at war with his subjects. Cæsar served as a volunteer, and was killed in 1507. Machiavel, in his celebrated book, entitled *The Prince*, proposes this villain as a pattern to all princes, who would act the part of wise and politic tyrants.

(3.) BORGIA, Lucretia, the daughter of Alexander (N° 1.) and sister of Cæsar (N° 2.) and the infamous mistress of both. See N° 1.

BORGIE, a river of Scotland in the county of Sutherland. It produces salmon.

BORGI FRACTURA, BORG BREGE, or BORGHBREACH, in ancient law writers, denotes a breaking of the pledge or security given by the members of tithings for the behaviour of each other.

(1.) BORGO, an ancient town of Sweden, seated on the gulf of Finland, in the province of Nyland. Lon. 25. 40. E. Lat. 60. 34. N.

(2.) BORGO DI SAN DOMINO, a town of Italy, in the duchy of Parma, with a bishop's see. Lon. 10. 6. E. Lat. 44. 58. N.

(3.) BORGO DI SAN SEPULCHRO, a town of Italy, in Urbino, on the borders of Tuscany, subject to the Grand Duke. It is seated near the source of the Tiber, 50 miles E. of Florence. On the 30th Sept. 1789, this town was much damaged by an earthquake, which destroyed many houses and palaces, with part of the cathedral, and some churches, and a village 5 miles distant. Above 1000 persons perished. Mr Creech mentions, that a shock of this earthquake was felt on the same day, at Parson's Green, on the N. side of Arthur's Seat, within a mile of Edinburgh. (*Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc.* IV. 626.) Lon. 12. 7. E. Lat. 43. 30. N.

(4.) BORGO DI VAL DI TARO, a town of Italy, in Parma, seated on the Taro, 20 miles SW. of Parma. Lon. 10. 36. E. Lat. 44. 15. N.

(5.) BORGO-FORTE, a town of Mantua in Italy, situated at the confluence of the rivers Po and Menzo; 8 miles S. of Mantua. Lon. 11. 0. E. Lat. 44. 50. N.

BORGOGNONE, a celebrated painter, whose true name was *Giacomo* CORTESSI; but he is commonly called *Borgognone*, from the country where he was born, about 1605. He was much admired for his grand manner of painting battles. He had for several years been conversant in military affairs, was an officer of considerable rank in the army, made the camp his school, and formed all his

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his ideas from what he had ſeen performed in the field. His ſtyle is roughly noble, full of fire and ſpirit, and there are a few prints etched by his own hand. Towards the cloſe of his life he retired to the Jeſuits convent in Rome, where he is ſaid to have taken ſanctuary to get rid of a bad wife; but happily ſurviving her, he lived in great eſteem and honour till 1675.

BORGUE, or BORG, [from *burg*, Gael. a little hill,] a pariſh of Scotland, on the S. coaſt of Kirkcudbrightſhire, united, in 1670, to thoſe of SENWICK and KIRK-ANDREWS. It is 10 m. long, and 7 broad, and contains about 40 ſquare miles. The coaſt is elevated and rocky, the cliffs riſing in ſome parts 300 feet perpendicular. Being expoſed to the S. and W. winds, the ſea often rolls in with ſuch prodigious force, that the ſpray is carried to the diſtance of two miles. Samphire grows among the rocks, and cod, ſkate, flounders, lobſters, oyſters, &c. are caught. The ſurface is very unequal, and the ſoil, a fine loam, very fertile in wet ſeaſons, but eaſily injured in dry. The chief crops are oats and barley. The climate is healthy, neither the cold nor the heat being ever intenſe. The population in 1793, as ſtated by the rev. Mr Smith, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 771, and had increaſed 74, within 40 years preceding. The number of horſes was then 270; of ſheep of various breeds, 1129; and of black cattle, 2958. As the pariſh lies in one of the fineſt grazing counties in Scotland, the farmers are famed for their ſkill in rearing cattle. It is alſo noted for excellent honey. The rents of land have been more than quadrupled, yet the farmers are opulent and independent.

BORHEEN, a town of Ireland in Limerick.

BORIA, a ſmall town of Spain, in Arragon, at the foot of a hill, 35 miles NW. of Saragoſſa. Lon. 2. 10. W. Lat. 41. 50. N.

(1.) BORING, in farriery, a cruel and abſurd method of treating a wrenched ſhoulder. See FARRIERY.

(2.) BORING, in mineralogy, a method of piercing the earth with ſcooping irons, which being drawn back at proper times, bring up with them ſamples of the different ſtrata through which they have paſſed; by the examination of which the ſkilful mineralogiſt will be able to gueſs whereabouts a vein of ore may lie, or whether it will be worth while to open a mine. It is alſo a practice employed by the mineralogiſt to diſcover the different ſtrata which lie beneath the ſurface of the earth, by ſinkers to form wells and pits, or to tap ſprings, ſo as to draw off the water that lodges in their neighbourhood; in the laſt caſe, it is performed in the bottom of ditches, or drains previouſly made. In the article BORER, we have given an account of Mr Eccleſton's new invented augre, and its effects upon boggy lands.

(3.) BORING OF WATER PIPES is thus performed. The poles of alder, which is a very uſeful wood in making pumps, water-pipes, &c. being laid on horſes or traſſels of a foot high, to reſt the augre upon while they are boring, a lath is ſet up to turn the ſmalleſt end of the poles, to fit them to the cavities of the great ends of the others. The ſmall ends are turned about 5 or 6 inches in length, to the ſize intended to bore the bigger ends about the ſame depth. This is deſigned to make a joint to ſhut each pair of poles, the concave part being called the female part, and the other the male of the joint. A channel or ſmall groove at a certain diſtance from the end, is turned in the male part; and in the female a ſmall hole is bored to fit over this channel. The poles are then bored through, and to prevent boring out at the ſide, great nails are ſtuck at each end to be a guide in boring. It is uſual, however, to bore them at both ends; ſo that if a pole be crooked one way, it can be bored through and not ſpoiled.

BORIQUEN, one of the Caribbee iſlands, in N. America, 5 miles SW. of Porto Rico. The Engliſh formerly had a ſettlement there, but were driven away by the Spaniards. It is without inhabitants, though agreeable and fertile; the air being wholeſome, and the water good. Land crabs are numerous in it, whence ſome call it CRAB-ISLAND. Lon. 66. 0. W. Lat. 18. 0. N.

BORISTHENES, in anc. geog. the largeſt river of Sarmatia Europea, thus deſcribed by Mela, and Herodotus. "It is the moſt pleaſant of all the rivers of Scythia, calmer than all of them in its courſe, and very agreeable to drink: it feeds very rich paſtures, and produces large fiſh of the beſt flavour, and without bones: it comes a great way, riſing from ſprings unknown; its courſe is a diſtance of 40 days, and ſo far it is navigable." It is now called the DNIEPER or NIEPER.

BORITH, in botany, an herb thought to be the KALI or ſaltwort. In Jer. ii. 22. it is tranſlated "nitre."

BORIVON, the ancient name of CALDER.

BORKEL, a river in Guelderland.

BORKELO, a ſtrong town of Guelderland, in the county of Zutphen, ſeated on the Borkel. Lon. 6. 30. E. Lat. 52. 15. N.

BORLACE, Dr. See BORLASE, N° 1.

BORLAN, a lake in Sutherlandſhire.

(1.) BORLAND, a mountain in Lanarkſhire.

(2.) BORLAND, a village of Fife, in the pariſh of Dyſart. It was begun in 1756, and contained 196 inhabitants, in 1793.

(1.) BORLASE, Edmund, M. D. an eminent Engliſh writer in the 17th century, was the ſon of Sir John Borlaſe, one of the Lords Juſtices of Ireland, in 1643. He ſtudied in Dublin college, and afterwards at Leyden, where he took his degree of M. D. He afterwards practiſed phyſic with great ſucceſs in Cheſter. He wrote, 1. Latham Spaw in Lancaſhire, with ſome remarkable caſes and cures performed by it. 2. The reduction of Ireland to the crown of England. 3. The hiſtory of the Iriſh rebellion. 4. Brief Reflections on the earl of Caſtlehaven's memoirs, &c. He died after 1682.

(2.) BORLASE, William, a very learned antiquarian, of an ancient family in Cornwall, was born at Penden, in 1695-6. He ſtudied at Oxford, and, in 1719, took his degree of M. A. In 1720, he was ordained a prieſt; and in 1722, made rector of Ludgvan in Cornwall. In 1732, the lord chancellor King preſented him to the vicarage of St Juſt, his native pariſh. Finding that the copper works of Ludgvan abounded with mineral and metallic foſſils, he collected them from time to time,

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time, and thence was led to ſtudy at large the natural hiſtory of his native country. Being alſo ſtruck with the numerous monuments of antiquity that are to be met with in Cornwall, he determined to gain as accurate an acquaintance as poſſible with the Druid learning, and with the religion and cuſtoms of the ancient Britons, before their converſion to Chriſtianity. In 1750, he was admitted F. R. S. and, in 1753, publiſhed in folio at Oxford his *Antiquities of Cornwall*; a 2d edition of which was publiſhed at London, in 1769, entitled "Antiquities hiſtorical and monumental, of the county of Cornwall; conſiſting of ſeveral eſſays on the ancient inhabitants, Druid ſuperſtition, cuſtoms and remains of the moſt remote antiquity in Britain, and the Britiſh iſles; exemplified and proved by monuments now extant in Cornwall and the Scilly iſlands; with a vocabulary of the Corno-Britiſh language." His next publication was, "Obſervations on the ancient and preſent ſtate of the iſlands of Scilly, and their importance to the trade of Great Britain; Oxf. 1756," 4to. In 1758 came out his "Natural hiſtory of Cornwall; Oxf." fol. He ſent a variety of foſſils and remains of antiquity, to be depoſited in the Aſhmolean muſeum: for which he received the thanks of the univerſity, in 1758; and in March 1766, the degree of LL. D. He married in 1724, and died in 1772, aged 77, leaving two ſons. Among his other literary connections, he had a particular correſpondence with Mr Pope; and there is ſtill exiſting a large collection of letters written by that poet to Dr Borlaſe. He furniſhed Pope with many of the foſſils which adorned his grotto at Twickenham; where his name in capitals, compoſed of chryſtals may ſtill be ſeen. On receipt Pope wrote him, "I am much obliged to you for your valuable collection of Corniſh diamonds; I have placed them where they may beſt repreſent yourſelf, *in a ſhade but ſhining?*" alluding to the obſcurity of the doctor's ſituation, and the brillancy of his talents.

BORLEY, or LOCH-BORLEY, a lake in the peninſula of Durneſs in Sutherlandſhire.

BORLUM, a hill in Inverneſs-ſhire, on which there are quantities of vitrified matter, whereon no plant will vegetate.

(1.) BORMIO, a territory belonging to the republic of the Griſons in Switzerland. It is bounded on the S. by the territory of Venice, on the E. by Auſtria, and on the N. and W. by Caddea. It is 15 miles over both ways; and is divided into 5 communities, viz. the town (N° 2.) the valley of Forbia, the Interior Valley, the Lower Valley, and the Valley of Luvino.

(2.) BORMIO, the only town in the above diſtrict, (N° 1.) has a governor called a *podeſta*, ſent by the Griſons to preſide in civil and criminal affairs. It is ſeated at the confluence of the Addo and the Iſalacua. Lon. 10. 10. E. Lat. 46. 45. N.

* BORN. The *participle paſſive* of *bear*.—Their charge was always *born* by the queen, and duly paid out to the exchequer. *Bacon*.—The great men were enabled to oppreſs their inferiours; and their followers were *born* out and countenanced in wicked actions. *Davies*.—Upon ſome occaſions, Clodius may be bold and inſolent, *born* away by his paſſion. *Swift*.

To BORN, *v. a. Obſ.* to burniſh.

¶ *To be* BORN. *v. n. paſſ.* [derived from the word *To bear*, in the ſenſe of *bringing forth*; as, my mother *bore* me 20 years ago; or, I was *born* 20 years ago] 1. To come into life.—

When we are *born*, we cry, that we are come
To this great ſtage of fools. *Shakeſ.*

The new *born* babe by nurſes overlaid. *Dryd.*—All that are *born* into the world, are ſurrounded with *bodies*, that perpetually and diverſly affect them. *Locke*. 2. It is uſually ſpoken with regard to circumſtances; as he was *born* a prince: he was *born* to empire: he was *born* for greatneſs; that is formed at the birth.—The ſtranger that dwelleth with you, ſhall be unto you as one *born* among you, and thou ſhalt love him as thyſelf. *Leviticus*, xix. 34.—Yet man is *born* unto trouble, as the ſparks fly upward. *Job*.—A brother is *born* for adverſity. *Proverbs*.—

Two riſing creſts his royal head adorn;
Born from a god, himſelf to godhead *born*. *Dryd.*
Both muſt alike from heav'n derive their light;
Theſe *born* to judge, as well as thoſe to write. *Pope*.

—I was *born* to a good eſtate though it now turneth to little account. *Swift*.—Their lands are let to lords, who never deſigned to be tenants, naturally murmur at the payment of rents as a ſubſerviency they were not *born* to. *Swift*. 3. It has uſually the particle *of* before the mother.—

Be bloody, bold, and reſolute, laugh to ſcorn
The pow'r of man; for none *of* woman *born*
Shall harm Macbeth. *Shakeſ.*

—I being *born of* my father's firſt wife, and ſhe *of* his third, ſhe converſes with me rather like a daughter than a ſiſter. *Tatler*.

(1.) BORNE, a market town of Lincolnſhire, Lon. 0. 20. W. Lat. 52. 40. N.

(2.) BORNE, a river in Staffordſhire, which runs into the Tame.

(2.) BORNE, or BOURNE. *n. ſ.* [*bornes*, Fr.] a limit or boundary.

(4.) BORNE, *part. paſſ.* an erroneous, or rather obſolete ſpelling, of latè attempted to be re-introduced by ſome modern writers. See BORN.

(1.) BORNEO, an iſland of Aſia, in the Indian ocean, one of the 3 great Sunda iſlands. It is thought to be the largeſt iſland in the world, next to New Holland; being 1800 miles in circumference. It is ſeated under the equator, which nearly divides it. It is almoſt of a circular figure; abounds with gold, and the fineſt diamonds in the Indies are found in its rivers, being probably waſhed down from the hills by torrents. It has alſo mines of iron, tin, and loadſtones; and produces caſſia, camphire, frankincenſe, muſk, aloes, agaric, ſapan, pepper, cinnamon, honey, wax, rice, and a variety of fruits and gums. Birds-neſts are to be had in it, which are eatable, and reckoned a great delicacy. See BIRDS-NESTS, § 4. It abounds with horſes, oxen, Buffaloes, deer, goats, elephants, bears, tigers, and monkeys; and has fine rivers, eſpecially in the W. and S. In their monſoon from April to September, the wind is weſterly: and the rains are conſtant and heavy, attended with violent ſtorms of thunder and lightning. The rainy ſeaſon continues for 8 months, and as, during that time, all the flat country near the

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the coaſt is overwhelmed, the air is rendered very unhealthy. The inhabitants build their houſes on floats, which they make faſt to trees. The houſes have but one floor, with partitions made with canes; and the roofs are covered with palmetto leaves, the caves of which reach within 4 or 5 feet of the bottom. Some of their houſes are built upon pillars, a ſufficient height from the ſurface, not to be deluged. The W. and NE. ſides of the iſland are almoſt deſart, and the E. is but little known. The inland parts are very mountainous; and the SE. for many leagues together, is marſhy and unhealthy. The Portugueſe, who firſt diſcovered Borneo, had arrived in the Indies above 30 years, before they knew any thing more of it than its name, and ſituation. At laſt capt. Edward Corril examined it more narrowly, and being thus acquainted with the country, they made frequent voyages to it. They found the coaſts inhabited with Malayan Moors, but the original inhabitants live in the mountains and are ſtyled *Beajus*, which in the Malayan language ſignifies a *wild man*. The moſt authentic account of theſe people is given by father Antonio Ventimiglia, an Italian miſſionary, who was ſent to Borneo from Macao, on board a Portugueſe ſhip, converted great numbers to Chriſtianity, and died on the iſland about A. D. 1691. He ſays, the Beajus have no kings, but many petty chiefs. Some are ſubject to the Mooriſh kings, and pay them tribute; but ſuch as live far up the country, are altogether independent, and live according to their own cuſtoms. They are generally ſuperſtitious, and much addicted to augury. They do not adore idols; but their ſacrifices of ſweet wood and perfumes are offered to one God, who, they believe, rewards the juſt in heaven, and puniſhes the wicked in hell. They marry only one wife; and look upon any breach of conjugal faith, either in the man or woman, as a capital offence. The Beajus are naturally honeſt and induſtrious, and have a brotherly affection for one another. They have a notion of property, which however, does not render them covetous. They ſow and cultivate their lands; but in harveſt, each reaps as much as will ſerve his family, and the reſt belongs to the tribes in common; by which means they prevent both ſcarcity and diſputes. With the Moors on the coaſts the Portugueſe for ſome time carried on a conſiderable trade, and at their requeſt ſettled a factory there; which, however, was afterwards ſurpriſed and plundered by the Moors, who put moſt of the people to the ſword. The principal river in Borneo is the BANJAR, at the mouth of which our Eaſt India company have a factory, having obtained a grant of the N. part of the iſland. It lies between 107° and 117° Lon. E. and between 4° N. and 0° 34′ Lat. S.

(2.) BORNEO, the capital of the iſland, (N° 1.) is a large and populous city, with a good harbour; and lies on the NW. ſide. Lon. 111. 22. E. Lat. 4. 55. N.

BORNHOLM, an iſland in the Baltic ſea, SE. of Schonen in Sweden; 21 miles in length, and above 13 in breadth. It has 3 conſiderable towns, Rattum, Sandwick, and Nexit; with a great number of villages; and is fertile and populous. It was conquered by the Swedes in 1566; but the inhabitants, under the conduct of Jens Roefords, voluntarily ſurrendered to the king of Denmark, to avoid the tyranny of the Swedes. In 1678, a body of 5000 Swediſh troops, in their paſſage from Pomerania to Sweden, being ſhipwrecked on this iſland, ſuch of them as remained were made priſoners of war. The inhabitants defend the iſland by their own militia, without any expence to the crown. The governor reſides at Rattum. Bornholm lies 16 m. from Zealand, and 6 from Yſtad. Lon. 15. 56. E. Lat. 55. 15. N.

(1.) BORNOU, a kingdom of Zaara in Africa, extending from 12° to 22° E. longitude, and from 17° to 21° N. latitude. It is bounded by Bilma on the N. Cathna on the SE. and Nubia on the SW. The north part is poor, but all the reſt is well watered by rivers that tumble down with a dreadful noiſe from the mountains; rendering the country prolific in corn, graſs, and fruits, and giving it a pleaſing aſpect. The E. and W. frontiers conſiſt of mountains and valleys, the latter being all covered with flocks of cattle, fields of rice and millet, and many of the mountains with wood, fruit-trees, and cotton. On the NW. ſtands the mountain Tarton, and on the S. flows the river NIGER. The E. and W. parts are ſaid to be inhabited by a people of a roving diſpoſition, who live in tents, and have their women, children, and every thing elſe, in common; the word *property*, or any idea of it, being utterly unknown among them. They have neither religion, laws, government, nor ſubordination, and hence they have been ſuppoſed by Cluverius to be the lineal deſcendants of the ancient GARAMANTES, and this to have been the reſidence of that people. In theſe parts, the natives are almoſt to a man ſhepherds and huſbandmen. In ſummer they go naked, except a ſhort apron before; but in winter they are warmly clothed with the ſofteſt ſheep ſkins, of which they alſo form their bed clothes; and indeed this is ſcarce a ſufficient defence againſt the inclemency of the weather at certain ſeaſons of the year, when a cold piercing wind blows from the N. Others ſay their winter is mild and their ſummer tempeſtuous. Baudrand and Daper affirm, that the natives are ſcarce ſuperior to brutes; not even having any names whereby to diſtinguiſh each other, except what they take from ſome perſonal defect or ſingularity; ſuch as lean, fat, ſquinting, hump-backed, &c. Walker, however, gives a very different account of theſe people, and ſays they are courteous and humane; that they manufacture cottons, and cultivate the ground with hoes; that their religion is Mahometaniſm, and their government an elective monarchy. He adds, that 30 different languages are ſpoken at Bornou, and its dependencies; which may account for the different and contradictory accounts of authors, in deſcribing perhaps as many different people. See N° 3.

(2.) BORNOU, a lake in the above kingdom, (N° 1.) which the Niger runs through.

(3.) BORNOU, the capital of the kingdom, (N° 1.) is ſeated in a level country, on the banks of a ſmall river. It is of greater extent than Tripoli; but the houſes, though neat, are ſo irregularly placed that they can hardly be ſaid to form ſtreets. It has

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has moſques built of brick, and ſchools, in which the Koran is taught. It lies 650 miles SE. of Mourzouk. Lon. 27. 30. E. Lat. 19. 40. N.

BOROLYBICUS, the North-Weſt wind.

BOROMÆUS. St. See BORROMEUS.

BORONDON, St, an iſland in the Atlantic Ocean, mentioned by Linſchotten and others, in their deſcription of the Canary iſlands, as ſomething ſupernatural. It is ſaid to be about 100 leagues diſtant from Ferro, probably W. though no writer has pretended to lay down its exact ſituation. Here it is ſaid ſeveral ſhips have touched by accident, and all agree in their relations of the ſtate of the inhabitants and iſland. They affirm, that it is perpetually clothed with a great variety of wood, chiefly fruit-trees: that the valleys are in a perpetual ſtate of verdure; and continually decked with flowers, graſs and plants, the ſpontaneous productions of the earth; or with corn and pulſe, cultivated by the inhabitants; that the ſoil is ſo prolific as to raiſe large quantities of corn for exportation; that the ſhips that call here never fail of meeting with refreſhments of every kind; and that it is peopled by Chriſtians, who have a language of their own, apparently combined of a variety of modern languages; for, ſay they, whoever underſtands the European tongues may make ſhift to hold converſation with this people. It is remarkable, that no ſhips, expreſsly ſent upon this diſcovery, were ever fortunate enough to fall in with the iſland of St Borondon, though the Spaniards have ſeveral times attempted it from the Canaries. Hence it has been called the *marvellous iſland*; and hence indeed we may conclude, either that it exiſts wholly in imagination, or at leaſt, that it is ſurrounded with ſuch currents, as inſenſibly carry ſhips out of their courſe, and prevent their meeting with it. Some affirm that it actually diſappears upon certain occaſions, and ſhifts its poſition; others, with more probability, alledge, that it is frequently overcaſt with thick and impenetrable clouds, which occaſion the diſappointment of all the adventurers who have gone in ſearch of it.

(1.) * BOROUGH. *n. ſ.* [*borhoe*, Saxon.] 1. It ſignified anciently a ſurety, or a man bound for others.—A *borough*, as I here uſe it, and as the old laws ſtill uſe, is not a *borough* town, that is, a franchiſed town; but a main pledge of 100 free perſons, therefore called a free *borough*, or, as you ſay, *francplegium*. For *borth*, in old Saxon, ſignifieth a pledge or ſurety; and yet it is ſo uſed with us in ſome ſpeeches, as Chaucer ſaith, *St John to Borob*; that is, for aſſurance and warranty. *Spenſer*. 2. A town with a corporation.—

And if a *borough* chuſe him not, undone. *Pope*.

(2.) BOROUGH, BURROUGH, BOROW, or BURGH, in its original Saxon *borge*, or *borgh*, is by ſome ſuppoſed to have been primarily meant of a tithing or company conſiſting of ten families, who were bound and combined together as each others pledge. Afterwards, it came to ſignify a town that had a wall or incloſure about it; ſo that all places, which among our anceſtors had the denomination borough, were one way or other fenced or fortified. In later times, the ſame appellation, was beſtowed on ſeveral of the *ville inſigniores*, or country towns of more than ordinary note, though not walled. The ancient Saxons gave the name burgh to thoſe, called in other countries, cities. But divers canons being made for removing the epiſcopal ſees from villages and ſmall towns to the chief cities, the name *city* became attributed to epiſcopal towns, and that of *borough* retained to all the reſt; though theſe two had the appearance of cities, being governed by their mayors, having laws of their own making, ſending repreſentatives to parliament, and being fortified with a wall and caſtle, and the like. Borough or burgh, is now particularly appropriated to ſuch towns and villages, as ſend burgeſſes or repreſentatives to parliament. Boroughs are equally ſuch, whether they be incorporate or not. Great numbers of our Engliſh boroughs are not incorporated; and, on the contrary, ſeveral corporations are not boroughs; *e. gr.* Kingſton, Deal, Kendal, &c.

(3.) BOROUGH, in geography, a ſmall town in Glouceſterſhire, near Berkely.

(4.) BOROUGHS, in Scotland. See LAW, INDEX.

(5.) BOROUGHS, ROYAL, in Scotland, are corporations made for the advantage of trade, by charters granted by ſeveral of their kings; having the privilege of ſending commiſſioners to repreſent them in parliament, beſides other peculiar privileges. The Royal Boroughs are not only ſo many diſtinct corporations, but alſo conſtitute one entire body, governed by, and accountable to, one general court, anciently called *the court of four boroughs*, held yearly to treat and determine concerning matters relating to the common advantage of all boroughs. The 4 boroughs which compoſed this court were, Edinburgh, Stirling, Roxburgh, and Berwick; which two laſt falling into the hands of the Engliſh, Linlithgow and Lanerk were put in their places; with a ſaving to the former, whenever they ſhould return to their allegiance. But this court not being ſufficient to anſwer the neceſſities of the royal boroughs, they were all empowered, under James III. in 1487, to ſend commiſſioners to a yearly convention of their own, which was then appointed to be held at Inverkeithing, but is now held at Edinburgh, under the denomination of the *convention of boroughs*, veſted with great power, and having for their object the benefit of trade and the general intereſt of the boroughs.

BOROUGHBRIDGE, a town in the N. riding of Yorkſhire, ſeated on the river Your, over which there is a handſome ſtone bridge. It ſends two members to parliament, and lies 17 miles NW. of York, and 218 miles N. by W. of London. Lon. 1. 25. W. Lat. 54. 10. N.

BOROUGH-COURTS are certain courts held in boroughs by preſcription, charter, or act of parliament: ſuch are the ſheriff's court, and court of huſtings in London.

(1.) * BOROUGH ENGLISH is a cuſtomary deſcent of lands and tenements, whereby, in all places where this cuſtom holds, lands and tenements deſcend to the youngeſt ſon; or, if the owner have no iſſue, to his youngeſt brother. *Cowel*.

(2.) BOROUGH ENGLISH, REASONS FOR THE CUSTOM OF. Littleton gives this reaſon, that the younger ſon, by his tender age, is not ſo capable

as

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as the reſt of his brethren to help himſelf. Others give a much ſtronger reaſon; viz. that the lord of the fee had anciently a right to break the 7th commandment with his tenants wife on her wedding night; and that therefore the tenement deſcended, not to the eldeſt, but to the youngeſt ſon, who was more certainly the offspring of the tenant. But it is not certain that this abominable cuſtom ever prevailed in England, though it certainly did in Scotland, (under the title of *mercheta* or *jus primæ noctis*,) till aboliſhed by Malcolm III. Perhaps a more rational account than either may be brought from the practice of the Tartars; among whom, according to Father Duhalde, this cuſtom of deſcent to the youngeſt ſon alſo prevails. That nation is wholly compoſed of ſhepherds and herdſmen; and the elder ſons, as ſoon as they are capable of leading a paſtoral life, migrate from their father with a certain allotment of cattle, and go to ſeek a new habitation. The youngeſt ſon, therefore, who continues lateſt with his father, is naturally the heir of his houſe, the reſt being already provided for. And thus we find, that, among many other northern nations, it was the cuſtom for all the ſons to migrate from the father, but one, who became his heir. So that poſſibly this cuſtom, wherever it prevails, may be the remnant of that paſtoral ſtate of the ancient Britons and Germans, which Cæſar and Tacitus deſcribe.

BOROUGH-HEAD, BOROUGH-HOLDER, } BURS-HOLDER, or HEAD-BOROUGH, the chief man of the decenna, or hundred, choſen to ſpeak and act in behalf of the reſt. Head-borough alſo ſignifies a kind of head conſtable, where there are ſeveral choſen as his aſſiſtants, to ſerve warrants, &c. See CONSTABLE.

BOROUGH-MASTER, *n. ſ. obſ.* the mayor of a borough.

BOROW-HOLES, the holes, in the remoteſt corner of which the female rabbits depoſit their young, to prevent the males from eating them.

BOROZAII, (or the zeal of the Ethiopians,) a diſeaſe epidemic in the countries about the river Senegal. It principally affects the pudenda, but is different from the lues venera. It owes its riſe to exceſſive venery; in the men this diſtemper is called *aſab*, and in women *aſſabatus*.

BORRA, or BORRADH, in Gaelic antiquity, a pile of ſtones, but differing both from a CAIRN and a DUN, in external figure, as well as in ſize and deſign. Outwardly theſe borras were covered with heath or graſs ſo as to appear natural protuberances, and ſurrounded with wood. In their internal conſtruction, they were oblong, and divided into ſmall apartments. They were generally built on an eminence. Mr M'Farlane miniſter of Kilfinan, deſcribes one of them in his pariſh, "40 yards long, of conſiderable breadth, and amazing depth. At the bottom, from one end to the other, there was a number of ſmall cells, end to end, each made up of 5 or 7 large flags. Each cell was about 5 feet long, 4 broad, and 5 high. One large flag made up each ſide, and another of a curved figure, to throw off the water, covered them for a roof: the end was made up of two, and an opening between them, wide enough for a man to ſqueeze himſelf through." He thinks they were intended as places of concealment for the plunder, which the ancient clans, in the ages of irregular government, carried off from each other. *Stat. Acc.* XIV. 257.

BORRACHIO. See CAOUTCHOUC.

BORRADH. See BORRA.

BORRAGE. See ANCHUSA.

* BORREL. *n. ſ.* [it is explained by *Junius* without etymology.] A mean fellow.—

Siker thou ſpeak'ſt like a lewd ſorrel,
Of heaven to deemen ſo:
Howbe I am but rude and *borrel*,
Yet nearer ways I know. *Spenſer.*

BORRELLISTS, in church hiſtory, a Chriſtian ſect in Holland; ſo named from their founder Borrel, a man of great learning in the Hebrew, Greek, and Latin tongue. They reject the uſe of the ſacraments, public prayer, and all other external acts of worſhip. They aſſert, that all the Chriſtian churches of the world have degenerated from the pure apoſtolic doctrines, becauſe they have ſuffered the word of God, which is infallible, to be expounded, or rather corrupted, by doctors who are not infallible. They lead a very auſtere life, and employ a great part of their goods in alms.

BORRERAY, a ſmall iſland in Scotland, one of the Hebrides, lying NW. of N. Uiſt, between Valay and Pabby iſles. It is inhabited, and has a place of worſhip, where the miniſter of N. Uiſt preaches once a year. Lon. 7. 25. W. Lat. 57. 47. N.

BORRHAUS, Martin, profeſſor of divinity at Baſil, was firſt named CELLARIUS. He was born at Stutgard, in 1499, and acquired the friendſhip of Melancthon, at Wirtemberg, where he had many ſcholars, and made much money. But afterwards falling in with Stubner, the anabaptiſt, he adopted his fanaticiſm, and in a conference with Luther, in 1522, ſhowed an extravagant degree of zeal. In 1525, being in Pruſſia, he was impriſoned on account of his principles, which, however, he ſtill defended, and wrote ſeveral books to ſupport them. Opinions, true or falſe, are not to be altered by compulſion. Reaſon alone can convince. The failure of the prophecies of his brethren fanatics, reſpecting the immediate renovation of all things, at laſt converted him, and made him not only change his profeſſion but even his name. He retired to Baſil in 1536, turned glazier for a livelihood, married, and at laſt was admitted profeſſor of rhetoric and divinity in that univerſity. He wrote, 1. Notes on Ariſtotle's politics, in 1545: 2. A commentary on Ariſtotle's rhetoric, in 1551: 3. Another on the pentateuch, in 1557: 4. One on Iſaiah, and the Revelations, in 1561: and, 5. One on Job and Eccleſiaſtes, in 1564. He died at Baſil, in 1564, of the plague.

BORRI, or BURRHUS, Joſeph Francis, a famous chemiſt, quack, and heretic of the 17th century, was a Milaneſe, and a moſt conſummate villain. In his youth, he was quite debauched, but afterwards ſet up for a very religious man, and pretended to inſpiration. He engaged his deluded followers in vows of poverty, while he had the addreſs to make them give all their money to himſelf. His deſign was to bring about a revolution in Milan, and get the power into his own

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own hand; but some of his disciples being apprehended, he fled to Strasburgh, and afterwards to Amsterdam; whence, after figuring some time with *eclat* as a great chemist, he decamped in the night, with much money and many jewels, which he had swindled from the public. He next imposed upon the simplicity of Q. Christiana, of Sweden, and led her to throw out a great sum upon the discovery of the philosopher's stone; and soon after, put Frederick III. king of Denmark, upon the same vain and expensive search. On that monarch's death he fled to Turkey, but was apprehended on the frontiers and sent to Rome, where he was condemned to perpetual imprisonment in the inquisition. In 1672, he abjured his errors, and was allowed to attend the D. of Eftree, whom the physicians had given over. The extraordinary cure he performed, astonished all good Catholics, that such a miracle should have been wrought by an arch-heretic. He died in the castle of St Angelo, in 1695, aged 79.

BORICHIUS, Olaus, one of the most learned men of his age, the son of a Lutheran minister in Denmark, was born in 1626. He studied physic in the university of Copenhagen, and began to practise during a most terrible plague that made great havoc in that city. He travelled; but before his departure in 1660, he was appointed professor in poetry, botany, and chemistry; and at his return, discharged his duties with great assiduity, of which the works he published afford full proof. He was raised to the office of counsellor in the supreme council of justice, in 1686; to that of counsellor of the Royal Chancery, in 1689; and died of the operation for the stone, in 1690. He published, 1. *Lingua pharmacoporum*: 2. *Dissertationes de poetis Græcis et Latinis*: 3. *De ortu et progressu chemiæ*; and several other works.

(1.) BORRIS, a town of Ireland, *in Ossory*, Queen's county, Leinster.

(2.) BORRIS, a village of Ireland, in Carlow.

BORRISOKEON, a village in Tipperary.

BORRISOLEAGH in town in Tipperaray.

BORRODALE, a most romantic valley among DERWENT-WATER FELLS; these Fells or Hills are some of the loftiest in England, and it is in one of them that the Black Lead, or Wade, is found wherewith all the world is supplied. The mines are opened once in the 7 years, and when a sufficient quantity of this valuable and singular mineral is taken out, they are carefully closed again. In travelling among these mountains the idea that presents itself to the astonished spectator is that of the earth having been agitated like the ocean in a storm, the hills appear like waves, one behind another, and were it not for the abrupt and sudden scarps, and the immense masses of rugged rocks, that give the idea of fixedness and stability, the fancy might be bewildered so far as to imagine they were in a state of undulation, and ready to mingle with each other. BORRODALE is watered by the clearest brooks, which, precipitated from the hills, form many beautiful waterfalls, and then meet together in the dale in one large stream, and pass out of it under the name of Borrowdale-Beck, when they spread out into an extensive lake, forming many beautiful islands; the lake is called Derwent-water, or Keswick lake. BORRODALE is 4 miles from Keswick, in passing from which, the traveller has the lake on his left hand, and stupendous rocky precipices on the other; huge stones or rugged masses of rock, which have tumbled from above, perhaps rent from the mountain by the expansion of the water, in the crevices or fissures, when congealing into ice, are scattered along his way. As he approaches the dale, he sees the shelves, or ledges of the rocks covered with herbage, shrubs, and trees, and villages and farms rise upon his view; the larger cattle are seen feeding in the lower grounds, and the sheep, in very large flocks, upon the mountains.

BORROMEAN Islands, in geography, two islands situated in the bay of the lake, called "Lago di Maggiore," or "Lago di Locarno," in the Milanese, so denominated from their having belonged to the Borromeo family. One of the islands is called "Isola Bella," and the other "Isalo Madre." They are a league distant from each other, and derive the various beautiful scenes and objects which they present, from the taste and liberality of the Counts Renatus and Vitalian Borromeo.—They were originally barren rocks; but with immense labour and expence they were furnished with numerous terraces, grottoes, gardens, fountains, groves of cedars, cypress, citron trees, orange trees, laurel, &c. which render them scenes of enchantment, and a kind of terrestrial paradise.

BORROMEO, or, } St Charles, cardinal, and
(1.) BORROMEUS, } archbishop of Milan; a personage of great note in the Romish kalendar, and whose sincere piety, simplicity of manners, and zeal for reformation, render him indeed a character equally interesting and instructive to the members of any church. He was the son of Gilbert Borromeo, Count of Arona, and Mary of Medicis, and was born at the castle of Arona upon Lake Major in the Milanese, in 1538. When he was about 12 years old, Julius Cæsar Borromeo resigned an abbacy to him of a considerable revenue, which was considered as an hereditary inheritance of the family. Charles accepted of it, but applied the revenue wholly in charity to the poor. Having acquired a sufficient knowledge of the languages at Milan, he studied the civil and canon law at Pavia, where he lived like Lot in Sodom, preserving his innocence amidst a thousand snares, by which it was endangered. He received great advantage from the conversation of Francis Alciat, one of the most learned men of the age, for whom he afterwards procured the purple. He would accept no benefice, but upon condition that he should be at liberty to apply the revenue to public uses. In 1554, his father died, an event which brought him back to the castle of Arona; where, though he had an elder brother, Count Frederick, he was requested by the family to take upon him the management of the domestic affairs, to which he at length consented. In 1559, he finished his studies, and took his degrees of D.D. The promotion of his uncle Pius IV. to the pontificate, in 1560, seemed to have very little effect upon him; but he was soon made protonotary; intrusted with the seals of the ecclesiastical state; and created cardinal deacon, and soon after archbishop

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biſhop of Milan. In obedience to his uncle, he lived in great ſplendor, yet retained his own temperance and humility. To render even his amuſement uſeful, he eſtabliſhed an academy of learned eccleſiaſtics and laics, who were employed in ſome exerciſe, tending to inſpire a love of virtue. Each of them was to write upon ſome ſubject, in verſe or proſe, and to communicate in frequent conferences the fruits of their ſtudies. The works of this ſociety have been publiſhed in many volumes, intitled *Noctes Vaticanæ*, becauſe theſe aſſemblies were held at the Vatican, at night. About this time he alſo formed a deſign of founding a college at Pavia, which ſhould be both a ſchool of ſcience, and an aſylum from vice. He accordingly raiſed a large edifice upon ground which belonged to the family of Borromeo in that city; he obtained from the pope ſeveral benefices, which he attached to his building; and he provided it with all things neceſſary out of his own revenue. Upon the death of his only brother Frederick, his relations, his friends, and even the pope himſelf, adviſed him to quit the church, and marry, that his family might not become extinct. Charles, however, contrary to the expectations of the world, received the prieſthood, and addreſſed the pope in theſe terms: "Do not complain of me, Holy Father, for I have taken a ſpouſe whom I love, and on whom my wiſhes have been long fixed." There was a very intimate friendſhip between Borromeo and Don Barthelemy des Martyrs archbiſhop of Prague, and author of the work intitled *Stimulus Paſtorum*. This work falling into Borromeo's hands, gave him an earneſt deſire to become a preacher. An almoſt inconceivable multiplicity of buſineſs, ill health, a feeble voice, and a difficult pronunciation, were great obſtacles to his deſign, yet he ſurmounted them all by perſeverance. Having obtained permiſſion to viſit his church, he ſet out for Milan, where he was received with the moſt diſtinguiſhed honours. He was, however, ſoon recalled to Rome; the pope was dying; and Charles arrived juſt in time to adminiſter to him the laſt ſacraments, on the 7th Jan. 1566; and, by his influence, to moderate the cabals of the conclave, in the election of his ſucceſſor, Pius V. Borromeo then gave himſelf up to the reformation of his dioceſe, where the moſt flagitious irregularities were openly practiſed. He began by making paſtoral viſits in his metropolis, where the canons were not diſtinguiſhed for the purity of their manners. He reſtored decency to divine ſervice. He cleared the cathedral of many pompous tombs, banners, arms, and other trophies, with which the vanity of man had diſfigured the houſe of God; and in this, he ſpared not the monuments of his neareſt relations. He divided the nave of the church into two parts, by planks, that the ſexes being ſeparated, might perform their devotions without any attention to each other, and with a modeſty ſuitable to the place. His paſtoral care extended to the collegiate churches, the ſocieties of penitents, and the monaſteries, which abounded with irregularities that required correction. As the great abuſes which had over-run the church, aroſe principally from the groſs ignorance of the clergy, Charles eſtabliſhed ſeminaries, for the education of youth, intended for holy orders. He met with much oppoſition in his endeavours to bring about a reformation of abuſes; but he prevailed againſt every obſtacle by an inflexible conſtancy tempered with great ſweetneſs of manners. But the moſt formidable oppoſition he had to ſtruggle with, was that of the Brothers of Humility. Three provoſts of this order entered into a conſpiracy to cut him off; and one of their confederates called *Jerom Donat*, ſurnamed *Farma*, took upon him to execute the bloody deſign. For this purpoſe he mixed with the crowd that went into the archiepiſcopal chapel, where the cardinal ſpent an hour every evening in prayer; and fired a harquebuſs at him, loaded with a ball and a conſiderable charge of leaden ſhot. It is ſaid that the ball ſtruck him on the ſpinal bone, but fell down at his feet without doing any other damage than ſoiling his rochet, and that the other ſhot tore away part of a wall and went through a table. This was reckoned a miracle, but what was much more to his honour, than if it had been one, he made every exertion to procure a pardon for the aſſaſſin. But the pope was inflexible; the monk was executed, and the order ſuppreſſed. In 1576, Milan was viſited by the plague, which ſwept away incredible numbers; and the behaviour of Borromeus, on this occaſion, was truly chriſtian and heroic. He not only continued on the ſpot, but went about giving direction for accommodating the ſick, and burying the dead, with a zeal and attention that were at once ardent and deliberate, minute and comprehenſive; and his example ſtimulated others to join in the good work. He avoided no danger, and he ſpared no expence; nor did he content himſelf with eſtabliſhing proper regulations in the city, but went into all the neighbouring pariſhes where the contagion raged, diſtributing money to the poor, ordering proper accommodations for the ſick, and puniſhing thoſe, eſpecially the clergy, who were remiſs in their duties. Charles, notwithſtanding the fatigue which he ſuffered, by thus executing his paſtoral charge, abated nothing of the uſual auſterity of his life; for, whatever approached to luxury, he conſidered as incompatible with his character. Being once on a viſit to the archbiſhop of Sienna, a very ſumptuous entertainment was provided. Borromeus, though he had been uſed to content himſelf with bread and water, yet ſat down at the table, where however he eat but little, and gave ſufficient intimation that he was much diſpleaſed with ſuch oſtentatious prodigality; but what was his ſurpriſe, when he ſaw the table again covered with a deſert, conſiſting of whatever was moſt rare, exquiſite, and coſtly! He roſe haſtily from his ſeat, and gave orders for his departure, notwithſtanding the rain, and the moſt earneſt entreaties of the archbiſhop. "My Lord," ſaid the cardinal, "If I ſhould tarry here to-night, you would give me another ſuch treat, as that I have juſt ſeen, and the poor will then ſuffer another loſs, great numbers of whom might have been fed with the ſuperfluities that have been now ſet before us." The continual labours and auſterities of Borromeus ſhortened his life, and he died at Milan, the 4th of Nov. 1584. He was lamented by the whole province, with marks of ſincere ſorrow, and he was immediately worſhipped

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worshipped as a saint, without waiting for the pope's approbation. The pope, however, when he was told of it by Cardinal Baronius, ordered that the devotion of the people should not be restrained, though Borromeus was not canonized till the 1st of Nov. 1610. Many churches and chapels have since been erected to his honour, and many religious societies instituted under his protection.

(2.) BORROMEUS, ST, MIRACLES ASCRIBED TO. The preceding account of this saint, (§ 1.) is extracted from Father Touron; but Ribadeneira, the Jesuit, relates the most ridiculous fables concerning him. He tells us, that a miraculous light was seen over the chamber of Borromeus's mother when she was in labour: That Borromeus seeing two persons carried violently down a rapid river on their horses, and just ready to perish, caused the horses suddenly to leap with them out of the water, by giving them his benediction: That Octavian Varese, a gentleman of Milan, who was confined to his bed by sickness, when Borromeus died, became instantly well, by recommending himself to the Saint's intercession: That a daughter of Julius Bonacina, was instantly cured of a disorder in her eye, which had taken away the sight of it, by performing an act of devotion in honour of this Saint: That a count of Ferrara was instantly seized with a violent disease upon speaking irreverently of Borromeus's picture, but was cured upon confessing his fault, &c. Such pretended miracles are excellent antidotes against the system they were forged to serve.

BORRON, a hill on the coast of the county of Kirkcudbright and parish of Kirkbean, on which there is an ancient castle.

* BORROW. *n. s.* [from the verb.] The thing borowed.—

Yet of your royal presence I'll adventure
The *borrow* of a week. *Shakespeare.*

* *To* BORROW. *v. a.* [*borgen*, Dutch; *borgian*, Saxon.] 1. To take something from another upon credit: opposed to *lend*.—He *borrowed* a box of the ear of the Englishman, and swore he would pay him again when he was able. *Shakespeare.*—We have *borrowed* money for the king's tribute, and that upon our lands and vineyards. *Nehemiah.* 2. To ask of another the use of something for a time.—Then he said, go, *borrow* thee vessels abroad of all thy neighbours. 2 *Kings.*—

Where darkness and surprize made conquest cheap!
Where virtue *borrowed* the arms of chance,
And struck a random blow! *Dryden.*

3. To take something belonging to another.—

A *borrow'd* title hast thou bought too dear;
Why didst thou tell me that thou wert a king?
Shakespeare.

—They may *borrow* something of instruction even from their past guilt. *Decay of Piety.*—I was engaged in the translation of Virgil, from whom I have *borrowed* only two months. *Dryden.*—These verbal signs they sometimes *borrow* from others, and sometimes make themselves; as one may observe among the new names children give to things. *Locke.*—Some persons of bright parts have narrow remembrance; for having riches of their own, they are not solicitous to *borrow*. *Watts.* 4. To use as one's own, though not belonging to one.—

Unkind and cruel, to deceive your son
In *borrow'd* shapes. *Dryden.*

* BORROWER. *n. s.* [from *borrow*.] 1. He that borrows; he that takes money upon trust: opposed to *lender*.—His talk is of nothing but his poverty, for fear belike lest I should have proved a young *borrower*. *Sidney.*—

Neither a *borrower* nor a lender be;
For loan oft loses both itself and friend. *Shak.*

But you invert the cov'nants of her trust,
And harshly deal, like an ill *borrower*. *Milton.*

1. He that takes what is another's, and uses it as his own.—Some say, that I am a great *borrower*; however, none of my creditors have challenged me for it. *Pope.*

BORROW-HEAD, a promontory of Scotland on the SE. coast of the isle of Stronsay.

BORROWING and HIRING, in law, are contracts by which a qualified property may be transferred to the hirer or borrower; in which there is only this difference, that hiring is always for a price or stipend, or additional recompence: borrowing is merely gratuitous. But the law in both cases is the same. They are both contracts, whereby the possession and transient property is transferred for a particular time or use, on condition and agreement to restore the goods so hired or borrowed, as soon as the time is expired, or the use performed, together with the price or stipend (in case of hiring) either expressly agreed upon by the parties, or left to be implied by law, according to the value of the service. By this mutual contract, the hirer or borrower gains a temporary property in the thing hired, accompanied with an implied condition to use it with moderation, and not to abuse it; and the owner or lender retains a reversionary interest in the same, and acquires a new property in the price or reward. Thus, if a man hires or borrows a horse for a month, he has the possession and a qualified property therein during that period; on the expiration of which his qualified property terminates, and the owner becomes (in case of hiring) intitled also to the premium or price for which the horse was hired. There is one species of this reward the most useful of any, but concerning which many good and learned men have much perplexed themselves and others, by doubts about its legality *in foro conscientiæ*. That is, when money is lent on a contract to receive not only the principal sum again, but also an increase by way of compensation for the use, which is generally called *interest* by those who think it lawful, and *usury* by those who do not. See INTEREST.

BORROWSTON, a village on the coast of Caithness, in the parish of Reay. The shore has a number of small caves, and a strong natural arch, covered with green turf, on a level with the adjacent ground, and leading over a chasm, 40 feet deep, into which the tide flows.

BORROWSTOWNNESS, a town of Scotland, in the county of Linlithgow, seated on the S. side of the Forth, 2 miles N. of Linlithgow, and 16 W. from Edinburgh. It has a good harbour, and is surrounded with collieries and salt works; its chief trade consisting in salt and coals. It has a fair, Nov. 16. Lon. 3. 34. W. Lat. 56. 2. N.

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BORSE HOLDER, [from *borh*, a surety, and *alder*, a chief, Sax.] among the Anglo-Saxons, one of the loweſt magiſtrates, whoſe authority extended only over one free burgh, tithing or decennary, conſiſting of ten families. Every freeman who wiſhed to enjoy the protection of the laws, and not to be treated as a vagabond, was under the neceſſity of being admitted a member of the tithing where he and his father reſided; and in order to obtain this admiſſion, it was as neceſſary for him to maintain a good reputation; becauſe all the members of each tithing being natural pledges and ſureties for each other, and the whole tithing ſureties to the king for the good behaviour of all its members, they were very cautious of admitting any into their ſociety who were of bad or doubtful characters. Each tithing formed a little ſtate or commonwealth within itſelf, and choſe one of its moſt reſpectable members for its head, who was ſometimes called the *alderman* of ſuch a tithing or free burgh, on account of his age and experience, but moſt commonly *borſe-holder*.—This magiſtrate had authority to call together the members of his tithing, to preſide in their meetings, and to put their ſentences in execution. The members of each tithing, with their borſeholder at their head, conſtituted a court of juſtice, in which all the diſputes ariſing within the tithing were determined. If any diſpute of great difficulty or importance happened, or if either of the parties was not willing to ſubmit to a ſentence given in the tithing court, the cauſe was referred or appealed to the next ſuperior court, or court of the hundred.

BORSELLA, in the glaſs-works, an inſtrument wherewith glaſſes are extended or contracted at pleaſure; alſo ſmoothed and levigated.

BORSET, or } a place celebrated for its baths,
BORSETT, } about half a league from Aix la Chapelle. The abbey is very magnificent. The waters are warm, and of the nature of thoſe of Aix la Chapelle, being uſed as baths for the ſame diſeaſes, and alſo in dropſical and œdematous caſes. The waters are diſtinguiſhed into the upper and lower ſprings. The former were found by Dr Simmons to raiſe the thermometer to 158°, the latter to only 127°. All the baths are ſupplied by the firſt. Dr Simmons found that theſe waters were much leſs ſulphureous, than thoſe of Aix-la-Chapelle, probably on account of their greater heat; and that they abounded with ſelenites, which incruſt the pipe through which the water paſſes, and likewiſe the ſides of the bath.

BORSON, a town of Auſtria, in Tirol, which was evacuated, June 2d, 1796, by its inhabitants, who fled to Saltzburg upon the approach of the French army.

BORTAN, a ſmall river of N. America, in Vermont, which riſes in Weſtmore townſhip, Orange county, and after running NW. unites with the river Black, 3 m. S. of Lake Memphremagog.

(1.) BORTHWICK, a pariſh of Scotland, in the county of Edinburgh, about 12 miles SE. of that metropolis, extending about 6 m. from E. to W. and 4 from N. to S. The climate is various, but generally mild and ſalubrious; longevity being very common. The ſurface is uneven and reſembles waves. The ſoil is in general light, and agriculture is much improved. The only mechanical produce is that of the improved ploughs, by the celebrated James Small, who reſides in the pariſh. The population, in 1793, as ſtated by the rev. Mr Clunie, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 858, and had decreaſed 52, ſince 1755.

(2.) BORTHWICK, a river of Scotland, which riſes in the high grounds where the counties of Dumfries and Selkirk meet, and runs through the pariſh of Roberton, which it nearly divides. It abounds with excellent trouts, and is viſited by ſalmon in ſpawning time.

(3.) BORTHWICK CASTLE, a magnificent ruin, originally of aſtoniſhing ſtrength, and ſtill very entire, ſituated in the above pariſh. (N° 1.) It was built by William, the 1ſt Lord Borthwick, about A. D. 1430. It meaſures about 74 feet by 68, without the walls, which are of hewn ſtone, firmly cemented, 13 feet thick near the bottom, and gradually contracted to about 6 near the top: and beſides the ſunk ſtorey, 90 feet in height to the battlement, but including the roof, which is arched and covered with flags, 110 feet high.—The great hall is 40 feet long, and had been elegantly adorned with luſtres, paintings, tapeſtry, &c. On the firſt floor are ſtate rooms, formerly acceſſible by a draw bridge. Notwithſtanding its ſtrength, it was taken by Oliver Cromwell in 1650. Mr Clunie has preſerved a copy of his ſummons in *Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc.* XIII. 635.

(4.) BORTHWICK PARK, a diſtrict of 100 acres in Berwickſhire, ſurrounded by a very remarkable wall, of moorſtone, which has ſtood 179 years, without needing repairs, though it has neither covering nor mortar of any kind.

To BORWE, *v. a. obſ.* To borrow. *Chaucer.*

BORWICK, a village in Lancaſhire, between the Docker and the Lune.

BORYPTES, in natural hiſtory, a gem of a black colour with red and white ſpots.

BORYSTHENES. See BORISTHENES.

(I.) BOS, John Baptiſt DU, a celebrated author and member of the French academy, was born at Beauvais in 1670, and finiſhed his ſtudies at the Sorbonne. In 1695, he was made one of the committee for foreign affairs, and was afterwards charged with ſome important tranſactions in England, Germany, Holland, and Italy. At his return to Paris, he was made an abbé, and choſen perpetual ſecretary of the French academy. He was the author of ſeveral excellent works; the principal of which are, 1. Critical reflections upon poetry and painting, 3 vols 12mo. 2. The hiſtory of the 4 Gordians, confirmed and illuſtrated by medals. 3. A critical hiſtory of the eſtabliſhment of the French monarchy among the Gauls, 2 vols 4to, 4 vols 12mo. He died at Paris in 1742.

(II.) BOS, Lewis Janſſen, an eminent painter, born at Bois le Duc. Having been inſtructed in the art of painting, he rendered himſelf eminent for the truth of his colouring and the neatneſs of his handling. His favourite ſubjects were flowers, and curious plants, which he repreſented as grouped, in glaſſes, half filled with water; and gave them ſo lovely a look of nature, that it ſeemed ſcarce poſſible to expreſs them with greater truth or delicacy. He repreſented the drops of dew on the leaves which he executed with an uncommon

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common transparence; and embellished his subjects with butterflies, bees, wasps, and other insects. He likewise painted portraits with very great success; and showed as much merit in that style as he did in his compositions of still life. He died in 1507.

(III.) Bos, in antiquity, was used for an ancient Greek silver coin, which was also called DIDRACHMUS, being equivalent to two drachms. It was called *Bos* as having on it the impression of an ox, and chiefly obtained among the Athenians and Delians; being sometimes also struck of gold. From this arose the phrase *Bos in lingua*, applied to those who had taken bribes to hold their tongue.

(IV.) Bos, the ox, in zoology, a genus of quadrupeds belonging to the order of pecora. The characters of this genus are taken from the horns and teeth. The horns are hollow within, and extended in the form of crescents: There are eight fore teeth in the under jaw, and none in the upper, their place being supplied by a hard membrane; and there are no dog teeth in either jaw. Linnæus enumerates six species, but Mr Robert Kerr, in his *Animal Kingdom, or Zoological System of Sir C. Linnæus*, describes 9 species and 17 varieties. As he is one of the latest writers on the subject, and has added every thing new from prof. Gmelin, Mr Pennant, and other eminent writers on zoology, we have adopted his classification, with the exception only of the BONASUS (N° iv.) and the INDICUS, (N° viii.) which he ranks as varieties of the Bos TAURUS, but which we cannot help considering as distinct species, as indeed most other authors have ranked them: for, as Mr Kerr himself justly observes, (p. 34) "some of the kinds, considered (by him) only as *varieties*, seem fully *as specifically different* from the rest, as others which are placed as *distinct species*." Upon this account, therefore, the species we have to describe are 11 in number: viz.

i. Bos AMERICANUS, the AMERICAN BISON, with short black rounded horns, and a great interval between their bases. On the shoulders is a vast hunch, consisting of a fleshy substance, much elevated. The fore parts of the body are thick and strong; the hinder part, slender and weak.—The hunch and head are covered with a very long undulated fleece, divided into locks, of a dull rust colour: this is at times so long, as to make the fore part of the animal of a shapeless appearance, and to obscure its sense of seeing. During winter, the whole body is clothed in the same manner. In summer the hind part of the body is naked, wrinkled, and dusky. The tail is about a foot long; at the end is a tuft of black hairs, the rest naked. It inhabits Mexico, the interior parts of N. America, and in the Savannas. It is fond of marshy places, where it lodges amidst the high reeds. In Louisiana they feed in herds innumerable, promiscuously with multitudes of stags and deer, retiring in the sultry heats into the shade of tall reeds, which border the rivers of America. They are exceedingly shy; and very fearful of man, unless they are wounded, when they pursue their enemy, and become very dangerous.—The chase of these animals is a favourite diversion of the Indians; and is effected in two ways. First by shooting: when the marksmen must take great care to go against the wind; for their smell is so exquisite, that the moment they get scent of him they instantly retire with the utmost precipitation. He aims at their shoulders, that they may drop at once, and not be irritated by an ineffectual wound. If the wind does not favour them, they may be approached very near, being blinded by the hair which covers their eyes.—The other method is performed by a great number of men, who form a vast square: each band sets fire to the dry grass of the savanna where the herds are feeding: these animals having a great dread of fire which they see approach on all sides, they retire from it to the centre of the square; when the bands close and kill them, pressed together in heaps, without the least hazard. It is said that on every expedition of this nature they kill 1500 or 2000 beeves. The hunting grounds are marked out least the different bands should meet and interfere in the diversion. The uses of these animals are various. Powder-flasks are made of their horns. The skins are very valuable; formerly the Indians made of them the best targets. When dressed, they form an excellent buff; the Indians dress them with the hair on, and clothe themselves with them; the Europeans of Louisiana use them for blankets, and find them light, warm, and soft. The flesh is a considerable article of food, and the bunch on the back is esteemed a very great delicacy. The bulls become excessively fat, and yield great quantities of tallow, 150 pounds weight have been got from a single beast, which forms a considerable article of commerce. These over-fed animals usually become the prey of wolves; as, by their great unwieldiness, they cannot keep up with the herd. The Indians prefer the flesh of the cows, which in time will destroy the species: they complain of the rankness of that of the bulls; but Du Pratz thinks the last much more tender, and that the rankness might be prevented, by cutting off the testicles as soon as the beast is killed. The hair or wool is spun into cloth, gloves, stockings, and garters, which are very strong, and look as well as those made of the best sheeps wool; Governor Pownal assures us, that the most luxurious fabric might be made of it. The fleece of one of these animals has been found to weigh 8 pounds. Their sagacity in defending themselves against the attacks of wolves is admirable. When they scent the approach of a drove of those ravenous creatures, the herd casts itself into the form of a circle; the weakest keep in the middle; the strongest are ranged on the outside, presenting to the enemy an impregnable front of horns: when taken by surprise, numbers are sure to perish. Attempts have been made to domesticate the wild, by catching the calves and bringing them up with the common kind, in hopes of improving the breed; but it has not yet been found to answer: notwithstanding they had the appearance for a time of having lost their savage nature, yet they always grew impatient of restraint, and would break down the strongest inclosure, and entice the tame cattle into the corn fields. They have been known to engender together. These animals, says Mr Kerr, are of a vast size, weighing from 1600 to near 3000 lb.

ii. Bos ARNEE, says Mr Kerr, "has long erect-

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ted ſemilunar horns which are flattened, annularly wrinkled with ſmooth, round, approaching points; and inhabits India, N. from Bengal. This animal is of vaſt ſize, and is hitherto non deſcript. A ſkeleton of the head with the horns is in the Edinburgh College Muſæum;" (See *Plate* XLVI. *fig.* 1.) and another in Mr Weir's Muſæum. (See *fig.* 2.) "A Britiſh officer, who met with one in the woods above Bengal, ſays, it is above 14 feet high, that it partakes of the form of the horſe, bull, and deer, and is very bold and daring. This eſtabliſhes its genus, as all the other horned animals, of the ruminant or cloven-footed tribe, are ſhy and timid."

iii. Bos BARBATUS, the BEARDED OX, or CAPE AUROCH, "has ſhort horns; a beard on the chin, (whence the name,) and curly hair on the breaſt. It inhabits the country, N. of the Cape. The Namaques call it *Baas*, or the *Maſter Courier*, on account of its vaſt ſwiftneſs. It is like the common ox, but larger and of a grey colour. The head is ſmall."

iv. Bos BONASUS has a long mane: its horns are bent round towards the cheek, and not above a ſpan long. It is about the ſize of a large bull, and is a native of Africa and Aſia. See BONASUS.

v. 1. Bos BUBALUS, the common BUFFALO, has large black horns, firſt extended outwards, then bent backward and inward, and plain before. The hair on the back is very hard, but thinly ſcattered over the body. It is a native of Aſia; but they are tamed in Italy, and uſed for the ſame purpoſes as black cattle in other countries. They draw carriages, and are guided by a rope tied to a ſtring thruſt through their noſes. This buffalo is larger than an ox, has a thicker body, and a very hard hide. His pace is ſlow, but he will carry a great burden. They feed in herds: the cows go 12 months with young, and yield plenty of milk, of which very good butter and cheeſe is made. Their fleſh is pretty good, but not to be compared to beef. The wild buffalo is a very fierce and dangerous animal; he often attacks travellers, and tears them in pieces. However, they are not ſo much to be feared in woods as in the plains, as their horns, which are ſometimes 10 feet long, are apt to be entangled in the branches of trees, which gives thoſe who are ſurpriſed by them time to eſcape. They are excellent ſwimmers, and will croſs the largeſt rivers without any difficulty. They run wild in great troops on the coaſt of Malabar. Strangers are allowed to hunt and kill them at pleaſure. The following varieties are mentioned by Meſſrs Pennant and Kerr:

2. Bos BUBALUS ANOA is a native of the iſland Celebes, and is not bigger than a middle ſized ſheep, very fierce and wild, of a dark aſh colour, inhabiting the rocks. Mr Loten, when in India, put ſome of them into a paddock, and in one night's time they killed 14 or 15 of his deer by ripping up their bellies. No particular deſcription has yet been given of it.

3. Bos BUBALUS GUAVERA has a hunch on the back, which ſtands up in a ſharp ridge; the lower half of the legs are white. It inhabits Ceylon.

4. Bos BUBALUS SEMINUDUS has ſmall horns, compreſſed ſideways, taper, ſharp pointed, and ſtanding backwards. The rump and thighs are naked, whence the epithet *ſeminudus*, half-naked. It is ſmall, of the ſize of a Welſh runt. The hair on the fore part of the body is briſtly, and ſo thin, that the ſkin appears. On the rump are two duſky perpendicular ſtripes, and on the thighs, two tranſverſe.

vi. Bos CAFER, the CAPE BUFFALO, inhabits the interior part of Africa, N. of the Cape of Good Hope, but does not extend to the N. of the Tropic. They are ſaid to be greatly ſuperior in ſize to the largeſt Engliſh ox: they hang their heads down, and have a moſt ferocious and malevolent appearance. They are exceſſively fierce, and dangerous to travellers; will lie quietly in wait in the woods, and ruſh ſuddenly on paſſengers, and trample them, their horſes, and oxen of draught, under their feet. They will even return to the attack, and lick the ſlaughtered bodies. They are prodigiouſly ſwift, and ſo ſtrong, that a young one of 3 years of age, being placed with 6 tame oxen in a waggon, could not by their united force be moved from the ſpot. They are alſo found in the interior parts of Guinea; but are ſo fierce and dangerous, that the negroes when in chaſe of other animals are afraid to ſhoot at them. The lion, which can break the back of the ſtrongeſt domeſtic oxen at one blow, cannot kill this ſpecies, except by leaping on its back, and ſuffocating it by fixing his talons about its noſe and mouth. He often periſhes in the attempt; but leaves the marks of his fury about the mouth and noſe of the beaſt. They live in great herds, eſpecially in Krake-Kamma, and other deſerts of the Cape; and retires during the day into the thick foreſts. They are reckoned good meat by the Dutch of the Cape. They are called *Aurochs*, but differ totally from the European. The warmth of the climate has prevented the vaſt length and abundance of hair which diſtinguiſhes the former, and the luxuriance of herbage in this country has given it the vaſt ſuperiority of ſize. Dr Sparrman, deſcribing the death of one that was ſhot, informs us, that "immediately after the report of the gun, the buffalo fell upon its knees: that he afterwards raiſed himſelf up, and ran 700 or 800 paces into a thicket; and directly, with a moſt dreadful bellowing, gave us to underſtand, that it was all over with him. This creature, as well as moſt of the larger kind of game, was ſhot by a Hottentot. The beſt huntſmen among the farmers are obliged to make uſe of Hottentots as buſh-hunters; as in their ſkin cloaks they do not excite the attention of the wild beaſts ſo much as the Europeans do in their dreſs. They are likewiſe ready to go barefoot, and crawl ſoftly upon their bellies, till they come within a proper diſtance of the animal. When the buffalo at length is irritated, a Hottentot can much eaſier eſcape from danger than a European. I made a draught and took the dimenſions of this buffalo. The entrails perfectly reſembled thoſe of an ox; but were much larger, and indeed gave us no little trouble in clearing them away; for the diameter of this creature's body was full 3 feet: the length 8 feet, the height 5½, and the fore legs 2½ long; the larger hoofs were 5 inches over; from the tip of the muzzle to the horns was 22 inches. This animal in ſhape, (ſee *Plate* XXVI.) very much reſembled

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ſembled the common ox; but the buffalo has much ſtouter limbs, in proportion to its height and length. Their fetlocks hang likewiſe nearer to the ground. The horns are ſingular, both in their form and poſition: the baſes are 13 inches broad and only an inch diſtant from each other; by which there is formed between them a narrow channel, in a great meaſure bare of hair. Meaſuring them from this, the horns riſe up in a ſpherical form, with an elevation of 3 inches at moſt. In this way they extend over a great part of the head, viz. from the nape of the neck to the diſtance of 3½ inches from the eyes; ſo that the part from which they grow out, does not occupy a ſpace of leſs than 17 or 20 inches in circumference. From hence bending down on each ſide of the neck, and becoming more cylindrical by degeees, they form a curve, the convex part of which is turned towards the ground, and the point up in the air; which, however, at the ſame time is generally inclined backwards. The diſtance between the points of the horns is frequently above 5 feet; the colour is black; and the ſurface, to within about a 3d part, meaſured from the baſe, is very rough and craggy, with cavities ſometimes an inch deep. Neither theſe cavities, nor the elevations which are formed between them, appear to be at all accidental, as there is a tolerable ſimiliarty between theſe excreſcences, though they are very different in different buffaloes. The ears are a foot in length, ſomewhat pendant, and defended by the lower edges of the horns. The edges of the ears are notched and ſhrivelled up in divers ways, which probably proceeds from the wounds theſe creatures frequently receive in their battles with each other, and from the rents they get in the briars and almoſt impenetrable thickets through which they paſs. The hairs of the buffalo are of a dark brown colour, about an inch long; harſh; and on ſuch males as are advanced in years, very thin, eſpecially on the middle of the ſides of the belly: hence they appear at ſome diſtance as if they were girt with a belt; and what contributes not a little to this appearance is, that the buffaloes in general are very fond of rolling in the mire. The hairs on the knees are in moſt buffaloes ſomewhat longer than thoſe on the reſt of the body, and lie as it were in whirls. The eyes are ſomewhat ſunk within their prominent orbits. This, together with their near ſituation to the baſes of the horns, which hang ſomewhat over its pendant dangling ears, and its uſual method of holding its head inclined to one ſide, gives the buffalo a fierce and treacherous aſpect. His diſpoſition correſponds with his countenance. He hides himſelf among the trees, and ſkulks there till ſomebody comes very near him, when he ruſhes out at once and attacks him. Not content with killing the perſon whom he attacks, he afterwards tramples upon him with his hoofs and heels, and with his horns and teeth tears to pieces and mangles the whole body, ſtripping off the ſkin by licking it with his tongue. Notwithſtanding this, the buffalo will bear to be hunted; (ſee HUNTING,) though ſometimes he will turn and purſue his hunter, whoſe only dependence in that caſe is upon the ſwiftneſs of his ſteed. The ſureſt way to eſcape is to ride up a hill, as the great bulk of the buffalo's body prevents him from being able to vie with the fine limbed horſe in ſwiftneſs; though, on the other hand, the buffalo, in going down hill, gets on much faſter than the horſe. The fleſh of the buffalo is coarſe and not very fat, but full of juice, and of a high and not diſagreeable flavour. The hide is thick and tough, and is in great requeſt with the farmers for thongs and harneſſes; being the only halters that can be depended upon for ſecuring horſes and oxen; ſo that they cannot get looſe by ſnapping them aſunder, which they are otherwiſe apt to do when the lions and wolves make their appearance in the neighbourhood."

vii. BOS GRUNNIENS, or hog cow, has ſhort, erect, ſheep pointed cylindrical horns bent outwards. The body is ſo hairy, that the hair hangs down upon its knees like a goat. The colour of the body is black, but the front is white. It has briſtles on its back, and hind-legs, and it grunts like a hog. The tail reſembles that of a horſe, and is covered with very long flowing ſilky hairs. It is an inhabitant of the N. of Aſia. Mr Kerr enumerates 4 varieties of this ſpecies, viz.

1. BOS GRUNNIENS ECORNIS, is a domeſticated breed, without horns, but furniſhed with an immenſe thickneſs of bone on the forehead.

2. BOS GRUNNIENS FERUS, the wild grunting ox, inhabits Tangut, Mongalia, Thibet, Siberia, China, Perſia, and India. The ſize is various, but ſome individuals are ſo very large, that it is ſaid they have tails 6 feet long, which do not reach the ground. They are of tremendous fierceneſs, and when wounded turn furiouſly on the aſſailant, whom they never fail to deſtroy, if he does not eſcape inſtantly. Their fleſh, when full grown is hardly eatable.

3. BOS GRUNNIENS GHAINOUK is a domeſticated variety of the wild breed (N° 3.) which it reſembles in every thing, excepting that it is ſubject to great variety of colour.

4. BOS GRUNNIEN SARLYK is a degenerated race, not particularly deſcribed, but ſuppoſed to be a hybrid produce between the genuine breed and the cattle of the country. All the domeſticated breeds retain much of their original fierceneſs and are eaſily irritated, eſpecially at the ſight of any thing red, on which account, the natives cut off the ſharp points of their horns. They are employed in draughts and carriages.

viii. BOS INDICUS the INDIAN OX, with all its varieties, are conſidered by Dr Gmelin, as varieties of the BOS TAURUS, (§ xi.) but, as Mr Kerr obſerves, "many of them have ſuch remarkable differences as would conſtitute, in other genera, ſufficient marks for ſpecific diſtinction." They have a large fatty lump on the ſhoulders. They differ much in ſize and in the form of their horns. Such are very large, and of a reddiſh colour; with horns ſhort, and bending cloſe to the neck, other very ſmall, with horns almoſt upright, bending a little forward. The following are the chief varieties:

1. BOS INDICUS MAJOR, with ſhort horns bending backward, inhabits India, Africa and Madagaſcar. The lump is compoſed entirely of fat, and is eſteemed a great delicacy. This breed grows to a vaſt ſize; the neck is prodigiouſly thick, and the legs rather ſhort in proportion.

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They intermix with the common ſpecies, and in a few generations the lump diſappears.

2. Bos INDICUS MIMIMUS, is of a very diminutive ſize, being not larger than a great dog, but has a very fierce look. It inhabits Surat, and is uſed to draw children in ſmall carts.

3. Bos INDICUS MINOR, the ZEBU, or LITTLE INDIAN BUFFALO, has ſhort erect horns turned a little forwards, with a lump on the ſhoulders. See *Plate* XXVI. It is about the ſize of a calf 6 months old, and inhabits India, Perſia, and China. It is the common beaſt of burden in India, and is alſo uſed to draw carriages and even for ridding.

ix. Bos MOSCHATUS, the MUSK OX of Hudſon's bay, is about the ſize of a Scotch bullock; has a thick body and ſhort legs. The horns are large, and are united at their origin in the ſkull; but immediately after, they fall down on each ſide of the crown of the head, then taper away ſmall, the points turning up, and out. See *Plate* XXIV. The horns of an old bull are about 2 feet in length, as well as in circumference, and weigh about 30 lb each. The hair is black, and grows to a great length; underneath which is a very fine aſh-coloured wool, ſuperior to Vigonia wool. The male only has the curious ſcalp; the female is covered with hair. Theſe animals frequent the country about 190 miles inwards to the NW. of Churchill river, in Hudſon's bay, where they are very numerous. They live in herds of from 30, to 80 or 100. The bulls are very few in proportion to the cows. It is rare to ſee more than 2 or 3 full grown bulls with the largeſt herd; and from the number of males which at times are found dead, the Indians are of opinion that they kill each other in contending for the females at the rutting ſeaſon. They are then ſo jealous of their miſtreſſes, that they run at either man or beaſt who offers to approach them; and have been ſeen to run and bellow even at ravens, and other large birds which chanced to fly or light near them. They go to rut in Auguſt. The females bring forth their young about the end of May, or beginning of June, and have only one at a time. They delight moſt in the rocky and mountainous parts of the barren grounds. Though a beaſt of an apparently unwieldy form, yet it climbs the rocks with great eaſe and agility, and is nearly as ſure footed as a goat. Though they ſeem fondeſt of graſs, yet in winter they eat moſs or any other herbage: alſo the top of the willows and the bruſh of the pine tree. The fleſh no ways reſembles that of the weſtern buffalo; but is more like that of the elk, the fat being of a clear white, ſlightly tinged with azure. The calves and young heifers are exceeding good eating; but the fleſh of the bulls both ſmell and taſte ſo ſtrong of muſk, as to render it very diſagreeable. It ſeems to have been for want of better information, that Mr Drage aſſerts the heart to be the moſt impregnated: had he ſaid the kidneys, he would have been much nearer the truth. The urine muſt contain this ſcent in a very great degree; for the penis is always lubricated with a brown gummy ſubſtance, ſo highly ſcented with muſk, that after having been kept for ſeveral years it does not ſeem to have loſt any of its quality. The dung of this animal, though ſo large, is all in little round knots; and ſo exactly like that of the varying hare, both in ſize and colour, that it would be eaſy to miſtake them were it not for the quantity. The Indians kill great numbers of them. From 2000 to 4000 lb. of the fleſh frozen is brought to Prince of Wales' Fort annually, and is ſerved out to the Europeans.

x. Bos PUMILUS, the DWARF OX, has horns almoſt erect, which cloſe at the baſe, recede in the middle, and approach at the points. It inhabits Africa, and was ſeen at Cairo by Belon, who ſays it came from Morocco. It is larger than a roe, but leſs than a ſtag; has a thick neck, elevated ſhoulders, and ſhort legs: the hair is brown and ſhining, and the tail is terminated by long and coarſe hairs.

xi. 1. Bos TAURUS, (the DOMESTIC BULL and cow,) has cylindrical horns bent outwards, and looſe dewlaps. The BULL, or male, is naturally a fierce and terrible animal. When the cows are in ſeaſon, he is perfectly ungovernable, and often altogether furious. When chaffed, he has an air of ſullen majeſty, and often tears up the ground with his feet and horns. The principal uſe of the bull is to propagate the ſpecies; all though he might be trained to labour, his obedience cannot be depended on. A bull, like a ſtallion, ſhould be the moſt handſome of his ſpecies. He ſhould be large, well made, and in good heart; he ſhould have a black eye, and a fierce aſpect, but an open front; a ſhort head; thick, ſhort, and blackiſh horns, and long ſhaggy ears; a ſhort and ſtraight noſe, large and full breaſt and ſhoulders, thick and fleſhy neck, firm reins, a ſtraight back, thick fleſhy legs, and a long tail well covered with hair. Caſtration remarkably ſoftens the nature of this animal; it deſtroys all his fire and impetuoſity, and renders him mild and tractable, without diminiſhing his ſtrength; on the contrary, after this operation, his weight is increaſed, and he becomes fitter for the purpoſes of ploughing, &c. See Ox, § 2. The females of all thoſe ſpecies of animals which we keep in flocks, and whoſe increaſes is the principal object, are much more uſeful than the males. The cow produces milk, butter, cheeſe, &c. which are principal articles in our food, and beſides anſwer many uſeful purpoſes in various arts. Cows are generally in ſeaſon, and receive the bull from the beginning of May to the middle of July. Their time of geſtration is 9 months, which naturally brings the veal to our markets from the beginning of January to the end of April. See CALF. However luxury has fallen upon methods of interrupting this natural courſe, and veal may be had almoſt every month in the year. Cows, when improperly managed, are very ſubject to abortion. In the time of geſtation, therefore, they ought to be obſerved with more than ordinary care, leſt they ſhould leap ditches, &c. Neither ſhould they be ſuffered to draw in the plough or other carriage. They ſhould be put into the beſt paſture, and ſhould not be milked for ſix weeks or two months before they bring forth their young. The cow comes to the age of puberty in 18 months, but the bull requires two years: but although

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though they are capable of propagating at these ages, it is better to restrain them till they be full 3 years. From 3 to 9 years those animals are in full vigour; but when older, they are fit for nothing but to be fed for the butcher. A milk cow, ought to be chosen young, fleshy, and with a brisk eye. The heaviest and most bulky animals neither sleep so profoundly, nor so long, as the smaller ones. The sleep of the ox is short and slight; he wakes at the least noise. He lies generally on the left side, and the kidney of that side is always larger than the other. There is great variety in the colour of oxen. A reddish or black colour is most esteemed. The hair should be glossy, thick, and soft; for when otherwise, the animal is either not in health, or has a weakly constitution. The ox eats very quick, and soon fills his first stomach; after which he lies down to ruminate or chew the cud. The 1st and 2d stomachs are continuations of the same bag, and very capatious. After the grass has been chewed over again, it is reduced to a kind of mash, not unlike boiled spinage; and under this form it is sent down to the 3d stomach, where it remains and digests for some time; but the digestion is not fully completed till it comes to the 4th stomach, from which it is thrown down to the guts. The contents of the 1st and 2d stomachs are a collection of grass and other vegetables roughly macerated; a fermentation, however, soon commences, which makes the grass swell. The communication between the 2d and 3d stomach is by an opening much smaller than the gullet, and not sufficient for the passage of the food in this state. Whenever then the two first stomachs are distended with food, they begin to contract, or rather perform a kind of reaction. This reaction compresses the food, and makes it endeavour to get out: now the gullet being larger than the passage between the 2d and 3d stomachs, the pressure of the stomach necessarily forces it up the gullet. The action of ruminating, however, appears to be in a great measure voluntary; as animals of this kind have a power of encreasing the reaction of their stomachs. After the food undergoes a 2d mastication, it is then reduced into a thin pulp, which easily passes from the 2d to the 3d stomach, where it is still further macerated; from thence it passes to the 4th, where it is reduced to a perfect mucilage, every way prepared for being taken up by the lacteals, and converted into nourishment. What confirms this account of chewing the cud is, that as long as these animals suck or feed upon liquid aliment, they never ruminate; and in the winter, when they are obliged to feed upon hay and other dry victuals, they ruminate more than when they feed upon fresh grass. Bulls, cows, and oxen, are fond of licking themselves, especially when lying at rest. But this practice should be prevented as much as possible; for as the hair is an undigestible substance, it lies in the stomach or guts, and is gradually coated by a glutinous substance, which in time hardens into round stones of a considerable bulk, which sometimes kills them, but always prevents their fattening, as the stomach is rendered incapable of digesting the food so well as it ought. The age of these animals may be distinguished by the teeth and horns. The first foreteeth fall out at the age of six months, and are succeeded by others of a darker colour, and broader. At the end of 16 months, the next milk teeth likewise fall out; and at the beginning of the fourth year all the fore teeth are renewed, and then they are long, pretty white, and equal: However, as the animal advances in years, they become unequal and blackish. The horns of oxen, 4 years of age, are small pointed, neat, and smooth, but thickest near the head: This thick part next season is pushed further from the head by a horny cylinder, which is also terminated by another swelling part, and so on (for as long as the ox lives, the horns continue to grow;) and these swellings become so many annular knots by which the age may easily be reckoned. But from the point to the first knot must be counted three years, and every succeeding knot only one year. The bull, cow, and ox, generally live about 12 or 15 years. Ox beef is very nourishing, and yields a strong aliment; the flesh of a cow, when well fatted and young, is not much inferior. But beef is hard, tough, and dry; for which reason it is not much used for food. Veal is well tasted, easy of digestion, and rather keeps the body open than otherwise. For the uses of the various parts of these animals, See Ox. The northern countries of Europe produce the best cattle of this kind. In general, they bear cold better than heat; for this reason they are not so numerous in the southern countries. There are but few in Asia to the south of Armenia, or in Africa beyond Egypt and Barbary. America produced none of this species till they were carried there by the Europeans. But the largest are to be met with in Denmark, Podolia, the Ukrain, and among the Calmuck Tartars; likewise those of Ireland, England, Holland, and Hungary, are much larger than those of Persia, Turky, Greece, Italy, and Spain; but those of Barbary are least of all. In all mountainous countries, as Wales, the Highlands of Scotland, &c. the black cattle are small, but hardy; and when fattened make excellent beef. In Lapland, they are mostly white, and many of them want horns. The British breed of cattle, Mr Pennant observes, has in general been so much improved by foreign mixture, that it is difficult to point out the original kind of these islands. Those which may be supposed to have been originally British are far inferior in size to those on the northern part of the European continent; the cattle of the Highlands of Scotland are exceedingly small and many of them, males as well as females, are hornless: the Welch runts are much larger: the black cattle of Cornwall are of the same size with the last. The large breeds, now cultivated through most parts of Great Britain, are either entirely of foreign extraction, or our own improved by a cross with the foreign kind. The Lincolnshire kind derive their size from the Holstein breed; and the large hornless cattle, that are bred in some parts of England, come originally from Poland. There are many varieties of this species: among which the following are mentioned by Mr Kerr and Prof. Gmelin.

2. BOS TAURUS ABYSSINICUS, the Abyssinian ox,

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ox, has a hunch on its back, and the horns adhere to the skin only, and hang pendulous. It inhabits Abyssinia and other parts of Africa.

3. Bos taurus africanus, the LANT, is white and has elegant horns, slender legs and black hoofs. It inhabits Africa, and is swifter than most horses. The hide is said to be impenetrable by a bullet. Some reckon it a species of antelope.

4. Bos taurus bison has horns reflected forwards, a hunched back and a long mane. It is white, and is supposed by Buffon to be the same with the Bonasus (§ iv.) and the Ferus: (N° 5.) But Gmelin ranks them as distinct. It is quite a different animal from the American Bison. (§ i.)

5. Bos taurus ferus, the WILD OX, inhabits the marshy woods of Poland, Prussia, and Lithuania. It is supposed to be the original stock of all the European domestic breeds. It has thick short horns, reflected forward, and a curly forehead. About 250 years ago, there was found in Scotland a wild race of cattle, which were of a pure white colour, and had, if we may believe Boethius, manes like lions. Mr Pennant says, he cannot but give credit to the relation; having seen in the woods of Drumlanrig in North Britain, and in the park belonging to Chillingham castle in Northumberland, herds of cattle probably derived from the savage breed. They had lost their manes, but retained their colour and fierceness; they were of a middle size, long legged, and had black muzzels and ears; their horns fine, with a bold and elegant bend.—The keeper of those at Chillingham said, that the weight of the ox was 38 stones; of the cow, 28; that their hides were more esteemed by the tanners than those of the tame; and they would give sixpence per stone more for them. These cattle were wild as any deer; on being approached they would instantly take to flight, and gallop away at full speed; never mix with the tame species, nor come near the house, unless constrained to it by hunger in very severe weather. When it is necessary to kill any, they are always shot: if the keeper only wounds the beast, he must take care to keep behind some tree, or his life would be in danger from the furious attacks of the animal, which will never desist till a period is put to its life. Frequent mention is made of our savage cattle by historians. One relates, that K. Robert Bruce was (in chasing these animals) preserved from the rage of a wild bull, by the intrepidity of one of his courtiers, from which he and his lineage acquired the name of Turn-bull. Fitz-Stephen names these animals *uri sylvestres*, among those that harboured in the great forest that in his time lay adjacent to London. Another enumerates, among the provisions at the great feast of Nevil Abp. of York, fix wild bulls; and Sibbald assures us, that in his days a wild and white species was found in the mountains of Scotland, but agreeing in form with the common sort. These were probably the same with the *bisontes jubati* of Pliny found then in Germany, and might have been common to the continent and our island; the loss of their savage vigour by confinement might occasion some change in the external appearance, as is frequent with wild animals deprived of liberty; and to that we may ascribe their loss of mane. The urus of the Hercynian forest described by Cæsar (lib. vi.) was of this kind; the same which is called by the modern Germans, *aurochs*, i. e. *bos sylvestris*.

6. Bos taurus madagascariensis, the BOURY, or Madagascar ox; is of a large size and white colour, with pendulous ears, and a hunched back. It inhabits Adel and Madagascar.

7. Bos taurus tinianensis, the Tinian ox, is of a white colour, but has black ears, and inhabits the isle of Tinian.

(1.) BOSA, a river of Sardinia.

(2.) Bosa, or Bossa, a town on the W. coast of Sardinia, seated on the mouth of the river, (N° 1.) near which it has a harbour, 32 m. N. of Oristagni. Lon. 8. 30. E. Lat. 40. 15. N.

(3.) Bosa, in the Egyptian medicine, denoted a mass prepared of the flower of the lolium, hempseed, and water; of the same inebriating virtue with the assis, or opium.

BOSBURY, a village in Herefordshire, near Ledbury.

(1.) BOSC, John du, Lord of Esmendreville, president of the Court of Aids at Roan, was one of the many martyrs to the protestant religion in France, during the bloody reign of Charles IX. Mr Bayle gives him an excellent character. He was made counsellor and commissary of requests in 1554; and was promoted to the 2d presidency, 26 Jan. 1562, but was beheaded the 1st of Nov. following, as one of the authors of the resistance of Roan to the arms of the king. Le Labourer says, "he was worthy of a better fate, having all the great qualities that are to be desired in an accomplished magistrate." He wrote, 1. *Joannis Boschæi Neustrii περὶ Δικαιωμάτων, De legitimis antiis*: 2. A treatise of the Number Seven: 3. *De Numæ Pompilii Sacris*, a work which gave great offence to the catholics.

(2.) Bosc, N. du, a Franciscan of the 17th century, author of several works: particularly, 1. *The Honest Woman*; to which his friend D'Ablancourt wrote a preface: 2. *The Heroic Woman*: and 3 several pieces against the Jansenists, which were little esteemed.

(3.) Bosc, Peter du, the greatest protestant preacher of his age, was the son of W. Du Bosc, advocate in Rouen, and born at Bayeux, in 1623. He studied at Montauban and Saumur, and made such rapid progress, that, in 1645, he was chosen minister at Caen. He was soon considered as a perfect orator, and was repeatedly pressed to accept of the church of Charenton, but he and the people of Caen were so fond of each other, that nothing but persecution could part them. This began in 1664, when he was confined to Chalons by a *lettre de catchet*, but he was liberated soon after, and the joy of the people of all persuasions was so great, upon his return to Caen, that even the Catholics rejoiced; and one gentleman made two Franciscan friars so drunk upon the occasion, that one of them died on the spot. The Bp. of Chalons was particularly kind to him. In 1665, he began to signalize his prudence, as well as his eloquence in defending the protestant churches against persecutions. In 1666, the king having published a declaration against them, all the churches sent deputies to Paris; but the drawing up their memorials was committed by the rest to M. Du

Bosc

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Bofc, who was deputed from thofe of Normandy. In 1668, he alone had an audience of the king, wherein he fucceeded fo well, that fome meliora-tion was obtained. And Mr Bayle obferves, if it had been poffible to fave the reformed churches by negociation, he would have done it. But in 1685, he himfelf was interdicted; whereupon he went to Rotterdam, where he was minifter till his death, in 1692. He publifhed feveral volumes of fermons; and after his death, his fon-in-law M. Le Gendre publifhed a valuable collection of his memoirs, requefts, petitions, &c. relating to the churches, with his fpeeches, letters, and poems in Greek, Latin, and French.

(1.) * BOSCAGE. *n.f.* [*bofcage*, Fr.] 1. Wood, or woodlands.—We bent our courfe thither, where we faw the appearance of land; and, the next day, we might plainly difcern that it was a land flat to our fight, and full of *bofcage*, which made it fhew the more dark. *Bacon.* 2. The prefentation of woods.—Cheerful paintings in feafting and banqueting rooms; grayer ftories in galleries; landfcapes and *bofcage*, and fuch wild works, in open terraces, or fummer-houfes. *Wotton.*

(2.) BOSCAGE, among painters, a landfcape reprefenting much wood and trees.

(3.) BOSCAGE, or BOSCAGIUM, } in law, 1. food which trees yield to cattle; as maft, &c. Manhood fays, to be quit of Bofcage is to be difcharged of paying any duty for windfall wood in the foreft. 2. A tax on wood.

BOSCAN, John, a Spanifh poet of the 16th century, born at Barcelona. He was the friend of Garcilaffo de la Vigo, another Spanifh poet. Thefe two were the firft who made any great improvement in the poetry of their nation, and their pieces were printed together. Bofcan, who died about A. D. 1542, principally fucceeded in fonnets.

BOSCASTLE, formerly called BOTEREAUX CASTLE, a town in Cornwall, feated on the Briftol Channel, 230 miles from London.

BOSCAWEN, Edward, a brave Britifh admiral, was the fecond fon of Hugh, lord vifcount Falmouth. Having early entered into the navy, he was, in 1740, captain of the Shoreham; and behaved with great intrepidity as a volunteer under Admiral Vernon, at the taking of Porto Bello. At the fiege of Carthagena, in March 1740-1, he had the command of a party of feamen, who refolutely attacked and took a battery of 15 twenty-four pounders, though expofed to the fire of another fort of 5 guns, and was appointed to the command of the Prince Frederic of 70 guns. In May 1742 he returned to England, and married Frances, daughter of William Glanville, Efq. and the fame year was elected reprefentative for Truro in Cornwall. In 1744, he was made captain of the Dreadnought of 60 guns; and foon after took the Media, a French man of war, the firft king's fhip taken in that war. May 3, 1747, he fignalized himfelf under admirals Anfon and Warren, in an engagement with the French fleet off Cape Finifterre, and was wounded in the fhoulder with a mufket ball; the whole ten French fhips of war were taken. On the 15th July, he was made rear-admiral of the blue, and commander in chief of the land and fea forces employed on an expedition to the Eaft Indies; and on the 4th Nov. failed from St Helen's, with 6 fhips of the line, 5 frigates, and 2000 foldiers. On the 29th July, 1748, he arrived at St David's, and foon after laid fiege to Pondicherry; but the men growing fickly, and the monfoons expected, the fiege was raifed, and he fhewed himfelf as much the general as the admiral in his retreat. Soon after he had the news of the peace, and Madrafs was delivered up to him by the French. In April 1750, he arrived at St Helen's in the Exeter, and found that in his abfence he had been appointed rear admiral of the white. He was next year appointed one of the lords commiffioners of the admiralty, and chofen an elder brother of the Trinity houfe. In February 1755, he was appointed vice admiral of the blue. On the 19th April, he fell in with, and took the Alcide and Leys of 64 guns each. In 1756, he was appointed vice admiral of the white; and in 1758, admiral of the blue, and commander in chief of the expedition to Cape Breton; when, in conjunction with general Amherft, and a body of troops from New England, the important fortrefs of Louifbourg, and the whole ifland of Cape Breton were taken, for which he afterwards received the thanks of the Houfe of Commons. In 1759, being appointed to the command in the Mediterranean, he arrived at Gibraltar, where hearing that the Toulon fleet, under M. de la Cue, had paffed the Straits, to join that at Breft, he got under fail, and on the 18th Aug. engaged the enemy. His fhip, the Namur of 90 guns, lofing her main maft, he fhifted his flag to the Newark; and, after a fharp engagement, took 3 large fhips, and burnt two in Lagos Bay, and the fame year arrived at Spithead with his prizes and 2000 prifoners. On December 8, 1760, he was appointed general of the marines, with a falary of L. 3000 per annum, and was alfo fworn one of the privy council. He died in 1761.

BOSCAW-WOAN, a village in Cornwall, at the Land's End.

BOSCH, Jacob Vanden, a painter of ftill life, was born at Amfterdam in 1636, and painted fummer fruits of various kinds, with fuch natural and tranfparent colour, that they appeared delicious, and almoft real. He died in 1676.

BOSCHAERTS, Thomas Willeborts, a celebrated painter, was born at Bergen-op-zoom; and began to draw, when very young, in the books that were intended for other ftudies. He drew his own picture from a looking-glafs, fo like, that thofe who faw it were aftonifhed. This he did before he had the leaft inftruction, when he was only 12 years of age. Upon this his parents fent him to a mafter, that he might follow the bent of his genius; but his firft mafter being an indifferent painter, he engaged himfelf with Gerard Segers; under whom he proved a moft ingenious artift. Antwerp being at that time the feat of arts, he there executed fuch a number of noble pieces as added greatly to the fplendour of that wealthy city. In 1642, Henry Frederick prince of Orange, and his fon prince William, employed him in their fervice; and he painted portraits for moft of the perfons of quality then living. He died in 1670.

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BOSCHAS, a species of Anas. See ANAS, N. 6.

BOSCHI, or } a town of Italy, in the Mila-
(1.) BOSCO, } nese, seated on the river Orbe. Lon. 9. 44. W. Lat. 44. 5. N.

(2.) BOSCO. See ATTACHIAMENTA, N° 2.

BOSCOBEL, a grove in Shropshire, near White-Ladies, in the parish of Tonge, noted for the oak in which Charles II. was hid, and saw the soldiers pass by in quest of him, after the battle of Worcester.

BOSCOI, or BOSCI, [Gr. βοσκω, grazers,] in ecclesiastical history, a species of monks in Palestine, who fed on grass like the beasts. The Boscoi are ranked among the number of Adamites, not so much on account of their habit, as food. They took no care about provision; but when any of them was hungry, he went into the fields with a knife, and gathered and eat what he could find.

BOSCOMB, a village in Wiltshire, 3 miles SE. of Salisbury, and 9 from Sarum.

BOSCUS, [from βοσκω, to feed,] in ancient law writings, signifies a wood of any kind. It is also written BUSCUS, *buscaria*, and *buscale*. *Boscus* is divided into high wood, or timber, called also *saltus*, and *haut bois*; and coppice, or underwood, *sub boscus*, or *sub bois*.

BOSEA, GOLDEN-ROD TREE: A genus of the digynia order, belonging to the pentandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 53d order, Scabridæ. The calyx is pentaphyllous; there is no corolla, and the berry is monospermous. Of this genus there is but one species, viz.

BOSEA YERVAMORA. It is a native of the Canary and Caribbee islands. It has been long an inhabitant of the British botanic gardens, but has never been observed to flower in this country. It is a pretty strong woody shrub, growing with a stem as large as a man's leg; the branches come out very irregular, and make considerable shoots every summer, which should be shortened in spring. These branches retain their leaves till spring, when they fall away, and new leaves are produced in their place. It may be propagated by cuttings planted in spring; and the plants must be housed in winter, for they are too tender to bear the open air at that season.

BOSEHAM, a village in Sussex, between Chichester and Thorney Isle.

BOSGRAVE, in Sussex, NE. of Chichester.

BOSHIES-MEN, a species of Hottentots, so called, according to Dr Sparrman, from their dwelling in woody or mountainous places. They are sworn enemies to a pastoral life; live on hunting and plunder, and never keep any animal alive for the space of one night. By this means they render themselves odious to the rest of the inhabitants of the Cape, and are pursued and exterminated like the wild beasts, whose manners they have assumed. Others are kept alive and made slaves of. Their weapons are poisoned arrows, which shot out of a small bow, will fly 200 paces, and will hit a mark with a tolerable degree of certainty at the distance of 50 or even 100 paces. From this distance they can convey death to the game they hunt for food, as well as to their foes, and even to so large and tremendous a beast as the lion. The Hottentot, in the mean time, safe in his ambush, is certain of the operation of his poison, which is always of the most virulent kind; and it is said he has only to wait a few minutes to see the wild beast languish and die. The dwellings of these foes to a pastoral life are generally not more agreeable than their manners. Like the wild beasts, bushes and clifts in rocks serve them for houses; and some of them are said to be so far worse than beasts, that their soil has been found close by their habitations. A great many of them are entirely naked; but such as have been able to procure the skin of any sort of animal, great or small, cover their bodies with it from the shoulders downwards as far as it will reach, wearing it till it falls off their back in rags. Ignorant of agriculture, they wander over hills and dales, after wild roots, berries, and plants, which they eat raw, to sustain a life that this miserable food would soon extinguish, were they used to better fare. Their table, however, is sometimes composed of several other dishes; such as the larvæ of insects, caterpillars, white ants (the *termes*), grasshoppers, snakes, and some sort of spiders. The Boshiesman is nevertheless frequently in want, and famished to such a degree as to waste almost to a shadow. "It was with no small astonishment (says Dr Sparrman, that I for the first time saw in Lang Kloof a lad belonging to this race of men with his face, arms, legs, and body, so monstrously small and withered, that I could not have been induced to suppose but that he had been brought to that state by the fever that was epidemic in those parts, had I not seen him at the same time run like a lapwing. It required but a few weeks to bring one of those starvelings to a thriving state, and even to make him fat; their stomachs being strong enough to digest the great quantity of food with which they are crammed, as they may be rather said to bolt than eat." The capture of slaves from among this race of men is by no means difficult; and is effected (Dr Sparrman informs us) in the following manner. "Several farmers join together, and take a journey to that part of the country where the Boshies-men live. They, as well as their Lego-Hottentots, or else such Boshies-men as have been caught some time before, and have been trained up to fidelity in their service, endeavour to spy out where the wild Boshies-men have their haunts. This is best discovered by the smoke of their fires. They are found in societies from 30 to 100, reckoning great and small. Notwithstanding this, the farmers will venture in a dark night to set upon them with 6 or 8 people, which they contrive to do by previously stationing themselves at some distance round about the craal. They then give the alarm by firing a gun or two. By this means there is such a consternation spread among these savages, that it is only the most bold among them that have the courage to break through the circle and steal off. These the captors are glad enough to get rid of at so easy a rate; being better pleased with those that are stupid, timorous, and struck with amazement, and who consequently allow themselves to be taken and carried into bondage. They are, however, at first treated by gentle methods; that is, the victors intermix the fairest promises with their threats, and endeavour, if possible, to shoot some

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ſome of the larger kinds of game for their priſoners, ſuch as buffaloes, ſea-cows, and the like. Such agreeable baits, together with a little tobacco, ſoon induce them, continually cockered and feaſted as they are, to go with a tolerable degree of chearfulneſs to the coloniſt's place of abode. There this luxurious junketting upon meat and fat is exchanged for moderate portions, conſiſting for the moſt part of butter milk, frumenty, and hafty pudding. This diet, nevertheleſs makes the Boſhies-man fat in a few weeks. However, he ſoon finds his good living embittered by the maundering and grumbling of his maſter and miſtreſs. The words *t'guzeri* and *t'gaunaſi*, which perhaps are beſt tranſlated by thoſe of "young ſorcerer" and "imp," are expreſſions which he muſt frequently put up with, and ſometimes a few curſes and blows into the bargain; and this for neglect, remiſſneſs, or idleneſs; which laſt failure, if it cannot be ſaid to be born with him, is however in a manner naturalized in him. So that both by nature and cuſtom deteſting all manner of labour, and now from his greater corpulency becoming ſtill more ſlothful, and having beſides been uſed to a wandering life, ſubject to no controul, he moſt ſenſibly feels the want of his liberty. No wonder, then, that he generally endeavours to regain it by making his eſcape: but what is really a ſubject for wonder is, that when one of theſe poor devils runs away from his ſervice, or more properly bondage, he never takes with him any thing that does not belong to him. This is an inſtance of moderation in the ſavages towards their tyrants which is univerſally atteſted, and at the ſame time praiſed and admired by the coloniſts themſelves; which, however, I cannot eaſily reconcile with what I have learned of the human heart. Is it in conſequence of their fearing to meet with harder uſage in caſe they ſhould be retaken? This far, however, is certain, that none of this ſpecies of Hottentots are much given to violence or revenge. Free from many wants and deſires that torment the reſt of mankind, they are little, if at all, addicted to thieving, if we except brandy, victuals, and tobacco. It is not improbable likewiſe, that the advantages accruing from a theft may be overlooked by them, when their thoughts are taken up with regaining their liberty, the greateſt of all treaſures. It is neceſſary to obſerve here, that ſome of the Hottentots or Boſhies-men, who are thus forced into the ſervice of the coloniſts, live in ſmall ſocieties peaceably and quietly in deſart tracts, where the coloniſts cannot eaſily come at them, and are ſometimes in the poſſeſſion of a few cows. Theſe people probably originate from Boſhies-men who have run away from the coloniſts ſervice. I muſt confeſs that the Boſhies-men in ſome huſbandmen's ſervice are treated in the gentleſt manner, and perhaps even without ever having a harſh word given them; live very well with regard to proviſions; are well clad, relatively to their condition in life; and are very comfortably lodged, in compariſon of what others are, in their own ſtraw cottages. The chief of their buſineſs perhaps conſiſts in tending a herd of cattle, or flock of ſheep, during the heat of the day, when they have an opportunity of getting into a gentle ſtate of intoxication by ſmoking tobacco; a ſtate which excites in them ſenſations of as agreeable a nature, as the frenzy produced by ſpirituous liquors and opium ſeems to afford to many others, who are never at eaſe but when they can procure to themſelves this delicious pleaſure. And yet, though they may thus agreeably paſs away the otherwiſe tedious hours of their lives in ſmoking and ſleep, they nevertheleſs generally run away. The coloniſts wonder at this, as a procedure entirely devoid of reaſon; without perceiving, that in ſo doing they ſuppoſe the Hottentots not endued with a deſire, which has its immediate foundation in nature, and which is common to the human race, and even to moſt brute animals, viz. an earneſt longing after the birth-place and families, and eſpecially after their liberty. The ſlave buſineſs, that violent outrage to the natural rights of mankind, always in itſelf a crime, and which leads to all manner of miſdemeanors and wickedneſs, is exerciſed by the coloniſts in general, with a cruelty towards the nation of Boſhies-men, which merits the abhorrence of every one; though I have been told that they pique themſelves upon it; and not only is the capture of thoſe Hottentots conſidered by them merely as a party of pleaſure, but in cold blood they deſtroy the bands which nature has knit between huſbands and their wives and children. Not content, for inſtance, with having torn an unhappy woman from the embraces of her huſband, her only protection and comfort, they endeavour all they can, and that chiefly at night, to deprive her likewiſe of her infants; for it has been obſerved, that the mothers can ſeldom perſuade themſelves to flee from their tender offspring. The amiable tenderneſs of the mother, which perhaps glows with a more lively flame in the breaſt of this poor heathen, than in thoſe of her Chriſtian tyrants, is the very circumſtance laid hold on by their perſecutors, to rivet the chains of this wretched female ſo much the faſter. There are ſome mothers, however, that ſet themſelves free, when they have loſt all hopes of ſaving their children. After having made their eſcape, they ſometimes keep ſecretly about the neighbourhood, in hopes of finding ſome opportunity of recovering their infants again."

* BOSKY. *adj.* [*boſque*, Fr.] Woody.—

And with each end of thy blue bow doſt crown
My *boſky* acres, and my unſhrubb'd down.
Shakeſpeare.

I know each land, and every alley green,
Dingle, or buſhy dell, of this wild wood,
And ev'ry *boſky* bourn from ſide to ſide. *Milt.*

BOSLEY, a village in Cheſhire, NE. of Congleton.

BOSMAIFE, an iſland of Ruſſia, in the province of Aſtracan, 10 miles below the city. See ASTRACAN, § 4.

BOSNA, a navigable river of Turkiſh Illyrium.

BOSNA SERAGO, a large and ſtrong town of Turky, and capital of Boſnia; 110 miles SW. of Belgrade. Lon. 17. 57. E. Lat. 44. 40. N.

BOSNIA, a province of Turky in Europe, bounded on the N. by Sclavonia; on the E. by Servia; on the S. by Albania, and on the W. by Croatia and Dalmatia. It belongs entirely to the Turks;

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Turks; but they were on the point of being expelled from it by the Christians, when the Spaniards invaded Sicily, and obliged the emperor to conclude the peace of Passarowitz in 1718, by which he gave up Bosnia to the Turks. It is 200 miles long and 75 broad. It is a barren country, and but little cultivated: the principal revenue arising from the silver mines. The falcons of Bosnia are held in great esteem.

(1.) * BOSOM. *n. s.* [*bosme*, *bosom*, Sax.] 1. The embrace of the arms holding any thing to the breast. 2. The breast; the heart.—

Our good old friend,
Lay comforts to your *bosom*; and bestow
Your needful counsel to our businesses. *Shak.*

3. The folds of the dress that cover the breast.—Put now thy hand into thy *bosom*; and he put his hand into his *bosom*: and when he took it out behold his hand was leprous as snow. *Exodus* iv. 6. 4. Inclosure; compass; embrace.—Unto laws thus received by a whole church, they which live within the *bosom* of that church, must not think it a matter indifferent, either to yield or not to yield, obedience. *Hooker*. 5. The breast, as the seat of the passions.—Anger resteth in the *bosoms* of fools. *Eccles.*—

From jealousy's tormenting strife
For ever be thy *bosom* freed, *Prior*.

Unfortunate Fallard! O, who can name
The pangs of rage, of sorrow, and of shame;
That with mix'd tumult in thy *bosom* swell'd,
When first thou saw'st thy bravest troops repell'd! *Addison*.

Here acting *bosoms* wear a visage gay,
And stifled groans frequent the ball and play. *Young*.

6. The breast, as the seat of tenderness.—Their soul was poured out into their mother's *bosom*. *Lam.*—

No further seek his virtues to disclose,
Or draw his frailties from their dread abode;
There they alike in trembling hope repose,
The *bosom* of his father and his God. *Gray*.

7. The breast, as the receptacle of secrets.—If I covered my transgression as Adam, by hiding my iniquity in my *bosom*. *Job*. 8. Any receptacle, close or secret; as, the *bosom* of the earth; the *bosom* of the deep. 9. The tender affections; kindness; favour.—

Whose age has charms in it, whose title more,
To pluck the common *bosoms* on his side. *Shakespeare*.

To whom the great Creator thus reply'd:
O Son, in whom my soul hath chief delight;
Son of my *bosom*, Son who art alone
My word, my wisdom, and effectual might! *Paradise Lost*.

10. Inclination; desire. Not used.—

If you can pace your wisdom
In that good path that I could wish it go,
You shall have your *bosom* on this wretch. *Shakespeare*.

(2.) * BOSOM, in composition, implies intimacy; confidence; fondness †.

No more that thane of Cawdor shall deceive
Our *bosom interest*; go, pronounce his death. *Shakespeare*.

This Antonia,
Being the *bosom-lover* † of my lord,
Must needs be like my lord. *Shakespeare*.

Those domestick traitors, *bosom-thieves*
Whom custom hath call'd wives; the readiest helps
To betray the heady husbands, rob the easy. *Ben Jonson*.

—He sent for his *bosom-friends*, † with whom he most confidently consulted, and shewed the paper to them; the contents whereof he could not conceive. *Clarendon*.—The fourth privilege of friendship is that which is here specified in the text, a communication of secrets. A *bosom-secret*, and a *bosom-friend*, are usually put together. *South*.—She who was a *bosom-friend* of her royal mistress, he calls an insolent woman, the worst of her sex. *Addison*.

* *To* BOSOM, *v. a*, [from the noun.] 1. To inclose in the bosom.—

Bosom up my counsel;
You'll find it wholesome. *Shakespeare*.

I do not think my sister so to seek,
Or so unprincipl'd in virtue's book,
And the sweet peace that *bosoms* goodness ever. *Milton*.

2. To conceal in privacy.—

The groves, the fountains, and the flow'rs,
That open now their choicest *bosom'd* smells,
Reserv'd for night, and kept for thee in store. *Par. Lost*.

Towers and battlements it sees,
Bosom'd high in tufted trees,
Where perhaps some beauty lies,
The cynosure of neighbouring eyes. *Milton*.

To happy convents, *bosom'd* deep in vines,
Where slumber abbots, purple as their wines. *Pope*.

* BOSON. *n. s.* [corrupted from *boatswain*.]—

The barks upon the billows ride,
The master will not stay;
The merry *boson* from his side
His whistle takes, to check and chide
The ling'ring lad's delay. *Dryden*.

BOSPHORICUM MARMOR, a name given by the ancients to a species of marble, of a yellowish white colour, with beautiful veins of a somewhat darker hue; called also, from its transparency, PHENGITES.

BOSPHORUS, or BOSPORUS, [from βους, a bullock, and πορος, passage,] in ancient geography, a long and narrow sea, which it is supposed a bullock may swim over. In a more general sense, it is a long narrow sea running in between two lands, or separating two continents, and by which two seas, or a gulph and a sea, are made to communicate with each other: In which sense it amounts to the same with an arm of the sea, channel, or strait; called by the Italians, *faro*; the Latins, *fretum*; and the French, *pas*, *manche*. The name is

† † † BOSOM, *in these senses, is very properly filled by* Dr ASH, *an adjective, signifying "intimate, firm, faithful." The* hyphen *is therefore quite unnecessary, as it makes a* compound *where there ought to be mine. The English language is of late rendered quite anomalous by the useless multitude of such compounds.* See HYPHEN.

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is chiefly confined to two straits in the Mediterranean sea, viz.

1. BOSPHORUS CIMMERIUS, or the SCYTHIAN BOSPHORUS, so named from its resemblance to the Thracian; (N° 2.) now more commonly called the straits of KAPHA, or KIDERLERI, from two cities standing on it.

2. BOSPHORUS THRACIUS, the THRACIAN BOSPHORUS, now commonly called the STRAITS OF CONSTANTINOPLE, or the *Channel of the Black Sea*, the strait through which the Black Sea pours its waters into the Propontis. It devides Europe from Asia, and is about a mile broad, between Constantinople on the European side, and Scutari on the Asiatic. Various reasons have been assigned, why the name *bosphorus* was first given to this strait. Nymphius tells us, on the authority of Accarion, that the Phrygians, desiring to pass the Thracian strait, built a vessel, on whose prow was the figure of a bullock; and which was hence called *βους*, and served them for a ferry boat. Dionysius, Valerius Flaccus, Callimachus, Apollodorus, Marcellinus, &c. say that Io, being transformed into a cow by Juno, passed this strait swimming, which hence was called *bosphorus*.—Arrian tells us, that the Phrygians were enjoined by the oracle, to follow the rout which a bullock should mark out to them; and that, upon stirring one up, it jumped into the sea to avoid their pursuit, and swam over this strait. Others say, that an ox tormented by a gad-fly, threw itself in, and swam over: and others, that anciently the inhabitants of these coasts, when they would pass over, joined little boats together, and had them drawn over by bullocks, &c. Tournefort supposes the name to have arisen from the ox market being held near this strait.

(1.) BOSQUET, Francis, one of the most learned prelates of France in the 17th century, was born at Marbonne, and studied at Thoulouse.—Before he took orders he had been intendant of Guienne and Languedoc, Attorney general of Normandy, and Counsellor of state. In 1648, his friend John de Plantavit resigned his bishopric of Lodeve to him. In 1655, he was made Bp. of Montpellier, and continued so till his death, in his 63d year, A. D. 1676. His first publication was a translation into Latin, of Psellus's Poetical abridgment of the civil law, with Notes. His original works were, 1. A History of the Gallican Church; 2. History of the 8 popes who resided at Avignon; from 1300, to 1394: 3. The Liberties of the Gallican Church: and 4. Notes on the Canon Law.

(2.) BOSQUET, George, advocate in the parliament of Thoulouse, under the bloody Charles IX. was author of several works; particularly a Latin treatise "on the Edict of Henry II. concerning marriages contracted by children of a good family, without the consent of their parents;" printed at Thoulouse, in 8vo, 1558: and *Hugonearum Hereticorum Tolosæ conjuratorum profligatio*, in 4to, 1563. This last work had the honour of being condemned to be burnt.

BOSQUETS, in gardening, [from *boschetto*, Ital. a *little wood*,] groves or compartments in gardens formed by branches of trees disposed either regularly in rows, or wildly and irregularly, according to the fancy of the owner. A bosquet is either a plot of ground inclosed with palisades of horn-beam, the middle of it being filled with tall trees, as elm or the like, the tops of which make a tuft or plume; or it consists of only high trees, as horse-chesnut, elm, &c. The ground should be kept very smooth and rolled, or else covered with grass, after the manner of green plots. In planting bosquets, care should be taken to mix the trees which produce their leaves of different shapes, and various shades of green, and hoary or mealy leaves, so as to afford an agreeable prospect. Bosquets are only proper for spacious gardens, and requires great expence to keep them up.

* BOSS. *n. s.* [*bosse*, Fr.] 1. A stud; an ornament raised above the rest of the work; a shining prominence.—What signifies beauty, strength youth, fortune, embroidered furniture, or gaudy *bosses*? *L'Estrange*.—This ivory, intended for the *bosses* of a bridle, was laid up for a prince, and a woman of Caria or Mæonia dyed it. *Pope*. 2. The part rising in the midst of any thing.—He runneth upon him, even on his neck, upon the thick *bosses* of his bucklers, *Job*, xv. 26. 3. A thick body of any kind.—A *boss* made of wood, with an iron hook, to hang on the laths, or on a ladder, in which the labourer puts the mortar at the britches of the tiles. *Moxon*.—If a close appulse be made by the lips, then is framed M; if by the *boss* of the tongue to the palate, near the throat, then K. *Holder*.

BOSSA. See BOSA, N° 2.

* BOSSAGE. *n. s.* [in architecture.] 1. Any stone that has a projecture, and is laid in a place in a building to be afterwards carved. 2. Rustic work, which consists of stones, which seem to advance beyond the naked of a building, by reason of indentures or channels left in the joinings: these are chiefly in the corners of edifices, and called rustick quoins. *Builder's Dict.*

(1.) BOSSE, Abraham, an able engraver, born at Tours, well skilled in perspective and architecture. He wrote two treatises; which are esteemed: the one on the manner of designing, and the other upon engraving.

(2.) BOSSE, a conduit in the form of a tun-bellied figure. *Ash.*

(3.) BOSSE, in sculpture, the same with RELIEVO.

BOSSINEY, a town of Cornwall, on the coast, near K. Arthur's Castle, 3 miles NW. of Camelford, 17 of Launceston, and 333 from London. It has fairs Aug. 3, and Nov. 22, and sends two members to parliament. Lon. 5. 0. W. Lat. 50. 40. N.

BOSSINGSALE, a village in Devonshire, N. W. of Darmouth.

BOSSINGTON, a village in Hampshire, near the 3 Wallops.

BOSSORA. See BASSORA.

BOSSU, Rene le, born at Paris in 1631, was admitted a canon regular in the abbey of St Genevieve, in 1649; and, after a year's probation, took the habit. He taught literature with great success in several religious houses for 12 years. He then published a parallel betwixt the principles

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of Ariſtotle's natural philoſophy and thoſe of Des Cartes, with a view to reconcile them; which was but indifferently received. His next treatiſe was on epic poetry; which Boileau declared one of the beſt compoſitions on that ſubject in the French language, and which produced a great friendſhip between them. He died in 1680, and left a great number of MSS.

BOSSUET, James Benigne, biſhop of Meux, was born at Dijon, in 1747. He diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his preaching, and his zeal in endeavouring to bring over the Proteſtants of France to the Romiſh church; by his oppoſition to Quietiſm; and by his numerous writings in French and Latin, which have been collected, and printed at Paris in 17 vols 4to. He died at Paris, in 1704, aged 77.

BOSSUPT, a town of France, in one of the new departments, into which the ci-devant Auſtrian Netherlands are now divided. It is 9 miles S. of Louvain. Lon. 4. 30. E. Lat. 50. 52. N.

BOSSUS, Matthew, diſtinguiſhed by his virtue and learning, was born in 1427. In 1451, he commenced divine at Lateran, and afterwards taught divinity at Padua. His orations, ſermons, and letters, have been often printed. He alſo wrote an apology for Phalaris, and other works. He died at Padua, in 1502, aged 75.

BOST, a very ſtrong town of Perſia, and capital of Zableſtan. Lon. 64. 15. E. Lat. 31. 50. N.

BOSTALL, a village in Buckinghamſhire, N. of Bernwood Foreſt.

BOSTANCE. *n. ſ. obſ.* a boaſting. *Chaucer.*

BOSTANGI BASCHI, or chief gardener, in the Turkiſh affairs, an officer who has the ſuperintendance of all the gardens, water-works, and houſes of pleaſure, with the workmen employed therein. This poſt is one of the moſt conſiderable in the Turkiſh court. He has the emperor's ear, and, on that account, is much courted by all who have buſineſs depending at the Port; he holds the rudder when he goes on the water; he is governor of all the villages on the channel of the Black Sea, and has the command of above 10,000 BOSTANGIS, in the ſeraglio, and other places about Conſtantinople.

BOSTANGIS are perſons employed in the garden of the ſeraglio, out of whoſe number are collected thoſe that row in the Grand Signior's brigantines, when he goes a fiſhing, or takes the air upon the canal. Thoſe who row on the left hand are only capable of mean employments in the gardens; but theſe who row on the right may be promoted to the charge of BOSTANGI BASCHI.

BOSTOCK, or BOTESTOCK, a town in Cheſhire, NW. of Middlewich.

(1.) BOSTON, a corporation town of Lincolnſhire, which ſends two members to parliament. It is commodiouſly ſeated on both ſides of the Witham, over which it has a high wooden bridge; and, being near the ſea, enjoys a good trade. It is 27 miles SE. of Lincoln. It has fairs May 4, and July 11, and from the 11th to the 20th of Dec. It has a ſpacious market place, and the largeſt pariſh church without croſs iſles in Europe. The ſteeple ſerves for a land-mark. It is 27 m. SE. of Lincoln, and 115 NE. of London. Lon. 0. 5. E. Lat. 53. 1. N.

(2.) BOSTON, a village in Middleſex, W. of Little Ealing.

(3.) BOSTON, the metropolis of Maſſachuſetts, and the moſt flouriſhing town of the Eaſtern States of N. America. It was founded in 1630, and is ſituated in Suffolk county, in a peninſula of about 4 miles in circumference, at the head of Maſſachuſetts bay. The iſthmus which connects this peninſula to the main land is at the SSW. end of the town, which is 2 miles long, and 9 furlongs broad. It is not quite regularly built, but lies in the form of an amphitheatre on a riſing ground, around the head of the bay, which gives it an agreeable appearance in ſailing up the harbour. It conſiſts of 79 ſtreets, moſt of them paved and enlightened with lamps; 38 lanes, and 21 alleys; beſides ſeveral courts and ſquares. On theſe are erected about 2000 houſes, which are moſtly of wood, and cover about 900 acres of land. The public buildings are, a ſtate-houſe, a court-houſe, a work-houſe, a bridewell, a council chamber, a treaſurer and ſecretary's office, and a powder magazine: beſides 6 public ſchools, and 17 churches, viz. 9 for Congregationaliſts, 3 for Epiſcopalians, 2 for Baptiſts, 1 for Quakers, 1 for Univerſaliſts, and 1 for Roman Catholics. There are 3 banks, the Maſſachuſetts, incorporated in 1784, and conſiſting of 800 ſhares at 500 dollars each; the National; and the union bank, incorporated in 1792, and conſiſting of 100,000 ſhares, at 8 dollars each. Several humane and literary ſocieties are alſo incorporated, for benevolent purpoſes, and promoting uſeful knowledge. On the W. ſide of the town, lies the Mall, a handſome public walk, ornamented with ſeveral rows of trees; and Beacon hill, on which an elegant monument is erected in commemoration of ſome of the moſt important events in the revolution. On the E. ſide lies the harbour, which, though large enough to contain 500 ſhips at anchor, has ſo narrow an entrance, as hardly to admit two ſhips abreaſt. About 80 wharfs are erected along the harbour, in front of the town. One of theſe extends about 600 yards into the ſea; and on the N. ſide of it a large range of ſtorehouſes is built. A light-houſe is erected on a rock, on the N. ſide of the harbour, which contains about 40 ſmall iſlands, that produce corn, hay, and paſturage. No town in the United States has been more retarded in its progreſs than Boſton. In 1676, a fire conſumed 45 houſes, 1 church, and ſeveral ſtorehouſes: In 1697, another fire deſtroyed 80 houſes, 70 warehouſes, and ſeveral ſhips. In 1727, it was much damaged by an earthquake. In 1747, the court-houſe and public records were burnt: In 1760, houſes and property to the amount of 444,000 dollars, were deſtroyed by fire, which alſo did much damage in 1761 and 1764. During the ſiege of 1775, upwards of 400 houſes were deſtroyed, by the Britiſh troops: In 1787, above 100 houſes were burnt; and, July 30, 1794, 40 houſes, 7 rope works, and ſeveral ſtorehouſes were entirely conſumed, to the amount of 200,000 dollars. Notwithſtanding theſe misfortunes, few towns in America are increaſing more rapidly in commerce, population and manufactures. Among the latter are rum, beer, cordage, ſail-cloth, tallow, and ſperm-aceti candles, cards, glaſs, and paper hangings; of which laſt 22,000 pieces are annually

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annually made. There are 30 distilleries, 11 roperies, 8 sugar-houses, 2 breweries, and 1 glass-house, in Boston; which carries on an extensive commerce with all the principal commercial countries in Europe, as well as with China and the E. Indies. The exports in 1794, amounted to 2,781,703 dollars; and the arrivals from foreign ports alone were 464 vessels. The population, in 1793, was 18,038. Boston is governed by 7 select men, a town clerk, treasurer, and 12 overseers, chosen annually along with 48 inferior officers. It is 253 miles from New York; 348 NE. of Philadelphia; 450 of Baltimore; 626 from Richmond; 873 from Fayetteville; 1038 from Columbia, S. Carolina; 1168 from Augusta in Georgia; and 1300 from Frankfort, Kentucky. Lon. 70. 33. W. Lat. 42. 23. N.

(4.) BOSTON, Thomas, a learned and pious divne, of the Church of Scotland, who flourished about the end of the last and beginning of the present century. He wrote many books on divinity, which were long extremely popular, being, according to the strict Calvinistic principles of the Church of Scotland, perfectly orthodox. Among these, his illustration of the *Assembly's Catechism*, his Treatise *on the Covenant*, his *Human Nature in its four fold State*, and his *Crook in the Lot*, have gone through a vast number of editions. It is astonishing, that no account of this eminent and popular divine is to be found in the Biographia Britannica, or any Encyclopædia hitherto published, that we have met with; although authors of much less eminence are carefully taken notice of in all of them.

(5.) BOSTON, Thomas, the son of the preceding (N° 4.) was also a popular clergyman of the church of Scotland, but left it, and joined the presbytery of Relief, upon the deposition of Mr Thomas Gillespie. He was likewise the author of several treatises on different subjects in divinity. He was minister of the parish of Oxnam, when he was invited to Jedburgh, in 1755, by a great majority of the inhabitants, who, having applied for a presentation to him, and been disappointed, built a large meeting house for him, upon the principle of RELIEF from patronage. He accepted of their call, and joining with Mr Gillespie, gave rise to a sect now very numerons in Scotland.

BOSTRYCHITES, [from βοστρυχίζω, to fold the hair in braids,] in natural history, 1. a name given to a stone supposed to contain women's hair included in it: some have understood by it, those pieces of crystal which have accidental foulnesses in them, resembling hair; others call by this name, those German agates, which contain either the conservæ or other capillary water-plants. The first of these very frequently have the conservæ of a great length, and variously undulated and turned about, so as very elegantly to represent a loosely flowing lock of hair. 2. A species of pyrites, whose irradiations were supposed to imitate hair.

* BOSVEL. *n. s.* A species of *crowfoot*.

BOSWELL, James, Esq. of Auchinleck, the son of the Hon. Alexander Boswell, late Lord Auchinleck, was born at Auchinleck, in 1740, and admitted a member of the Faculty of Advocates, Edin. in 1766. He was afterwards elected Chamberlain of Carlisle. He was a gentleman of an excellent disposition; and of uncommon spirit as well as genius. His journey to Corsica, when a mere youth, to see the celebrated General Paoli, then in the zenith of his glory, and his intimacy and travels with the late learned Dr Johnson are well known. He was author of, 1. *An Account of Corsica*: 2. *The Journal of a Tour to the Hebrides with Samuel Johnson, LL. D.* 3. *The Life of Dr Johnson*: and several other works. He died at London, May 19th, 1795, aged 55.

BOSWELL'S GREEN, ST, a place in the parish of St Boswells, where one of the largest fairs in Scotland is annually held on the 18th of July. From L. 8000 to L. 10,000 is estimated to be drawn at it, in the course of the day. The principal articles are linen cloth, sheep, horses, black cattle, hardwares, haberdasheries, &c.

BOSWELL'S ST, or LESSUDDEN, a parish of Scotland, in Roxburghshire, situated on the banks of the Tweed, within 10 m. of Kelso, 5 of Melrose, and 7 of Jedburgh; and extending about 3 m. in length and 2 in breadth. The soil is good, and has lately been much improved. About 500 bolls of wheat are raised annually on ground formerly deemed incapable of producing that grain; besides oats, barley, pease, grass, turnips, &c. Dalkeith and Peebles are the principal markets. Salmon is sold so low as 2d. and 3d. per lb. The population, in 1793, by the rev. Mr Scade's report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 500, and had increased 191 since 1755. There were then 102 horses, and 279 black cattle in the parish.

BOSWORTH, a town of Leicestershire, situated on a high hill, and memorable for the decisive battle fought near it between Richard III. and the earl of Richmond, afterwards Henry VII. It has a market on Wed. and fairs May 8, and June 10. It is 13 miles NE. of Leicester, and 106 NNW. of London. Lon. 1. 18. W. Lat. 52. 40. N.

BOT, *conj. obs.* But. *Chauc.*

BOTA, in old records, 1. a boot, such as the monks wore: 2. a butt of wine.

BOTABOTA, in natural history, a name given by some writers to that species of sea swallow, whose nests are so famous for soups in China. See BIRDS NESTS, § 4.

BOTADON, a village in Cornwall, SW. of Launceston.

BOTAGIUM, in middle age writers, a fee paid for wine, sold in butts.

BOTAL. See BOTALLUS.

BOTALE FORAMEN, in anatomy, an aperture in the heart of a fœtus, whereby the blood circulates, without going into the lungs, or the left ventricle of the heart.

BOTALLECK, a village of Cornwall, on the Irish sea, 10 miles W. of St Ives.

BOTALLUS, Leonard, physician to the duke of Alencon, and to Henry III. was born at Asti in Piedmont. He introduced at Paris the practice of blood letting, which was condemned by the faculty; though soon after his death it came into rather too general practice. He published several books on physic and surgery. The best edition of his works is that of Leyden in 8vo. 1660.

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BOTANICALLY, *adv.* After the manner of botaniſts.

* BOTANICAL. } *adj.* [from βοτανη, an herb.]
* BOTANICK. } Relating to herbs; ſkilled in herbs.—Some *botanical* critick tells us, the poets have not rightly followed the traditions of antiquity, in metamorphoſing the ſiſters of Phaeton into poplars. *Addiſon.*

BOTANICS, *n. ſ.* A treatiſe on plants.

* BOTANIST. *n. ſ.* [from *botany.*] One ſkilled in plants; one who ſtudies the various ſpecies of plants.—The uliginous lacteous matter, taken notice of by that diligent *botaniſt*, was only a collection of corals. *Woodward.*—

Then ſpring the living herbs, beyond the power
Of *botaniſt* to number up their tribes. *Thomſon.*

* BOTANOLOGY. *n. ſ.* [βοτανολογια.] A diſcourſe upon plants. *Dict.*

BOTANOMANCY, *n. ſ.* [from βοτανη, an herb, and μαντια, magic,] an ancient ſpecies of divination by means of plants: eſpecially ſage and fig leaves. The manner of performing it was this: the perſons who conſulted wrote the letters of their own names and their queſtions on leaves, which they expoſed to the wind; and as many of the letters as remained in their own places were taken up, and being joined together, contained an anſwer to the queſtion.

BOTANOPHILI, writers who have treated of plants, not as botaniſts, but in regard to different operations, as gardeners, phyſicians, &c.

BOTANOSOPHIST, *n. ſ.* one ſkilled in herbs.

BOTANY.

INTRODUCTION.

SECT. I. DEFINITION *and* UTILITY *of* BOTANY.

(1.) * BOTANY. *n. ſ.* [from βοτανη, an herb.] The ſcience of plants; that part of natural hiſtory which relates to vegetables.

(2.) BOTANY in the utmoſt extent of the word, ſignifies a knowledge of plants, and of the uſes to which they may be applied, in medicine, chemiſtry, or the arts in general. But as the medical virtues of plants fall properly under the province of the phyſician, their chemical properties under that of the chemiſt, &c. botany is commonly reſtricted to a bare knowledge of the different plants themſelves, and of the diſtinguiſhing marks whereby each individual ſpecies may be known from another.

(3.) This knowledge is indiſpenſably neceſſary for thoſe who propoſe to apply plants to any uſeful purpoſe. Thus let a phyſician be ever ſo well acquainted with the virtues of opium, or a chemiſt with the method of preparing it, yet if both be entirely ignorant of botany, and unable to diſtinguiſh the particular ſpecies of poppy which produces opium, from others of the ſame genus, their medicinal and chemical ſkill could be of little uſe.

(4.) The utility of this ſcience may be farther illuſtrated from the following conſiderations, reſpecting the uſe of vegetables, as food and medicine.

(5.) Many animals are endowed with an inſtinctive faculty of diſtinguiſhing with certainty whether the food preſented to them be ſalutary or noxious. Mankind have no ſuch inſtinct. They muſt have recourſe to experience and obſervation. But they are not ſufficient guides in every caſe. The traveller is often allured by the agreeableneſs of ſmell and taſte to eat poiſonous fruits. A general caution, not to eat any thing but what we know from experince to be ſalutary, will not anſwer in every emergency. A ſhip's company, in want of proviſions, may be thrown upon an uninhabited coaſt, or a deſart iſland. Totally ignorant of the nature of the plants they meet with, diſeaſes, or ſcarcity of animals, may make it abſolutely neceſſary to uſe vegetable food. The conſequence is dreadful: they muſt firſt eat before they can form any certain concluſion.

(6.) Such dangers are not merely imaginary. Before the vegetables that grow in America, the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, &c. became familiar to our ſailors, many lives were loſt by trials of this kind: neither has all the information received from experience been ſufficient to prevent individuals from ſtill falling a prey to ignorance or raſhneſs.

(7.) If the whole ſcience of botany were as complete as ſome of its branches, very little ſkill in it would be ſufficient to guard us infallibly from committing ſuch fatal miſtakes. There are certain orders and claſſes which are called *natural*, (See PART II.) becauſe every genus and ſpecies comprehended under them are not only diſtinguiſhed by the ſame characteriſtic marks, but likewiſe poſſeſs the ſame qualities, though not in an equal degree. For example:

(8.) Show a botaniſt the flower of a plant whoſe calyx is a double valved glume, with three ſtamina, two piſtils, and one naked ſeed; he can pronounce with abſolute certainty, that the plant from which the flower was taken, bears ſeeds of a farinaceous quality, and that they may be ſafely uſed as food. In like manner, ſhow him a flower with 12 or more ſtamina all inſerted into the internal ſide of the calyx, though it belonged to a plant growing in Japan, he can pronounce without heſitation, that the fruit of it may be eat with ſafety. On the other hand, ſhow him a plant whoſe flower has 5 ſtamina, one piſtil, one petal, and whoſe fruit is of the berry kind, he will tell you to abſtain from it, becauſe it is poiſonous. Facts of this kind render botany a moſt intereſting ſcience.

(9.) With reſpect to medicine, it is found by experience, that plants, which are diſtinguiſhed by the ſame characters in the flower and fruit, have the ſame qualities, though not always in an equal degree as to ſtrength; ſo that, upon inſpecting the flower and fruit, a botaniſt can determine the

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the effects that will result when taken into the ſtomach.

(10.) To determine therefore the medical virtues of all the plants belonging to a natural claſs, the phyſician has nothing to do but to aſcertain by a ſet of clear and unqueſtionable experiments, the virtues of any one of them. This greatly ſhortens the labour of inveſtigation. Suppoſing the number of known ſpecies to be 20,000; by aſcertaining the virtues of one genus, at a medium, you determine the number of 12 ſpecies. But by aſcertaining the virtues of one genus belonging to a natural order, the virtues of perhaps 300 or 400 ſpecies are aſcertained.

SECT. II. HISTORY *of* BOTANY.

(11.) IT is highly probable, that ſome degree of botanical knowledge has exiſted in every age of the world. The firſt botanical writings, of which we have any account, are thoſe of SOLOMON, who wrote a treatiſe upon this ſubject; which is totally loſt. Among the Greeks, Anaxagoras, Pythagoras, and other ancient philoſophers, wrote treatiſes on plants; but their works are alſo loſt; and from the quotations that yet remain, in the works of Theophraſtus, Dioſcorides, and Pliny, we learn, that thoſe firſt botanical writings could convey but little uſeful knowledge.

(12.) The hiſtorical æra of botany commences with THEOPHRASTUS the diſciple of Ariſtotle, who flouriſhed about A. A. C. 300; being about 100 years poſterior to Hippocrates. His work is entitled *The Hiſtory of Plants*, and treats of their origin, propagation, anatomy, and conſtruction; of vegetation, and vegetable life. It conſiſted originally of ten books, but only 9 are now extant. In theſe, vegetables are diſtributed into 7 claſſes, which reſpect the generation of plants; their place of growth; their ſize, as trees, and ſhrubs; their uſe, as pot herbs and eſculent grains; and their lactéſcence, or the liquor, that flows from plants when cut. In his work, about 500 different plants are deſcribed.

(13.) DIOSCORIDES, a Grecian who flouriſhed near 300 years after Theophraſtus, is the next botaniſt of any note. He deſcribed about 600 plants, and arranged them, for their uſes medicinal and domeſtic, into 4 claſſes; viz. aromatic, alimentary, medicinal, and vinous plants.

(14.) Antonius Muſa, Cato, Varro, Virgil, and Columella, were nearly cotemporary with Dioſcorides. The firſt was author of a treatiſe ſtill extant on the plant *betony*; the others are celebrated for their uſeful tracts on agriculture and rural œconomy.

(15.) PLINY, the Elder, in his *Hiſtory of the World*, has a botanical part in 15 books; wherein, beſides the plants of Theophraſtus and Dioſcorides, he has deſcribed ſeveral new ſpecies. He uſes ſcarce any mode of arrangement, except the ancient diſtinction into trees, ſhrubs, and herbs. His work, however, extends not only to botanical diſtinctions, but to gardening, agriculture, and whatever is connected with the knowledge of plants. He deſcribes above 1000 different ſpecies; but from the want of a proper ſyſtematic arrangement, it is often difficult, and perhaps impoſſible, to determine what plants he and the other ancient botaniſts deſcribe. This want of preciſion in arranging their plants was the reaſon why the botany of the ancients was always very limited, and after the time of Pliny declined ſo rapidly.

(16.) On the deſtruction of the weſtern empire by the Goths and other barbarous nations, it is not to be thought that botany could ſurvive any more than the other ſciences. It was not till the cloſe of the 8th century, that the ancient botany began again to appear in Arabia. SERAPION, well known in medicine, ſtands firſt in the Arabian catalogue of botaniſts; to him ſucceeded Rhazis, Avicenna, Averrhoes, Actuarius, &c. PLATO APULEIUS, or *Apulenſis*, of whoſe *Herbarium* very old MS. copies are preſerved in ſome curious libraries, is ſuppoſed to have lived near this period. The works of moſt of theſe botaniſts, however, were only tranſlations and compilations from the Greek writers; ſo that, for want of a proper ſyſtematic arrangement, the ſcience ſunk a ſecond time into total oblivion.

(17.) For near 400 years after Abenguefit, an Arabian phyſician who flouriſhed in the end of the 12th century, ſcarce any attempts were made in the botanical way. Some obſcure writers on botany, indeed, appeared in ſeveral parts of Europe; as Arnoldus de Villa Nova; Platearius; Mattheus Sylvaticus; and Bartholomew Glanvil, an Engliſhman; but they were ſo totally deſtitute of method, that their works remain one great chaos, from whence it is impoſſible to extract any thing intelligible.

(18.) In the beginning of the 16th century, the botany of the ancients was reſtored a ſecond time. The Greek writings were tranſlated into Latin, the common language of Europe. Gaza, a Greek refugee at Rome, made elegant tranſlations of Ariſtotle and Theophraſtus, which Scaliger and Stapel afterwards commented upon. Dioſcorides was alſo tranſlated and commented on by Hermolaus Barbarus, Fuchſcius, Ruellus Cordus, Geſner, and Matthiolus. The moſt diſtinguiſhed commentaries on Pliny are thoſe of Dalechamp in 1604, Salmaſius in 1689, Harduin and Guilandinus. Meurſius and Urſinus have written commentaries upon Cato; Campegius and Monardes upon Meſue the Arabian, and Lonicer upon Avicenna. This laſt hath been tranſlated into Latin by Alpagus, Coſtæus, and Plempius; and into Hebrew, by Amalthæus.

(19.) The firſt modern, who gave a methodical arrangement of plants, was Hieronymus Bock, or Bouc, a German, generally known by the name of *Tragus*. In 1532, he publiſhed a Hiſtory of Plants, in which he deſcribes 800 ſpecies; and theſe he divides into 3 claſſes, founded on the qualities of vegetables, their figure, habit, and ſize. The ſame method of arrangement was followed by Lonicer, Dodonæus, L'Obel, Cluſius, Brunſfelſius, Monardes, Cordus, and ſome other botaniſts of this period. It was not till 1560, that CONRAN GESNER firſt propoſed to the world an arrangement of vegetables from the parts of the flower and fruit. He did not eſtabliſh any plan founded upon this principle; but, having ſuggeſted the idea, left the application to others.

(20.) In 1582, Dr ANDREW CÆSALPINUS, phy-

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ſician.

ſician at Piſa, and afterwards profeſſor of botany at Padua, availing himſelf of the ingenuity of his predeceſſor, propoſed a method of arrangement which has the fruit for its baſis; and thus gave riſe to SYSTEMATIC BOTANY, the 2d grand æra of that ſcience. Even this improved method of Cæſalpinus was not without very great inconveniences. But as it was greatly ſuperior to every thing that had appeared before, it might have been expected that the learned would have immediately adopted it, and that all the former equivocal and inſufficient characters would have been laid aſide. The fact, however, was otherwiſe. Cæſalpinus's method of arrangement died with him; and it was not till near a century after, that Dr ROBERT MORISON of Aberdeen, attaching himſelf to the principles of Geſner and Cæſalpinus, re-eſtabliſhed ſcientific arrangement upon a ſolid foundation; ſo that, being only the reſtorer of ſyſtem, he has been generally celebrated as its founder.

(21.) In the long interval between Cæſalpinus and Moriſon flouriſhed ſome eminent botaniſts. The moſt noted are, Dalechamp, author of *A general Hiſtory of Plants*; Theodore, ſurnamed *Tabemæmontanus*, and Thalius, two German writers; Porta, an Italian, famous for an arrangement of plants from their relations to the ſtars, to men, and other animals; Proſper Alpinus, author of a Catalogue of the plants of Egypt; Fabius Columna, inventor of many of the botanical terms now uſed; the two Bauhins; Gerard, and Parkinſon; Zaluzianſki, a Pole, author of an arrangement from the qualities and habit of plants; Marcgrave and Piſo, celebrated for their *Natural Hiſtory of Brazil*; Hernandez, equally celebrated for his *Hiſtory of Mexico*; Paſſæus, or Du Pas, author of an arrangement of plants from the time of flowering, of all characters the moſt uncertain and inſufficient; Johnſton; Bontius, a Dutchman, author of a *Natural Hiſtory of the Eaſt Indies*; Aldrovandus, the celebrated naturaliſt; and Rheede, governor of Malabar, and author of the well known *Hortus Malabaricus*.

(22.) MORISON's method has the fruit for its baſis, as well as that of Cæſalpinus; to which, however, it is greatly inferior both in the plan and execution. Of all methods it is indeed the moſt difficult in practice; and has therefore not been adopted by any, except Bobart, who, in 1699, completed Moriſon's Univerſal Hiſtory of Plants, and an anonymous author whoſe work appeared in 1720.

(23.) Imperfect, however, as Moriſon's method was, it furniſhed many uſeful hints, which ſucceeding botaniſts have improved. Ray and Tournefort owe him much, and are not aſhamed to own the obligation. The ſame has been done even by LINNÆUS; who has eſtabliſhed the ſcience of botany on the moſt ſolid foundation, by introducing a method of arrangement, if not abſolutely perfect, at leaſt as nearly approaching to perfection as can be expected; and therefore it has been deſervedly followed, in preference to every other, by almoſt all botaniſts, ſince its firſt publication.

(24.) To give a particular account, therefore, of all the different botanical ſyſtems, with the particular advantages and diſadvantages of each, now that they are exploded, would be to little purpoſe. Yet it may not be improper to give a brief view of the moſt celebrated ſyſtems, which have been invented within theſe two centuries.

SECT. III. *Of the moſt celebrated* BOTANICAL SYSTEMS, *from the time of* CÆSALPINUS *to that of* LINNÆUS.

(25.) CÆSALPINUS ſets out with an ancient diſtinction of vegetables from their duration, into trees and herbs. With the former he combines ſhrubs; with the latter, under ſhrubs; and diſtributes his plants into the 15 following claſſes. 1. Trees with the germ (radicle or principle of life in the ſeed) on the point of the ſeed. 2. Trees with the germ on the baſe of the ſeed. 3. Herbs having one ſeed only. 4. Herbs having two ſeeds. 5. Herbs having four ſeeds. 6. Herbs having many ſeeds. 7. Herbs having one grain or kernel. 8. Herbs having one capſule. 9. Herbs having two capſules. 10. Herbs having fibrous roots. 11. Herbs having bulbous roots. 12. Herbs having ſuccory or endive-like flowers. 13. Herbs having common flowers. 14. Herbs having ſeveral follicles or ſeed-bags. 15. Herbs having neither flower nor ſeed. The inconveniences of this method will appear upon attempting to refer any common plant to one of theſe 15 claſſes. His ſections, or orders, are 47, and depend upon a variety of circumſtances: viz. the diſpoſition, ſituation, and figure of the flowers; the nature of the ſeed veſſel; the ſituation of the radicle in the ſeed; the number of ſeminal leaves; the diſpoſition of the leaves, the colour of the flowers; and the lacteſcence.

(26.) The chief object MORISON had in view was to inveſtigate the order of nature, not to form an eaſy method of arrangement. Hence his ſyſtem is void of uniformity, and clogged with a multiplicity of characters; his claſſes are frequently not ſufficiently diſtinguiſhed, and the key of arrangement ſeems totally loſt. He ſets out with a diviſion of plants, from their conſiſtence, into ligneous and herbaceous. He founds his ſyſtem on the fruit, the bloſſoms, and the habit of the plants. His claſſes are, 1. Trees. 2. Shrubs. 3. Under-ſhrubs: 4. Herbs climbing: 5. Leguminous or papilionaceous: 6. Podded: 7. Tricapſular: 8. with 4 or 5 capſules: 9. Corymbiferous: 10. Having a milky juice, or downy tops: 11. Culmiferous: 12. Umbelliferous: 13. Having 3 kernels: 14. Having helmet-ſhaped flowers: 15. Having many capſules: 16. Berry-bearing: 17. Capillary: 18. Anomalous. Of the claſſes, the 4th and 8th poſſeſs no genuine diſtinctive character; nor are the 9th and 10th ſufficiently diſtinguiſhed; the 15th is not ſufficiently diſtinguiſhed from the 8th, nor the 16th from the 4th. His ſecondary diviſions are 108, and ariſe from the figure and ſubſtance of the fruit; the number of ſeeds, leaves, and petals; the figure of the root; the direction of the ſtem; the colour of the flowers; the place of growth; and, in one claſs, from the medicinal virtues of ſome plants that compoſe it.

(27.) Mr RAY propoſed his ſyſtem to the world, in 1682, two years after the publication of Moriſon's. It conſiſted originally of 25 claſſes: but he carefully corrected it at different times; ſo that the plan

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plan of arrangement which now bears his name was firſt publiſhed in 1700, is entirely different from what had appeared in 1682. It conſiſts of 33 claſſes. Their diſtinguiſhing marks are taken from the habit of the plants; their degree of perfection; their place of growth; the number of ſeed lobes, petals, capſules, and ſeeds; the ſituation and diſpoſition of the flowers, flower-cup, and leaves; the preſence of the buds, flower-cup, and petals; the ſubſtance of the leaves and fruit; and the difficulty of claſſing certain plants. They are, 1. Sea plants. 2. Fungi. 3. Moſſes. 4. Capillary plants. 5. *Plants* without petals: 6. With compound flowers, ſemiflоſculous: 7. With compound flowers radiated: 8. With compound flowers floſculous: 9. With one ſeed: 10. Umbellated: 11. Star-ſhaped: 12. Rough-leafed: 13. Verticillate: 14. With many ſeeds. 15. *Herbs* apple-bearing: 16. Berry-bearing: 17. With many pods: 18. Monopetalous: 19. With 2 and 3 petals: 20. With great and ſmall, or long and ſhort, pods. 21. Leguminous plants: 22. Pentapetalous: 23. Bulbs, and bulbous like plants: 24. Stamineous: 25. Anomalous. 26. Palms. 27. *Trees* without petals: 28. With an umbilicated fruit: 29. With fruit not umbilicated: 30. With a dry fruit: 31. With podded fruit: 32. Anomalous.

(28.) RAY's diſtinction into herbs and trees is a different, but not more certain, principle, than that of Cæſalpinus and Moriſon. The former, in making this diſtinction, had an eye to the duration of the ſtem; the latter, to its conſiſtence. Ray called in the buds as an auxiliary; and denominates trees, "all ſuch plants as bear buds;" herbs, "ſuch as bear none." But againſt this, there lies an unanſwerable objection; viz. that though all herbaceous plants riſe without buds, all trees are not furniſhed with them; many of the largeſt trees in warm countries, and ſome ſhrubby plants in every country, being totally deſtitute of them. It ſeems to have been Ray's great object to collect as many natural claſſes as poſſible; and theſe being ſeparately inveſtigated, a multiplicity of characters was required to connect them: and hence the intricacy which muſt always take place, where the claſſes give riſe to the connecting characters, and not the characters to the claſſes. The characters of the orders, in Ray's method, are no leſs multifarious than thoſe of the claſſes. They reſpect the place of growth of plants; their qualities; the figure of the ſtem; the number, ſituation, ſubſtance, and diviſion, of the leaves; the ſituation and diſpoſition of the flowers and calyx; the number and regularity of the petals; with the number and figure of the fruit.

(29.) In his improved method, Ray has adopted Tournefort's character of the genera, wherever his plan would permit. His *General Hiſtory of Plants* contains 18,655 ſpecies and varieties. The 3d volume, publiſhed in 1704, contains the plants diſcovered by Tournefort in the Levant, and by Camelli at Luzon. Ray's method was followed by Sir Hans Sloane, in his *Natural Hiſtory of Jamaica*; by Petiver, in his *Britiſh Herbal*; by Dillenius, in his *Synopſis of Britiſh Plants*; and by Martin, in his *Catalogue of plants that grow near Cambridge*.

(30.) To Ray's original method ſucceeded that of Chriſtopher Knaut, a German; which acknowledges the ſame principle. In his enumeration of the plants that grow round Hall in Saxony, publiſhed in 1687, he divides vegetables into 17 claſſes, and 62 ſubdiviſions.

(31.) In 1696, a new method propoſed by Dr HERMAN, profeſſor of botany at Leyden, was publiſhed by Zumbac, who arranged according to it the plants contained in the public gardens at Leyden. Rudbeckius jun. in a diſſertation on the fundamental knowledge of plants, adopted Herman's method with a few variations. The claſſes in Dr Herman's ſyſtem are 25, and the orders 82.

(32.) To Dr Herman's method ſucceeded that of Dr BOERHAAVE, which is that of Herman, blended with a part of thoſe of Tournefort and Ray; and contains the following claſſes. 1. Sea plants. 2. Imperfect land plants. 3. Capillary plants: 4. Many naked ſeeds: 5. Four naked ſeeds, and verticillated: 6. Four naked ſeeds, and rough leaves: 7. Four naked ſeeds, and 4 petals: 8. One ſeed-veſſel: 9. Two ſeed veſſels: 10. Three ſeed-veſſels: 11. Four ſeed-veſſels: 12. Five ſeed-veſſels: 13. Many ſeed-veſſels: 14. Two naked ſeeds, and umbelliferous: 15. Two naked ſeeds, and ſtar-ſhaped: 16. One naked ſeed, and a ſimple flower: 17. One naked ſeed, and compound flowers, ſemiflоſculous: 18. Ditto radiated: 19. Ditto corymbiferous: 20. Ditto floſculous. 21. Berry-bearing herbs: 22. Apple-bearing: 23. Without petals: 24. With petals, and one cotyledon: 25. One cotyledon, without petals. 26. Trees having one cotyledon. 27. Many podded. 28. Podded. 29. Tetrapetalous and cruciform. 30. Leguminous. 31. Having no petals. 32. Bearing catkins. 33. Monopetalous flowers. 34. Roſaceous flowers.

(33.) Dr BOERHAAVE's 34 claſſes are ſubdivided into 104 ſections, which have for their characters, the figure of the leaves, ſtem, calyx, petals, and ſeeds; the number of petals, ſeeds, and capſules; the ſubſtance of the leaves; the ſituation of the flowers, and their difference in point of ſex. By this method, Dr Boerhaave arranged near 6000 plants, the produce of the botanical garden at Leyden, which he carefully ſuperintended for near 20 years, and left to his ſucceſſor, Dr Adrian Royen, in a much more flouriſhing ſtate than he himſelf had received it. His catalogue of the Leyden plants was publiſhed in 8vo, in 1710; and with great additions, in 4to, in 1720. This laſt edition contains deſcriptions of 5650 plants; of which upwards of two thirds had been introduced into the garden by Boerhaave. His characters are derived from the habit of plants combined with all the parts of fructification; ſo that he was the firſt who employed the calyx, ſtamina, and ſtyle, in determining the genus. He eſtabliſhed about 17 new genera; among others, the very ſplendid family of the protea or ſilver tree, which, although partly deſcribed by Moriſon, had remained generally unknown. His method was adopted by Emſting, a German, in a treatiſe entitled *The firſt principles of Botany*, publiſhed in 8vo at Wolfenbuttle, in 1748.

(34.) All botaniſts had hitherto been more intent upon inveſtigating the order of nature, than facilitating

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facilitating the arrangement of plants. Their methods were therefore very intricate and perplexed. In 1690, however, Auguſtus Quirinus Rivinus, profeſſor of botany at Leipſic, convinced of the inſufficiency of characteriſtic marks drawn only from the fruit, attached himſelf to the flower, which, he was ſenſible, would furniſh characters no leſs numerous, permanent, and conſpicuous, than thoſe drawn from the fruit. The calyx, petals, ſtamina, and ſtyle, are ſufficiently diverſified in point of number, figure, proportion, and ſituation, to ſerve as the baſis of a mode of arrangement: yet all are not equally proper for this purpoſe. Rivinus made uſe of the petals as the largeſt and moſt beautiful part, and that from which the flower itſelf is commonly characterized.

(35.) RIVINUS's method conſiſts of 18 claſſes, which have for their baſis the perfection and diſpoſition of the flowers, and regularity and number of the petals: viz. 1. *Regular* monopetalous: 2. Dipetalous: 3. Tripetalous: 4. Tetrapetalous: 5. Pentapetalous: 6. Hexapetalous: 7. Polypetalous. 8. *Irregular* monopetalous: 9. Dipetalous: 10. Tripetalous: 11. Tetrapetalous: 12. Pentapetalous: 13. Hexapetalous: 14. Polypetalous. 15. *Compound flowers* of regular florets: 16. Of irregular florets only. 17. Incomplete, or imperfect plants.

(36.) Having ſet out with the deſign of imparting facility to botany, Rivinus judged very properly, in diveſting his method of all extraneous matter, and rendering it as ſimple and uniform, as the nature of the ſcience would admit. The diſtinction into herbs and trees had been adopted by every writer on plants ſince the time of Ariſtotle; and maintained a kind of importance from its antiquity, to which it was by no means intitled. Rivinus was the firſt who, in this matter, dared to think for himſelf. Senſible of the inconveniences of employing it as a primary diviſion, he reſolved to get rid of a diſtinction, that is often uncertain, always deſtructive to uniformity, and in its nature repugnant to the ſpirit of ſyſtem, becauſe totally unconnected with the parts of fructification. In the uniformity of its orders, which are 91 in number, and are founded on the fruit, Rivinus's method equals, perhaps exceeds, all that went before or ſucceeded it. Only 3 claſſes of his method were publiſhed by Rivinus himſelf. Theſe are the 11th, 14th, and 15th, which were offered to the public at different times, illuſtrated with very ſplendid figures. The method was completed and publiſhed entire by HEUCHER, in a work entitled *Hortus Wittenbergenſis*, printed in 4to at Wittemberg, in 1711.

(37.) Several German authors have followed Rivinus's method, either wholly or in part: viz. Koenig, in a work on vegetables, publiſhed at Baſil in 1696; Welſch, in his *Baſis Botanica*, Leipſic, 8vo, 1697; Gemeinhart, in a catalogue of plants, 1725: Kramer, in his *Tentamen Botanicum*, Dreſden, 1728, and Vienna, 1744; Hecker in a diſſertation on botany, publiſhed at Hall in Saxony, in 1734; and Hebenſtreit, an ingenious botaniſt, who, in a treatiſe on plants, publiſhed at Leipſic, in 1731, eſtabliſhed generic characters, which had hitherto been wanting in Rivinus's method. And Bernard Ruppius, Chriſtopher Ludwig, and Chriſtian Knaut, have alſo attempted to improve upon Rivinus's method.

(38.) RUPPIUS, in his *Flora Jenenſis*, publiſhed at Francfort in 1718, has arranged the 1200 plants there deſcribed by a method partly Rivinus's and partly his own. It conſiſts of 17 claſſes, and ſets out with the ſame diviſions and ſubdiviſions as that of Rivinus; with this difference, that whereas in Rivinus's method all perfect flowers are divided into ſimple and compound, in Ruppius's the diviſion of regular and irregular flowers precedes that juſt mentioned, and ſimple and compound flowers are made ſubdiviſions of the regular flowers only.

(39.) LUDWIG's method, which was publiſhed in 1737, and conſiſts of 20 claſſes, differs but little from that of Rivinus. The author accompanied Hebenſtreit in his expedition into Africa, and ſeems to have made plants his favourite ſtudy. His improvement, however, on Rivinus's plan, conſiſts chiefly in having enriched it with many genera collected from the works of Tournefort, Ray, Boerhaave, Dillenius, and other eminent botaniſts, whoſe generic characters he has alſo adopted. His plan of arrangement has been followed by M. Wedel, in a botanical eſſay publiſhed in 1747; and by M. Boehmer, in his catalogue of the plants which grow in the garden of Leipſic, in 1750.

(40.) CHRISTIAN KNAUT's method is much more properly his own, and departs in a much greater degree from that of Rivinus than either of the two former. The regularity and number of the petals furniſhed the claſſical diviſions in Rivinus's method; in that of Knaut, number takes place of regularity; ſo that it is very properly termed by Linnæus, "The ſyſtem of Rivinus inverted." This method was publiſhed in 1716; and ſets out with a diviſion into flowers which have one petal, and ſuch as have more than one. It conſiſts of 17 claſſes, and 121 ſections. His diviſions are ſingular, and his definitions whimſical. Every kind of fruit, whether pulpy or membranaceous, he terms a *capſule*. This term he extends alſo to *naked ſeeds*, the exiſtence of which Knaut abſolutely denies. In numbering the cells or internal diviſions of the pulpy fruits, he had adopted a method equally ſingular. Some fruits of the apple kind incloſe a capſule that is divided into 5 membranaceous cells. It might then be expected to find ſuch fruits arranged with compound capſules of 5 cells; but, inſtead of this, he whimſically combines in their arrangement the idea both of a ſimple and compound capſule. The pulpy part is undivided; in other words, it is a ſimple capſule furniſhed with one cell; the compound capſule incloſed contains 5 cells, which added to that of the pulp makes the number ſix; and thus theſe kinds of fruit are arranged with thoſe having capſules of ſix cells! This method of calculation is not the only ſingularity for which Knaut is remarkable. The eſſence of the flower is made by Ray, Tournefort, Rivinus, and moſt other botaniſts, to conſiſt in the ſtamina and ſtyle. This poſition Knaut abſolutely denies; and has eſtabliſhed for principles, 1. That there can be no flowers without petals; and, 2. That the regularity or irregularity of the flower can never depend

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pend on the ſtamina and ſtyle, which are only occaſionally preſent, and nowiſe eſſential to its exiſtence; both of which are known to be falſe by every botaniſt.

(41.) No leading method in botany has appeared ſince the time of Rivinus, except thoſe of Tournefort and Linnæus. Tournefort ſets out with reviving the diſtinction of plants into herbs and trees, which had been exploded by Rivinus. His ſyſtem is founded on the regularity and figure of the petals, together with the two-fold ſituation of the receptacle of the flowers; his orders, on the piſtillum or calyx. The claſſes are, 1. *Herbs with ſimple flowers* monopetalous, and bell-ſhaped: 2. monopetalous, tunnel and wheel-ſhaped: 3. monopetalous, labiated: 4. monopetalous, anomalous: 5. monopetalous, cruciform: 6. polypetalous and roſaceous: 7. polypetalous, umbellated: 8. polypetalous, caryophyllaceous, clove-form: 9. polypetalous, liliaceous: 10. polypetalous, and papilionaceous: 11. polypetallous, anomalous. 12. *Compound flowers*, floſculous: 13. ſemifloſculous: 14. radiated. 15. Apetalous. 16. Without flowers, but bearing ſeed. 17. No flower nor ſeed, in the vulgar eſtimation. 18. *Trees* with no petals, but bare ſtamina: 19. with no petals, bearing catkins: 20. monopetalous: 31. roſaceous: 22. papilionaceous. His ſections are 122, and are founded principally upon the fruit.

(42.) TOURNEFORT has had a vaſt number of followers, among whom the moſt conſiderable was Dr W. Sherard, who, in 1689, publiſhed the firſt ſketch of Tournefort's method, under the title of *Schola Botanices*. Five years after, the *Elementa Botanica*, was publiſhed by Tournefort himſelf. Father Plumier publiſhed, in 1703, at Paris, a deſcription of American plants, which he has arranged according to Tournefort's ſyſtem. In this work he accurately characterized 96 new genera. Falugi, an Italian, has deſcribed in Latin verſe all Tournefort's genera, in his *Proſopopœiæ Botanicæ*, publiſhed at Florence, 1705. Several celebrated French academicians, particularly Marchant, Dodart, Niſſole, Juſſieu, and Vaillant, have alſo occaſionally paid their acknowledgments to this author, from 1700 to 1740.

(43.) The other authors of note who have followed Tournefort's method, are, M. Petit, an ingenious French botaniſt; Johren, a German, author of a treatiſe publiſhed at Colberg in 1710, intituled *Vade mecum Botanicum, ſeu Odœgus Botanicus:* Fueille in his deſcription of the plants of Chili and Peru, Paris, 4to. 1714: Chriſtopher Valentin, a German, author of a book entitled *Tournefortius Contractus*; Francfort, fol. 1715: Ripa, an Italian, in his *Hiſtoriæ Univerſalis Plantarum Conſcribendi Propoſitum*; Padua, 1718: Michael Valentin, a German in his *Viridarium Reformatum:* fol. Francfort, 1719: the celebrated Dillenius, profeſſor of botany at Oxford, and author of ſeveral much eſteemed publications on botany, particularly the *Hortus Elthamenſis*, and hiſtory of Moſſes, in his *Flora Giſſenſis*; Francfort, 1719: Pontedera, an Italian, author of the delineation of a method which combines thoſe of Tournefort and Rivinus, publiſhed at Padua, in his *Botanical Diſſertations*, in 1720: Monti, an Italian, in his *Indices Plantarum Varii:* Bologna, 1724: Lindem, a German in his *Tournefortius Alſaticus*, 1728: Sig. Micheli, author of ſeveral curious diſcoveries reſpecting moſſes and muſhrooms, in his *Nova Genera Plantarum;* fol. Florence, 1729: Elvebemes, a Swede, in a work publiſhed in the Swediſh language; Upſal, 1730: Fabricius, a German, in his *Primitiæ Floræ Butiſbacenſis, ſeu ſex Decades Plantarum Rariorum;* 1743: Sabbati, an Italian, in his catalogue of the plants that grow near Rome; 1745: and the ingenious Dr Alſton, late profeſſor of botany at Edinburgh, in his *Tyrocinium Botanicum:* Edinburgh, 1753.

(44.) Among all theſe authors Plumier and Pontedera alone ventured to quit Tournefort's tract. The former relinquiſhed the diſtinction into herbs and trees; but the latter attempted greater variations; and publiſhed a method, conſiſting of 26 claſſes, formed chiefly on the forms of the flowers and buds.

(45.) Other two methods have been invented, founded upon the calyx: The one by Peter Magnol, profeſſor of botany at Montpelier, publiſhed in 1720, 5 years after the author's death: The other by Linnæus, publiſhed in his *Claſſes Plantarum*, in 1738, 3 years after the publication of the ſexual ſyſtem. Magnol diſtinguiſhes two kinds of calyx; one external, which is the flower cup that invelopes and ſuſtains the flower; the other internal, which is the ſeed veſſel or fruit. According to this idea, all plants are furniſhed with either the external calyx only, or with both. His claſſes are, 1. *Herbs with the calyx external, including a flower* unknown: 2. *a flower* ſtaminous! 3. monopetalous: 4. polypetalous: 5. compound. 6. *Calyx external, ſupporting a flower* monopetalous: 7. polypetalous. 8. Calyx internal only. 9. *Calyx external and internal, flower* monopetalous: 10. with 2 and 3 petals: 11. tetrapetalous: 12. polypetalous. 13. *Trees, with the calyx* external only: 14. internal only: 15. both external and internal. His characters of the orders are derived chiefly from the figure of the calyx, petals, and ſeeds; from the diſpoſition of the flowers, the number of petals, and ſubſtance of the fruit. From the combination of theſe characters with thoſe of the claſſes ariſe 53 orders; which are ſubdivided into genera, poſſeſſing this ſingularity, that, in place of diſtinctive characters hitherto employed, they exhibit complete deſcriptions of all the parts of fructification of one or two ſpecies of each genus. From this improvement, Linnæus borrowed the hint of generical characters.

(46.) Sir JOHN HILL, in his *Vegetable Syſtem*, endeavours to claſs plants according to their internal ſtructure. "On the different inner ſtructure, (ſays he) of the vegetable body under certain courſes of its veſſels, evidently depend the differences which characterize the 7 firſt families, to the diſtinction of which all claſſes are ſubordinate; and as theſe original diſtinctions are truly natural, we may here begin very ſafely. The 7 families are theſe, 1. Muſhrooms. 2. Algæ. 3. Moſſes. 4. Ferns. 5. Graſſes. 6. Palms. 7. The common race of Plants" Sir John thus diſtinguiſhes theſe: "1. The muſhrooms are fleſhy: and deſtitute of leaves and viſible flowers. 2. The algæ are merely foliaceous, the entire plant conſiſting of a leafy matter without other viſible parts

3. The

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4. The moſſes have proceſſes of the inner rhind for leaves. 4. The ferns conſiſt of a ſingle leaf raiſed on a ſtalk; and bear their flowers upon its back. 5. The graſſes have jointed ſtalks and undivided leaves, and huſks to hold the ſeeds. 6. The palms have a ſimple trunk, with leaves only on the top, and the flowers and fruit in divided ears." 7. The common race of plants, have their roots, leaves, ſtalks, flowers, and fruits, diſtinct and obvious; and have not the characters of any of the other ſix. To this natural method his artificial one, conſiſting of 43 claſſes, is deſigned only as an index; but his ſyſtem is univerſally allowed to be inferior to Linnæus's, though he pretends to improve it.

(47.) Thus we have given a brief view of the moſt celebrated ſyſtems, that have prevailed amongſt botaniſts, previous to the perfection of the ſcience by LINNÆUS's introduction of the SEXUAL SYSTEM. That great botaniſt, ſo eminent for claſſification, divides all the former ſyſtems of botany into two claſſes, which he ſtyles HETERODOX and ORTHODOX. The former are founded on an alphabetical arrangement, the ſtructure of the root, the habits of plants, their time of flowering, their native climate, their medicinal uſes, &c. The latter are either univerſal or partial: ſuch as belong to the plants in general, or ſuch as are accommodated to the nomenclature and arrangement of particular kinds. The univerſal ſyſtems are 4, though, by various modifications, this number has been conſiderably augmented. Linnæus alſo diſtinguiſhes the ſeveral patrons of them by the appellations of FRUCTISTÆ, COROLLISTÆ, CALYCISTÆ, and SEXUALISTÆ. The Fructiſts, are ſuch as form the ſeveral claſſes of vegetables from the *pericarpium*, the *ſeed*, and the *receptacle*; of this number are Cæſalpinus, Moriſon, Ray, Herman, Boerhaave, &c. The Coroliſts, thoſe who diſtinguiſh the ſeveral claſſes by the *corolla* and *petals*; ſuch as Rivinus, Tournefort, &c. The Calyciſts diſtinguiſh them from the calyx, as Magnol; and the Sexualiſts found their ſyſtem on the different ſexes of plants.

(48.) LINNÆUS, beſides his ſexual ſyſtem, which is now almoſt univerſally followed, formed another which, like that of Magnol, had the calyx for its baſis; but greatly ſuperior both in the idea and execution, being indeed ſingularly ſerviceable to the novice in botany, by familiarizing to him various appearances of an organ ſo important in its nature, and ſo diverſified in its form, as the calyx is. The claſſes are, 1. Spathaceous. 2. Glumoſe. 3. Amentaceous. 4. Umbellated. 5. Common calyx. 6. Double calyx. 7. Flowering; the petals and ſtamina inſerted into the flower cup. 8. Crowned with a radius. 9. Irregular. 10. Diſform. 11. Caducous. 12. Not caducous, uniform and monopetalous. 13. Not caducous, uniform and polypetalous. 14. Not caducous, diſform and monopetalous. 15. Not caducous, diſform and polypetalous. 16. Incomplete calyx. 17. Apetalous. 18. Naked.

PART I.

OF THE SEXUAL SYSTEM OF BOTANY.

SECT I. HISTORY *of the* SEXUAL SYSTEM.

(49.) The SEXUAL SYSTEM, as its title imports is founded on a diſcovery that there is in vegetables, as well as in animals, a *diſtinction of ſexes*. This was not wholly unknown to the ancients; but their knowledge of it was very imperfect. The flowers of the generality of vegetables are not known to be *Hermaphrodite*, containing in themſelves the characters of both ſexes; but in the claſſes *Monœcia* and *Diœcia*, the ſexes are parted, and allotted to different flowers; and in the claſs *Diœcia* in particular, the ſexes are even on different plants, the male flowers growing all upon one plant, and the female upon another. Now this laſt circumſtance the ancients had obſerved: indeed it could hardly eſcape their notice; for the palm tree whoſe fruit was in eſteem, being of the claſs *Diœcia*, a very little obſervation was requiſite to diſcover, that in theſe trees the flowers of the male were neceſſary to ripen the fruit of the female. Accordingly we find, in the account given by Herodotus of the country about Babylon (*Lib.* I.) where theſe trees are in plenty, that it was a cuſtom with the natives, in their culture of this plant, to aſſiſt the operations of nature, by gathering the flowers of the male trees, and carrying them to the female. Thus they ſecured the ripening of the fruit; which might otherwiſe, from unfavourable ſeaſons, or the want of a proper intermixture of the trees of each ſex, have been precarious, or at leaſt not very productive.

(50.) It might have been expected, that this diſcovery ſhould have led the ancients to detect the whole proceſs of nature in the propagation of the various ſpecies of vegetables; and yet it does not appear, by their writings, that they went farther than this obvious remark upon the palm tree, and ſome ſimilar notions concerning the fig, and a few others. They had indeed, from what they ſaw in theſe plants, formed a notion that all others were male and female likewiſe; but this notion was falſe, the far greater part having hermaphrodite flowers: and ſerves to convince us, that what they diſcovered of the palm and fig, was not founded on any knowledge of the anatomy of flowers, either in thoſe trees, or any other plants.

(51.) Linnæus is indeed at great pains to trace the notion of ſexes in plants to the remoteſt periods of antiquity. He informs us, that Empedocles, Anaxagoras, and other ancient philoſophers, not only attributed the diſtinction of ſexes to plants, but maintained that they were capable of perceiving pleaſure and pain. He next introduces Hippocrates and Theophraſtus, as diſtinguiſhing the conyza, the abies, the filex, &c. into male and female; and tells us, that Dioſcorides takes notice of a male and female mandragor, mercurialis, ciſtus, &c.

(52.) Pliny does not confine his views of ſex to animals and vegetables, but exclaims that every thing this earth produces is characterized by the diſtinction of ſex. From the days of Pliny to thoſe of Cæſalpinus, the analogy between the vegetable and animal ſeems to have been entirely neglected. Cæſalpinus tell us, that the males of the oxycedrus, taxus, mercurialis, urtica, and cannabis, are barren; and that the females of theſe plants only bear fruit.

(53.) In this dark ſtate the doctrine of the ſexes of plants remained, not only through all the ages

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of antiquity, but almoſt to the end of the laſt century, the moderns diſcovering no more of this doctrine than the ancients; and hence we have ſtill in uſe, the falſe diſtinctions of *male* and *female* ſpecies of *Cornus*, *Pæony*, *Ciſtus*, and many other plants, which have all hermaphrodite flowers; the diſtinction being grounded, in theſe inſtances, on nothing more than ſome difference in the habit of the two ſpecies, with which the ſexes are no ways concerned.

(54.) The honour of having firſt ſuggeſted the true ſexual diſtinctions in plants is due to our countryman, Sir THOMAS MILLINGTON, who firſt ſtarted it, in a converſation with Dr GREW, concerning the utility of the ſtamina and ſtyli of plants. The reſult of this converſation was the mutual agreement of theſe two eminent naturaliſts, that the ſtamina and ſtyli of vegetables were analogous to the organs of generation in animals, and that they were adapted by nature to anſwer the ſame purpoſes. Dr Grew, in his *Anatomy of plants*, after enumerating the analogies between plants and animals, concludes that the pollen probably emits certain *vivific* effluvia, which may ſerve for the impregnation of ſeeds.

(55.) Mr Ray gave a further ſanction to the doctrine of ſexes, by concurring with Grew, and adding ſome further illuſtrations from analogy.—In 1695, Camerarius attempted to prove the ſexes of plants. But, as he truſted ſolely to the palm tree, and withal ſeemed to be doubtful as to the authenticity of the fact, he cannot be conſidered as having done any thing in confirmation of the ſexual hypotheſis.

(56.) Mr MORELAND, in 1703, adopted the ſame hypotheſis; but gave it a new modification, by ſuppoſing that the pollen contained the ſeminal plant in miniature, and conſequently that it behoved one pollen, at leaſt, to be conveyed into every ſeparate ſeed, before it could be properly impregnated. Analogy and the ſtructure of the parts are the only arguments he employs.

(57.) After this, Geoffroy, Vaillant, Blair, Juſſieu, Bradley, &c. purſued their enquiries and experiments ſo far as to remove all doubts concerning theſe diſcoveries; and at laſt the great LINNÆUS founded thereon the ſyſtem of Botany, of which it is now our object to treat particularly.

SECT. II. EVIDENCES *of the* TRUTH *of the* SEXUAL SYSTEM.

(58.) THE Sexual Hypotheſis, on its firſt appearance, was received with all that caution that becomes an enlightened age; and nature was traced experimentally through all her variations, before it was univerſally aſſented to. Tournefort refuſed to give it any place in his ſyſtem; and Pontedera, though he had examined it, treated it as chimerical; but the proofs which Dr Linnæus, has ſtated amongſt the aphoriſms of his *Fundamenta Botanica*, and farther illuſtrated in his *Philoſophia Botanica*, are ſo clear, that the birth of animals is not more evidently the conſequence of an intercourſe between the ſexes, than that of vegetables; and it would be now as ridiculous for any one, who has inveſtigated the ſubject, to doubt of the one as of the other.

(59.) Our room will not permit us to lay all theſe proofs before our readers; our buſineſs is to explain, not demonſtrate: but as it may be ſatisfactory to ſee ſome facts eſtabliſhed, that carry conviction with them, we ſhall inſert a few extracts from Linnæus and others, in proof of the Sexual hypotheſis.

(60.) LINNÆUS, after ſhowing that vegetables are endued with a certain degree of life, and that they propagate their ſpecies in a manner ſomewhat ſimilar to animals, their *antheræ* being analogous to the *teſtes*, and their ſeeds to the *ova* or eggs of animals, and requiring, like them, *impregnation* by the *pollen*, of the antheræ, which is analogous to the *ſeminal fluid*, mentions the following, among numberleſs other proofs of his theory.

(61.) "When the flowers of the male hemp are pulled off before theſe of the female are fully expanded, the females do not produce fertile ſeeds. But as a male flower is ſometimes found upon a female plant, this may be the reaſon why fertile ſeeds are ſometimes produced even after this precaution has been obſerved. The tulip affords another experiment to the ſame purpoſe.—Cut off all the antheræ of a red tulip before the pollen is emitted; then take the ripe antheræ of a white tulip, and throw the pollen of the white one upon the ſtigma of the red; the ſeeds of the red tulip being thus impregnated by one of a different complexion, will next ſeaſon produce ſome red, ſome white, but moſt variegated flowers.

(62.) "In the month of January 1760, the *anthelyza cunonia* flowered in a pot in my parlour, but produced no fruit, the air of the room not being ſufficiently agitated to waft the pollen to the ſtigma. One day, about noon, ſeeing the ſtigma very moiſt. I plucked off one of the antheræ, by means of a fine pair of forceps, and gently rubbed it on one of the expanded ſtigmata. The ſpike of flowers remained 8 or 10 days longer; when I obſerved, in gathering the branch for my herbarium, that the fruit of that flower only, on which the experiment had been made, had ſwelled to the ſize of a bean. I then diſſected this fruit, and diſcovered that one of the 3 cells contained ſeeds in conſiderable number, the other two being entirely withered.

(63.) "In the month of April I ſowed the ſeeds of hemp (*cannabis*) in two different pots. The young plants came up ſo plentifully, that each pot contained 30 or 40. I placed each by the light of a window, but in different and remote apartments. The hemp grew extremely well in both pots. In one of them I permitted the male and female plants to remain together, to flower and bear fruit, which ripened in July; and being macerated in water and committed to the earth, ſprung up in 12 days. From the other, however, I removed all the male plants, as ſoon as they were old enough for me to diſtinguiſh them from the females. The remaining females grew very well, and preſented their long piſtilla in great abundance theſe flowers continuing a very long time, as if in expectation of their mates; while the plants in the other pot had already ripened their fruit, their piſtilla having, quite in a different manner, faded as ſoon as the males had diſcharged all their pollen. It was certainly a beautiful and truly admirable ſpectacle, to ſee the unimpregnated females pre-

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ſerve their piſtilla ſo long green and flouriſhing, not permitting them to begin to fade, till they had been for a conſiderable time expoſed, in vain, to the acceſs of the male pollen. Afterwards when theſe virgin plants began to decay through age, I examined all their calyxes in the preſence of ſeveral botaniſts, and found them large and flouriſhing, although every one of the ſeed buds was brown, compreſſed, membranaceous, and dry, not exhibiting any appearance of cotyledons or pulp. Hence I am perfectly convinced, that the circumſtance which authors have recorded, of the female hemp having produced ſeeds, although deprived of the male, could only have happened by means of pollen brought by the wind from ſome diſtant place. No experiment can be more eaſily performed than the above; none more ſatisfactory in demonſtrating the generation of plants.

(64.) "The *Clutia tenelle* was in like manner kept growing in my window through the months of June and July. The male plant was in one pot, the female in another. The latter abounded with fruit, not one of its flowers proving abortive. I removed the two pots into different windows of the ſame apartment: ſtill all the female flowers continued to become fruitful. At length I took away the male entirely, leaving the female alone, and cutting off all the flowers which it had already born. Every day new ones appeared from the axilia of every leaf; each remained 8 or 10 days; after which their footſtalks turning yellow, they fell barren to the ground. A botanical friend, who had amuſed himſelf with obſerving this phenomenon with me, perſuaded me to bring from the ſtove in the garden a ſingle male flower, which he placed over one of the female ones then in perfection, tying a piece of red ſilk round its piſtillum. The next day the male flower was taken away, and this ſingle ſeed bud remained and bore fruit. Afterwards I took another male flower out of the ſame ſtove, and with a pair of ſlender forceps pinched off one of its antheræ, which I afterwards gently ſcratched with a feather, ſo that a very ſmall portion of its pollen was diſcharged upon one of the three ſtigmata of a female flower, the two other ſtigmata being covered with paper.—This fruit likewiſe attained its due ſize; and on being cut tranſverſely, exhibited one cell filled with a large ſeed, and the other two empty.—The reſt of the flowers being unimpregnated, faded and fell off. This experiment may be performed with as little trouble as the former.

(65.) „ The *Datiſca cannabina* came up in my garden from ſeed, ten years ago, and has every year been plentifully increaſed by means of its perennial root. Flowers in great number have been produced by it; but being all female, they proved abortive. Being deſirous of procuring male plants, I obtained more ſeeds from Paris. Some more plants were raiſed; but theſe likewiſe, to my great mortification, all proved females, and bore flowers but no fruit. In 1757, I received another parcel of ſeeds. From theſe I obtained a few male plants, which flowered in 1758. Theſe were planted at a great diſtance from the females; and when their flowers were juſt ready to emit their pollen, holding a paper under them, I gently ſhook the ſpike or panicle with my finger, till the paper was almoſt covered with the yellow powder. I carried this to the females which were flowering in another part of the garden, and placed it over them. The cold nights of the year in which this experiment was made, deſtroyed theſe datiſcas, with many other plants, much earlier than uſual. Nevertheleſs, when I examined the flowers of thoſe plants which I had ſprinkled with the fertilizing powder, I found the ſeeds of their due magnitude; while in the more remote datiſcas which had not been impregnated with pollen, no traces of ſeeds were viſible.

(66.) "Several ſpecies of *Momordica*, cultivated with us, like other Indian vegetables, in cloſe ſtoves, have frequently born female flowers; which, although at firſt very vigorous, after a ſhort time have conſtantly faded and turned yellow, without perfecting any ſeed, till I inſtructed the gardener, as ſoon as he obſerved a female flower, to gather a male one and place it above the female. By this contrivance we are ſo certain of obtaining fruit, that we dare pledge ourſelves to make any female flowers fertile that ſhall be fixed on.

(67.) "The *Jatropha urens* has flowered every year in my hot-houſe; but the female flowers coming before the males, in a week's time dropped their petals, and faded before the latter were opened; from which cauſe no fruit has been produced, but the germina themſelves have fallen off. We have therefore never had any fruit of the jatropha till 1752, when the male flowers were in vigour on a tall tree at the ſame time that the females began to appear on a ſmall jatropha which was growing in a garden pot. I placed this pot under the other tree, by which means the female flowers bore ſeeds, which grew on being ſown.—I have frequently ſince amuſed myſelf with taking the male flowers from one plant, and ſcattering them over the female flowers of another, and have always found the ſeeds of the latter impregnated by it.

(68.) "Two years ago I placed a piece of paper under ſome of theſe male flowers, and afterwards folded up the pollen which had fallen upon it, preſerved it ſo folded up, 5 or 6 weeks, at the end of which time another branch of the ſame jatropha was in flower. I then took the pollen, which I had ſo long preſerved in paper, and ſtrewed it over three female flowers, the only ones at that time expanded. Theſe three females proved fruitful, while all the reſt which grew in the ſame bunch fell of abortive.

(69.) "The interior petals of the *Ornithogalum*, commonly, but improperly, called *Canadenſe*, cohere ſo cloſely together, that they only juſt admit the air to the germen, and will ſcarcely permit the pollen of another flower to paſs: this plant produced every day new flowers and fruit, the fructification never failing in any inſtance; I therefore, with the utmoſt care, extracted the antheræ from one of the flowers with a hooked needle; and, as I hoped, this ſingle flower proved barren. This experiment was repeated about a week after with the ſame ſucceſs.

(70.) "I removed all the antheræ out of a flower of *Chelidonium corniculatum* (ſcarlet horned poppy) which was growing in a remote part of the garden upon the firſt opening of its petals, and ſtripped

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ped off all the reſt of the flowers; another day I treated another flower of the ſame plant in a ſimilar manner, but ſprinkled the piſtillum of this with the pollen borrowed from another plant of the ſame ſpecies: the reſult was, that the firſt flower produced no fruit, but the ſecond afforded very perfect ſeed. My deſign in this experiment was to prove, that the mere removal of the antheræ from a flower is not in itſelf ſufficient to render the germen abortive.

(71.) "Having the *Nicotiana fruticoſa* growing in a garden pot, and producing plenty of flowers and ſeed, I extracted the antheræ from a newly expanded flower before they had burſt, at the ſame time cutting away all the other flowers; this germen produced no fruit, nor did it even ſwell.

(72.) "I removed an urn, in which the *Aſphodelus fiſtuloſus* was growing, to one corner of the garden, and from one of the flowers which had lately opened I extracted its antheræ; this cauſed the impregnation to fail. Another day I treated another flower in the ſame manner: but bringing a flower from a plant in a different part of the garden, with which I ſprinkled the piſtillum of the mutilated one, its germen became by that means fruitful.

(73.) "*Ixia chinenſis*, flowering in my ſtove, the windows of which were ſhut, all its flowers proved abortive. I therefore took ſome of its antheræ in a pair of pincers, and with them ſprinkled the ſtigmata of two flowers, and the next day one ſtigma only of a third flower; the ſeed-buds of theſe flowers remained, grew to a large ſize, and bore ſeed; the fruit of the third, however, contained ripe ſeed only in one of its cells."

(74.) Dr HASSELQUIST, in one of his letters to Linnæus, dated Alexandria, May 18th, 1750 gives the following account of the fecundation of the palm tree. "The firſt thing I did after my arrival was to ſee the date tree, the ornament and a great part of the riches of this country. It had already bloſſomed; but I had, nevertheleſs, the pleaſure of ſeeing how the Arabs aſſiſt its fecundation, and by that means ſecure to themſelves a plentiful harveſt of a vegetable, which was ſo important to them, and known to them many centuries before any botaniſt dreamed of the difference of ſexes in vegetables. The gardener informed me of this before I had time to inquire; and would ſhow me, as a very curious thing, the male and female of the date or palm trees: nor could he conceive how I, a Frank, lately arrived, could know it before; for (ſays he) all who have yet come from Europe to ſee this country, have regarded this relation either as a fable or miracle. The Arab ſeeing me inclined to be further informed, accompanied me and my French interpreter to a palm tree, which was very full of young fruit, and had by him been wedded, or fecundated with the male, when both were in bloſſom. This the Arabs do in the following manner: When the ſpadix has female flowers, that come out of its ſpatha, they ſearch on a tree that has male flowers, which they know by experience, for a ſpadix which has not yet burſted out of its ſpatha: this they open, take out the ſpadix, and cut it lengthwiſe in ſeveral pieces, but take care not to hurt the flowers. A piece of this ſpadix with male flowers they put lengthwiſe between the ſmall branches of the ſpadix which hath female flowers, and then lay the leaf of a palm over the branches. In this ſituation I ſaw the greateſt part of the ſpadices which bore their young fruit; but the male flowers which were put between were withered. The Arab beſides gave me the following anecdotes: Firſt, unleſs they, in this manner, wed and fecundate the date tree, it bears no fruit. 2dly, They always take the precaution to preſerve ſome unopened ſpathæ with male flowers from one year to another, to be applied for this purpoſe, in caſe the male flowers ſhould miſcarry or ſuffer damage. 3dly, If they permit the ſpadix of the male flowers to burſt or come out, it becomes uſeleſs for fecundation: it muſt have its *maidenhead*, (theſe were the words of the Arab,) which is loſt in the ſame moment the bloſſoms burſt out of their caſe. Therefore the perſon who cultivates date trees muſt be careful to hit the right time of aſſiſting their fecundation, which is almoſt the only article in their cultivation. 4thly, On opening the ſpatha, he finds all the male flowers full of a liquid which reſembles the fineſt dew; it is of a ſweet and pleaſant taſte, reſembling much the taſte of freſh dates, but much more refined and aromatic: this was likewiſe confirmed by my interpreter, who hath lived 32 years in Egypt, and therefore had opportunities enough, of taſting both the nectar of the bloſſoms and the freſh dates."

(75.) Mr MILNE, author of the Botanical Dictionary, relates an experiment nearly akin to the above: "In the garden of M. de la Serre, of the Rue S. Jacques at Paris, was a female turpentine tree, which flowered every year, without furniſhing any fruit capable of vegetation. This was a ſenſible mortification to the owner, who greatly deſired to have the tree increaſed. Meſſieurs Duhamel and Juſſieu very properly judged that they might procure him that pleaſure by the aſſiſtance of a male piſtachio tree. They ſent him one very much loaded with flowers. It was planted in the garden of M. de la Serre, very near the male turpentine tree, which the ſame year produced a great quantity of fruits, that were well conditioned, and roſe with facility. The male plant was then removed; the conſequence was, that the turpentine tree in none of the ſucceeding years bore any fruit that, upon examination, was found to germinate."

(76.) We ſhall conclude this ſection, with an account, given by Mr Mylius of Berlin, to Dr Watſon, of a remarkable experiment made on the palm tree. "The ſex of plants (ſays he) is very well confirmed, by an experiment that has been made here on the *palma major foliis ſtabelliformibus*. There is a great tree of this kind in the garden of the royal academy. It has flowered and born fruit theſe 30 years, but the fruit never ripened, and when planted it did not vegetate. The palm tree, as you know, is *Planta Dioecia*, that is, one of thoſe, in which the male and female parts of generation are upon different plants. We having therefore no male plants, the flowers of our female were never impregnated with the farina of the male. There is a plant of this kind in a garden at Leipſic, 20 German miles from Berlin. We procured from thence, in April 1749,

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a branch of male flowers, and fuſpended it over our female ones; and our experiment ſucceeded ſo well, that our palm tree produced more than 100 perfectly ripe fruit, from which we have already 11 young palm trees. This experiment was repeated laſt year and our palm tree bore above 2000 ripe fruit." *Phil. Tranſ. Vol.* XVII. *p.* 169.

SECT. III. OF *the* PARTS *of* PLANTS.

(77.) The principal outlines of a plant are thus delineated by Linnæus, in his *Principia Botanica*.

(78.) A plant conſiſts of Root, Trunk, Leaves, Props, Fructification, and Inflorescence; to which may be added the Habit.

(79.) I. The ROOT conſiſts of two parts, *viz.* the caudex and the radicula, diſtinguiſhed according to ſhape, direction, duration, &c.

1. CAUDEX, the ſtump, is the body or knob of the root, from which the trunk and branches aſcend, and the fibrous roots deſcend; and in different plants is either ſolid, bulbous, or tuberous. Solid, as in trees, ſhrubs, and many of the herbs. Bulbous is explained under HYBERNACULUM. (§ 108.) Tuberous knobs are alſo ſolid and hard, containing one or more embryos or eyes. They are either only one knob, as turnip, carrot, &c. containing only one eye at the top; or conſiſt of many knobs connected together by ſlender fibres, as in potatoes, Jeruſalem artichokes, &c. each containing many eyes diſperſed over the ſurface: and are either pitted, when the eyes lie inward, as in potatoes, &c. or tuberculated, containing the eyes outward, as in Jeruſalem artichokes, &c. In tuberous knobs, the fibres or ſtringy parts iſſue from every part of the ſurface; which is an eſſential difference from bulbous knobs, where they are confined to the caudex of the bulb only, and are the true and genuine roots, the bulb itſelf being only a large bud under ground. Thoſe tuberous knobs, with only one eye, differ as to duration, but are in general biennial; thoſe with many eyes are perennial; both ſeem to be produced by the nutriment of the ſtem like buds, and not by the fibrous roots, for the ſtem is firſt formed and becomes ſtrong, and as it grows to maturity, the tubrous knobs increaſe.

2. RADICULA, a little root, is the ſtring or fibrous part of the root, deſcending from the caudex: it is really the principal and eſſential part of every root, and by which the nouriſhment is drawn from the earth for the ſupport of the plant.

(80.) II. The TRUNK riſes immediately from the caudex, and produces the leaves, flowers, and fruit. It is either herbaceous, ſhrubby, or arboreſcent; and is diſtinguiſhed according to its ſhape, ſubſtance, ſurface, &c. as follows:

1. CAULIS, a ſtalk or ſtem, is the main trunk which elevates the leaves and fructification, and is applied to trees, ſhrubs, and herbs: It is denominated *ſimple* when it does not divide, and *compound* when it is divided into branches.

2. CULMUS, a ſtraw or haulm, is the proper trunk of graſſes; and alſo elevates both the leaves and fructification: It is ſometimes jointed, and ſometimes not, it is alſo ſometimes round and ſometimes angular.

3. SCAPUS, a ſtalk, is an herbaceous trunk, which elevates the fructification, but not the leaves; that is, it is a ſtalk proceeding immediately from the root, and terminated by the flowers, as in narciſſus hyacinth, &c.

4. STIPES, a trunk, uſed by Linnæus for the trunk or muſhrooms; as alſo for that ſlender thread or foot-ſtalk which elevates the feathery or hairy down with which ſome ſeeds are furniſhed, and connects it with the ſeed.

(81.) III. The LEAVES are ſaid by Linnæus to be the muſcles, or organs of motion of a plant; by others, the organs by which perſpiration and inſpiration are performed. They are defined as proceeding from the expanſion of the veſſels of the ſtalk, forming ſeveral ramifications like net-work, extended in length and breadth in a determinate manner, having the interſtices filled up with a tender pulpy ſubſtance; and the external covering is ſuppoſed to be a continuation of the ſcarf ſkin of the ſtalk. They are either ſimple or compound; and are diſtinguiſhed by their figure, ſituation, inſertion, number, diviſions, &c.

1. A SIMPLE LEAF is ſuch as adheres to the branch ſingly, or whoſe footſtalks is terminated by a ſingle ſimple expanſion, not parted to the middle rib; and is determined by its ſhape, ſurface, and diviſions.

2. A COMPOUND LEAF is ſuch whoſe footſtalk is furniſhed with ſeveral ſeparate ſimple expanſions; or, whoſe diviſions extend to the middle rib, now called a *common petiole* or footſtalk, ſupporting ſeveral lobes or little ſimple leaves, of which the compound leaf conſiſts: they are diſtinguiſhed by ſhape, &c. and the form by which they are attached to the common footſtalk, as palmated, winged, feathered, &c. Sometimes leaves are twice or more compounded; which diviſions admit of many modifications, and give riſe to as great variety of terms. It may ſometimes be difficult, at firſt ſight, to know a common footſtalk to a compound leaf, from a branch: but a common footſtalk, where it iſſues from the branch, is either flat or hollow on one ſide, and convex on the other; whereas branches are alike on both ſides, whether round, flat, or angular: again, buds are never found at the angles formed by the lobes of a compound leaf with the footſtalk, but at the angles formed by the footſtalk of the whole compound leaf and the ſtem: and it may always be certainly diſtinguiſhed by its falling off with the little leaves which it ſupports. The manner or place in which leaves are attached to the plant, is called the *determination of leaves*; and is diſtinguiſhed by ſeveral terms, according to number, diſpoſition, inſertion, figure, &c.

(82.) IV. The PROPS, *fulcra*, a term uſed to expreſs thoſe external parts which ſtrengthen, ſupport, or defend the plants on which they are found, or ſerve to facilitate ſome neceſſary ſecretion, are as follow.

1. PETIOLUS, the footſtalks or ſupport of a leaf.

2. PEDUNCULUS, the footſtalk or ſupport of a flower.

3. STIPULA, haulm, or huſk, a ſort of ſcale or ſmall leaf, ſtationed on moſt plants, (when preſent) on each ſide the baſe of the footſtalk of leaves and flowers, at their firſt appearance, for the purpoſe of ſupport: They are placed either ſingle or double; and ſometimes on the inſide, as in

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in the fig and mulberry; or on the outside, as in the birch, lime, and papilionaceous flowers. They are also either sitting, extended downwards, or sheathing along the stem, as in the plane tree. As to duration, they sometimes fall before the leaves, and sometimes are equally persistent. They often afford a good distinction for the species.

4. CIRRHUS, a clasper or tendril, is the fine spiral string or fibre by which plants fasten themselves to some other body for support: They are sometimes placed opposite to the leaves; sometimes at the side of the footstalks of the leaves; sometimes they issue from the leaves themselves; and sometimes they put out roots, as in ivy, &c.

6. PUBES, a term applied to the hair, down, wool, beard, bristles, glands, and several other appearances on different parts of plants, serving the double purpose of defence and vessels of secretion.

6. ARMA, the defensive weapons of plants; as thorns, prickles, &c.

7. BRACTEÆ, the floral leaves, mean not only those leaves situated on the stalk nearest to the lower parts of the flower, but those which sometimes terminate the flower stalk; being composed of a large bracteæ, resembling a bush of hair. They are then called *bracteæ compositæ*, as in crown-imperial, lavender, and some species of sage.

(83.) V. The FRUCTIFICATION, or mode of fruit bearing, consists of the calyx, corolla, stamina, pistillum, pericarpium, semina, and receptaculum; which are explained in SECT. VI.

(84.) VI. The INFLORESCENCE, or mode by which flowers are joined to their several peduncles, whether common or partial.

i. A FLOWER, in the Sexual system, has a very different signification from the same term of former botanists; for if the antheræ and stigma be present, though the calyx, corolla, filaments of the stamina, and style of the pistillum be wanting, it is still a flower; and if all the parts are present, it is a complete flower. The seed also constitutes the fruit, whether there be a pericarpium or not.

ii. COMPLETE FLOWERS are either simple or aggregate; SIMPLE, when no part of the fructification is common to many flowers or florets, but is confined to one only; AGREGATE, when the flower consists of many florets collected into a head, by means of some part of the fructification common to them all, as by a common receptacle, or common calyx; as in dipsacus, scabiosa, &c. From the different structure, disposition, and other circumstances of the receptacle or calyx, being the only part common to aggregate flowers, arise 7 subdivisions.

(85.) 1. AGGREGATE FLOWERS, properly so called, are formed by the union of several lesser flowers, placed on partial peduncles, on a common dilated receptacle, and within a common perianthium; and in those flowers where each floret has its proper calyx, that is also a perianthium. A flower is said to be *radiate*, when the florets in the radius or circumference differ from those in the disk; in which case they are generally larger, and called *semi-florets*, from their difference in form, and in distinction from those of the disk, which are called *proper florets*: and they also differ as to sex, which gives rise to several of the orders in the class syngenesia, which contains the compound flowers.

2. COMPOUND AGGREGATE FLOWERS consist also of several florets, placed sitting (or without partial peduncles) on a common dilated receptacle, and within a common perianthium; and where each floret hath its proper calyx, it is also a perianthium. Compound flowers also admit of a further description, viz. each floret consists of a single petal, with generally five divisions, and having five stamina distinct at the base, but united at the top by the antheræ into a cylinder, through which passes the style of the pistillum, longer than the stamina, and crowned by a stigma with two divisions that are rolled backwards, and having a single seed placed upon the receptacle under each floret. This is the general character of a compound flower, to which there are a few exceptions; it also differs when the flower is radiate: but the essential character of a regular floret consists in the antheræ being united so as to form a cylinder, and having a single seed placed upon the receptacle under each floret.

3. UMBELLATD AGGREGATE are when the flower consists of many florets placed on fastigiate peduncles proceeding from the same stem or receptacle; and which, though of different lengths, rise to such a height as to form a regular head or umbel, whether flat, convex, or concave. Both the common and partial calyx Linnæus calls an *involucrum*. It is called a *simple umbel*, when it hath no lesser divisions; a *compound umbel*, when each peduncle is subdivided at its extremity into many lesser peduncles for supporting the flowers, so as to form several little umbellas, uniting in one head; the whole together is called an *universal umbel*, and the little umbellas are called *partial umbels*. In some genera, that have radiated umbels, the florets of the centre and those of the circumference, differ both as to sex and size; but in general each have 5 petals, 5 stamina, and two styles; or one that is bifid, with a germen placed beneath, and two naked seeds, which when ripe, separate below, but remain connected at the top.

4. CYMOUS AGGREGATE, (from *cyma*, a sprout,) called by Linnæus a *receptacle*, is when several fastigiate peduncles proceed from the same centre like the umbel, and rise to nearly an even height; but unlike the umbel, the secondary or partial peduncles proceed without any regular order, as in sambucus, viburnum, &c.

5. AMENTACEOUS AGGREGATE are such flowers as have a long common receptacle, along which are disposed squamæ or scales, which form that sort of calyx called *amentum* or *catkin*, as in corylus, pinus, juglans, &c. Amentaceous flowers generally want the petals, and all of them are of the classes monœcia and dicecia.

6. GLUMOSE AGGREGATE are such flowers as proceed from a common husky calyx belonging to grasses, called *gluma*; many of which are placed on a common receptacle called *rachis*, collecting the florets into the spike, as triticum, hordeum, secale, lolium, &c.

7. SPADICEOUS AGGREGATE are also such flowers as have a common receptacle, protruded from within a common calyx, called *spatha*, along which

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which are diſpoſed ſeveral florets. Such a receptacle is called a *ſpadix*: and is either branched, as in phœnix; or ſimple, as in narciſſus, &c. In this laſt caſe the florets may be diſpoſed, either all around it, as in calla, dracontium, pothos, &c. on the lower ſide of it, as in arum, &c. or in two ſides, as in zoſtera, &c. The flowers have generally no partial calyx.

(86.) Under the head of *Inflorescence* might alſo be mentioned the SEXES of plants; but as the whole SEXUAL SYSTEM is founded upon theſe, they belong more properly to SECT. IV. There are, beſides the above, ſeveral other modes of flowering, properly ſo called, that come under the general term INFLORESCENCE, and often afford the beſt marks to diſcriminate the ſpecies. They are chiefly expreſſed as follows:

(87.) VERTICILLUS, a *whorl*, when the flowers are placed in whorls at each joint, round the common ſtalk: they have very ſhort partial peduncles; are all of the labiated kind; and have either 2 or 4 ſtamina, and 4 naked ſeeds, as in ſalvia, marubium, mentha, &c. A verticil hath ſeveral diſtinctions, as naked, bracted, &c. and all thoſe genera with 4 ſtamina are of the claſs didynamia.

(88.) CAPITULUM, a *little head*, is when many flowers are connected into nearly a globular form or head, on the ſummit of the common ſtalk, ſometimes with and ſometimes without partial peduncles, as in gomphrena, &c. and is diſtinguiſhed by its ſhape and other circumſtances.—Under *capitulum* is now introduced the term *faſciculus*, (a little bundle,) which was formerly conſidered as diſtinct. It means when the peduncles are erect, parallel, approaching each other, and raiſed to the ſame height as in ſweet-william, where they generally proceed from different parts of the common ſtalk, oppoſite to each other.

(89.) SPICA, a *ſpike*, is when the flowers, having no partial peduncles, are arranged alternately around a common ſimple peduncle. It is called *ſpica ſecunda*, (a ſingle-row'd ſpike,) when the flowers are all turned one way, following each other; and *ſpica diſticha*, (a double-row'd ſpike,) when the flowers ſtand pointing two ways, as in lolium, &c. And it is diſtinguiſhed by ſhape and other circumſtances.

(90.) CORYMBUS, (a *cluſter of ivy berries*,) when the leſſer peduncles of the flowers proceed from different parts of the common peduncle or ſtalk; and though of unequal lengths, and ſometimes ſimple, ſometimes branched, yet form a regular ſurface at the top; as in the ſiliquoſe plants. The corymbus may be ſuppoſed to be formed from a ſpike, by adding partial peduncles to the flowers; and ſeems to be the mean between racemus and umbella, the peduncles riſing gradually from different parts of the common ſtalk, like thoſe of the raceme, and proceeding to a proportionable height like thoſe of the umbel.

(91.) THYRSUS, (a *young ſtalk*,) a mode of flowering reſembling the cone of a pine: Linnæus defines it a panicle contracted into an ovate or egg-ſhaped form; the lower peduncles, which are longer, horizontally; and the upper, which are ſhorter, mount vertically, as ſyringa, &c.

(92.) RACEMUS, (a *bunch of grapes*,) is when the flowers are placed on ſhort partial peduncles, proceeding as little lateral branches, from and along the common peduncle. It reſembles a ſpike in having the flowers placed along a common peduncle, but differs from it in having partial peduncles: it alſo differs from a corymbus in the ſhortneſs and equal length of its peduncles, not forming a regular ſurface at the top; as in ribes rubrum, vitis, &c.

(93.) PANICULA, (the *taſt* upon *reeds*,) is when the flowers are diſperſed upon peduncles variouſly ſubdivided; or it is a ſort of branching ſpike, compoſed of ſeveral ſmaller ſpikes, attached along a common peduncle, as in avena, panicum, and ſeveral other graſſes, and many other plants. When the partial peduncles diverge and hang looſe, it is called a *diffuſe*, and when they converge, it is called a *cloſe*, *panicle*.

(94.) AXILLARES, ſuch flowers as proceed from the angle formed by the leaf and the ſtem, as is moſt common.

(95.) TERMINALES, ſuch flowers as terminate the ſtalk or branch. Every other mode of flowering is called the *Inflorescence*, whether oppoſite to the leaves, lateral, ſingle, double, erect, bending, &c.

(96.) LUXURIANT, or DOUBLE FLOWERS, are conſidered only as varieties. A luxuriant flower is ſuppoſed generally to be owing to ſuperabundant nouriſhment; the luxuriant part is generally the corolla, but ſometimes the calyx alſo. There are 3 degrees of luxuriant flowers: viz. 1. *multiplicatus*; 2. *plenus*; and 3. *prolifer*.

1. FLOS MULTIPLICATUS is when the petals of the corolla are only ſo far multiplied as to exclude part of the ſtamina; and is called *duplicate*, *triplicate*, *quadruplicate*, &c. according to the number of rows of petals.

2. FLOS PLENUS is when the corolla is ſo much multiplied, as to exclude all the ſtamina; which is occaſioned by the ſtamina turning petals, and the flower is often ſo crowded as to exclude or choke the piſtillum alſo. Therefore, as the eſſential parts of generation are thus wholly, or in part deſtroyed, the plants become barren and imperfect, and no ſeed, or very little, can be expected from them. Flowers with one petal are not very ſubject to fullneſs; when they are, it generally ariſes from an increaſe of the diviſions of the petal. It is moſt uſual in flowers of many petals, where it ariſes various ways; ſometimes by multiplication of the petals only, ſometimes of the calyx or nectarium, and ſometimes of all. Compound flowers are alſo ſubject to luxuriance, ariſing ſeveral ways.

3. FLOS PROLIFER is when one flower grows out of another; this generally happens in full flowers, from their greater luxuriancy. In ſimple flowers, it riſes from the centre, and proceeds from the piſtillum ſhooting up into another flower, ſtanding on a ſingle footſtalk. In aggregate flowers (properly ſo called) many footſtalked flowers are produced out of one common calyx. In umbellate flowers, a ſecond umbel proceeds from the centre of the firſt umbel, producing little umbels; which by a greater exertion of luxuriancy may produce others with little umbels, and thus may produce ſeveral heads of flowers, each growing

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ing out of that immediately below it, furniſhed with little umbels variouſly compounded. A prolific flower is alſo called *leafy*, (*frondoſus*,) when it produces branches with flowers and leaves, which though rare, ſometimes happens in roſa, anemone, monarda, and others. As in luxuriant flowers many parts of the natural character are deficient in the whole, or in any part, they can only be diſtinguiſhed by the general habit, and by ſuch parts as remain in the natural ſtate; as very often by the calyx, and in the polypetalous flowers, the loweſt ſeries or rows of petals remain the ſame as in roſea, papaver, nigella, &c.

(97.) FLOS MUTILATUS is the oppoſite imperfection, being ſuch a flower as occaſionally is deprived of all, or the greateſt part of the petals, yet bears ſeeds, as in ſome ſpecies of tuſſilago, campanula, &c. This term is oppoſed to luxuriance, and is ſuppoſed by Linnæus to be cauſed by a defect of heat, though it may alſo happen from other cauſes.

(98.) VII. The HABIT of plants, by which ancient botaniſts meant the whole external appearance of every part thereof, whereby they were arranged in their ſeveral ſyſtems, is by Linnæus applied to the agreement of plants of the ſame genus, or natural order; chiefly in the following circumſtances:

(99.) GEMMATION. The ſtructure and diſpoſition of the bulb, as ſolid, coated, ſcaly, ſtem. Alſo of the bud; its origin petioled, ſtipuled, cortical; its contents leafy, floral, common.

(100.) VERNATION. The complication of the leaves within the bud, as conduplicate or doubled together; convulate or rolled together; involute or rolled in; revolute or rolled back; imbricated or tilled; equitant or riding; obvolute or rolled againſt each other; plaited or folded over; ſpiral or coiled like a watch-ſpring, one end in the centre.

(101.) ÆSTIVATION. The ſtate of the bud in ſummer, as convulate, imbricated, conduplicate, valved, unequally valved.

(102.) TORTION. The twiſting or bending of the parts, as uniform, diſſimilar, from the right, from the left, reciprocal, reſupine, ſpiral.

(103.) NUPTIALS. Male, female, androgynous, hermaphrodite.

(104.) SEMINATION. The ſhape and other circumſtances of the ſeed, as tail, wing, tuft, awn, hooks, gluten, curvature. Alſo of the pericarpium; as berrying, inflation, viſcoſity, elaſticity, ſtructure.

(105.) PLACENTATION. The number and diſpoſition of the cotyledons; or if wanting.

(106.) VARIATION. Of colour, ſize, pubeſcence, age. 1. *External*: plaited, bundled, broad-leaved, curled awnleſs. 2. *Internal*: mutilated, great-flowered, luxuriant, creſted, viviparous, bulb bearing. By *variation* or *variety* are meant ſuch differences as are only incidental to vegetables, and are not found conſtant and unchangeable; that is, where plants raiſed from the ſame ſeed, by ſome accidental cauſe differ in their form and appearance, from the true character of the ſpecies to which they belong; which cauſe being removed, the plant is reſtored to its true ſpecific character: and theſe incidental varieties chiefly ariſe by difference of ſoil or culture, in ſome of the above circumſtances. And though it is neceſſary to collect varieties under their proper ſpecies, as the ſpecies under their proper genera; yet it is often more difficult; 1ſt, from the difficulty of aſcertaining the genus, and, 2dly, from the variety of confounding the ſpecies; and ſometimes ſome parts of the ſpecific character itſelf are alſo ſubject to variety, particularly the leaves; though in general the true ſpecific character is conſtant and unchangeable, ariſing only from circumſtances wherein plants of the ſame genus are found to diſagree, which diſtinctions are commonly taken with moſt certainty from the parts explained in this ſection.

(107.) The HYBERNACULUM, (*winter lodgement*, is that part of a plant which defends the embryo or future ſhoot from external injuries during the winter; and is either a bulb or a bud.

(108.) I. A BULB, (*bulbus*,) is a larger ſort of bud produced under ground, placed upon the caudex of certain herbaceous plants, hence called *bulbous* plants; all of which are perennial, that is, perpetuated by their bulbs or ground buds, as well as by ſeeds: they are therefore improperly called roots, being only the hybernacle of the future ſhoot. Bulbs are of the following ſorts:

1. Squamous; conſiſting of ſcales laid over each other like tiles, as in the lily.

2. Solid; conſiſting of a cloſe ſubſtance, as in tulips.

3. Coated; conſiſting of many coats infolding each other, as in onions.

4. Cauline; produced not only from the ſides of the principal bulb, called a *ſucker* or *offset*, but from other parts of the ſtem; as in crow or wild garlic, and in ſome ſpecies of onion (hence called *bulbiferous*; where they are produced at the origin of the umbel of flowers.

(109.) A BUD (*gemma*,) is the embryo of the plant, ſeated upon the ſtem of the branches, covered with ſcales. In general there are three ſorts of buds: That containing the flowers only, as in popular, aſh, &c where the leaf buds and flower buds are diſtinct: That containing the leaves only, as in birch, &c.: and, That containing both flower and leaves, as in the generality of plants; and theſe laſt ſometimes contain leaves and male flowers, ſometimes leaves and female flowers, ſometimes leaves and hermaphrodite flowers. Annual plants are only renewed from ſeeds; and ſeveral other plants, both trees and ſhrubs, have no winter buds: It is alſo obſerved in hot countries, that few plants have buds; or at leaſt they are without that ſcaly covering which ſeems eſſential to a bud, and conſtitutes the hybernacle; inſtead whereof are protruded ſmall feather-like branches from the wings of the leaves, (defence and protection from cold not being neceſſary;) whereas in cold countries moſt plants have buds, which are wrapped up all the winter, in readineſs to greet the approaching ſpring.

(110.) Analogous to the protection afforded by the buds, is the SLEEP of plants, which according to Linnæus, happens various ways; as by converging, including, ſurrounding, fortifying, conduplicating, involving, diverging, depending, inverting, imbricating. This diſpoſition in plants is very remarkable in chick-weed, pimpernell, dandelion,

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delion, goats-beard, &c. which expand their flowers only at certain times of the day, and ſhut them p at the approach of night or a ſtorm; from which may be prognoſticated a change of weather. In many plants, not only the flowers, but the young ſhoots, are defended from external injuries, by the neareſt leaves converging and incloſing the tender rudiments. Thus we have delineated the principal outlines of plants; but a more particular deſcription of thoſe parts which ſerve chiefly to characteriſe the different claſſes, orders, genera, and ſpecies will be given in the following ſections, particularly SECT. VI.

SECT. IV. *Of the* CLASSES *of* PLANTS.

(111.) The FLOWERS of plants being, beyond all controverſy, their parts of generation, Linnæus very properly made them the ſole foundation of his beautiful ſyſtem of botany. Being the ſame in all parts of the globe capable of producing plants, the claſſification founded upon them affords a kind of *univerſal language* (ſo to ſpeak) to botaniſts, whereby they can no longer miſtake each others meaning, as has unfortunately been the caſe, leſs or more, with almoſt all former botanical ſyſtems.

(112.) FLOWERS, in reſpect of SEX, are diſtinguiſhed into male, female, hermaphrodite, and neuter. MALE flowers are ſuch as have only the ſtamina, as in the claſſes, monœcia, dicœcia, and polygamia. FEMALE flowers are ſuch as have only the piſtilla, as in the ſame claſſes. HERMAPHRODITE flowers are ſuch as have both the ſtamina and piſtilla in the ſame flower, as in almoſt all the other claſſes: hermaphrodites, are alſo diſtinguiſhed into *male* hermaphrodites, when the female is ineffectual; and *female* hermaphrodites, when the male is ineffectual. NEUTER flowers are ſuch as have neither ſtamina nor piſtilla perfect.

(113.) The PLANTS themſelves alſo take a denomination from the ſex of their flowers; male plants are ſuch as bear male flowers only; female plants bear female flowers only; hermaphrodite plants bear hermaphrodite flowers only. ANDROGYNOUS plants are ſuch as bear male and female flowers, diſtinct upon the ſame root, as in the claſs monœcia. POLYGAMOUS plants are ſuch as bear hermaphrodite flowers, and male or female flowers, or both diſtinct, on the ſame or on different roots.

(114.) When on the ſame root, the flowers are either male hermaphrodites and female hermaphrodites; or hermaphrodites and male; or hermaphrodites and female, diſtinct: if on different roots, the flowers are either hermaphrodites and male; hermaphrodites and female; hermaphrodites and both male and female; or are androgynous and male; and ſometimes androgynous and male and female on 3 diſtinct plants. Upon theſe differences in the flowers of plants, Linnæus has the merit of founding the SEXUAL SYSTEM; which, in beauty, uniformity, regularity, comprehenſiveneſs, and utility, infinitely excels all that have gone before it.

(115.) TABLE OF THE CLASSES.

PLANTS celebrate their nuptials
- Either PUBLICKLY, *i. e.* have viſible flowers:
  - Plants, which have viſible flowers are either
    - Among the Monoclinia, there is either
      - MONOCLINIA, males and females in the ſame bed:—*i. e.* The flowers are all hermaphrodite:
        - In theſe the ſtamina are either
          - DIFFINITAS, the males or ſtamina unconnected with each other:
            - *Indifferentiſſima*, *i. e.* the males having no fixed proportion as to length:
              1. MONANDRIA, *i. e.* one male or ſtamen in a hermaphrodite flower.
              2. DIANDRIA, —— two males or ſtamina.
              3. TRIANDRIA, —— three males.
              4. TETRANDRIA, —— four males.
              5. PENTANDRIA, —— five males.
              6. HEXANDRIA, —— ſix males.
              7. HEPTANDRIA, —— ſeven males.
              8. OCTANDRIA, —— eight males.
              9. ENNEANDRIA, —— nine males.
              10. DECANDRIA, —— ten males.
              11. DODECANDRIA, —— twelve males.
              12. ICOSANDRIA, —— twenty, or more males inſerted into the calyx.
              13. POLYANDRIA, —— all above 20 males inſerted into the receptacle.
            - Or *Subordinata*, two of the males are uniformly ſhorter than the reſt.
              14. DIDYNAMIA, —— four males, two long and two ſhort.
              15. TETRADYNAMIA, — ſix males, four long and two ſhort.
          - Or AFFINITAS, the ſtamina either connected to each other, or to the piſtillum.
            16. MONADELPHIA, the ſtamina united into one body by the filaments.
            17. DIADELPHIA, the ſtamina united into two bodies by the filaments.
            18. POLYADELPHIA, the ſtamina united into three or more bodies by the filaments.
            19. SYNGENESIA, the ſtamina united into a cylindrical form by the antheræ.
            20. GYNANDRIA, the ſtamina inſerted into the piſtillum.
      - Or DICLINIA, males and femals in ſeparate beds; *i. e.* plants that have ſtamina and piſtilla in different flowers in the ſame ſpecies.
        21. MONOECIA, male and female flowers diſtinct in the ſame plant.
        22. DIOECIA, males and females in different plants, of the ſame ſpecies.
        23. POLYGAMIA, male, female and hermaphrodite flowers in the ſame or different plants.
    - Or CLANDESTINELY, *i. e.* have their parts of fructification either inviſible or not diſtinct.
      24 CRYPTOGAMIA, the flowers inviſible, ſo that they cannot be ranked according to the parts of fructification, or diſtinctly deſcribed.

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(116.) These 24 CLASSES comprehend every known genus and species. *Plate* XXVII. exhibits a view of the distinctive characters of each. It is easy to class a plant belonging to any of the first 11 classes, as they all depend on the number of stamina, without regard to any other circumstance: only it is to be observed, that the 11th class, *Dodecandria*, although its title is expressive of 12 stamina only, consists of such plants as are furnished with any number of stamina, from 11 to 19 inclusive. The reason of the chasm in the classes from 10 to 12 stamina, is, that no flowers have yet been found with only 11, so as to form a class. The Reseda indeed has sometimes 11, but oftener more; and those of the Brownea are united below, which brings it under *Monadelphia*.

(117.) The 12th class requires more attention. When the stamina amount to above 20, a young botanist will be apt to imagine that the plant belongs to the polyandria class. In reducing plants of this kind to their classes, particular regard must be had to the insertion of the stamina. If they are inserted into the calyx, the plant belongs to the icosandria class; if into the receptacle, it belongs to the polyandria. This distinction it is very necessary to observe, as the fruits of the latter class are frequently poisonous.

(118.) The 14th class is likewise in danger of being confounded with the 4th, the number of stamina being the same; but in the 14th, two of them are uniformly much shorter than the other two; at the same time each particular stamen belonging to the different pairs stands directly opposite to one another. The 15th class may be mistaken for the 6th, as they consist of the same number of stamina. But in the 15th, four of them are uniformly longer than the other two; and these two are always opposite to each other.

(119.) In the 16th class the stamina are united below, but distinct above. The pistils are also united below in one substance with the receptacle, (which is prominent in the centre,) but divided above into as many threads as there are germina.

(120.) In the 17th class the corolla is papilionaceous, and the petals are expressed by distinct names, viz. *Vixillum*, the uppermost, which covers the rest; *alæ*, the two at each side of the flower, and *carina*, the lowest, which is often bipartite, and placed between the alæ. The antheræ are 10, one on the upper filament, and 9 on the lower. The pistillum grows out of the receptacle within the calyx.

(121.) The 19th class consist of plants, whose flowers are composed of a great number of small flowers, inclosed in one common calyx, and therefore stiled *compound flowers*. The whole compound flower, in its aggregate state, is stiled *Flosculose*, because composed of these *flosculi*, or florets. The essence of a flosculose flower consists in having the antheræ united in a cylinder, and a single seed below the receptacle of the floret.

(122.) In the 20th class, the stamina grow either upon the pistillum, or upon a receptacle that stretches out in the form of a stylus, and supports both the stamina and the pistillum. The other classes are sufficiently distinguished in the table.

SECT. V. *Of the* ORDERS *of* PLANTS.

(123.) The ORDERS are inferior divisions, which lead us a step nearer the genus. In the first 13 classes they are taken from the female parts, in the same manner as the classes from the male: and named monogynia, digynia, trigynia, tetragynia, &c. *i. e.* one, two, three, four, &c. pistilla, or female parts. When the pistils have no stalk or filament like the stamina, they are numbered by the stigmata or tops of the pistils, which in that case adhere to the capsule in the form of small protuberances, as may be observed in the flowers of the poppy, &c.

(124.) In the 14th class the orders are derived from a different source. The plants belonging to it have their seeds either inclosed in a capsule, or altogether uncovered. Hence they are divided into *gymnospermia*, comprehending such as have naked seeds; and *angiospermia*, comprehending such as have their seeds covered, or inclosed in a capsule. Mr Lee, in his *Introduction to Botany*, adds a 3d order, viz. *Polypetala*; but he mentions only one genus under it, viz. the melianthus, and the distinction seems hardly necessary, as it comes properly enough under *angiospermia*.

(125.) The 15th class is divided into two Orders, viz. the *filiculosa*, or those which have a short pod; and the *filiquosa*, or those which have a longer one.

(126.) The Orders of the 16th, 17th, 18th, and 20th classes, are taken from the number of stamina; *e. g.* monadelphia, *pentandria*, *decandria*, *polyandria*, &c.

(127.) The Orders of the 19th class are, 1. *Polygamia æqualis*, those whose floscules are all furnished with stamina and pistils. *Polygamia spuria* comprehends plants that have hermaphrodite floscules in the disk, and female floscules in the margin; which is made the foundation of the 3 next orders; viz. 2. *Polygamia superflua*, those whose hermaphrodite flowers in the disk are furnished with stigmata, and bear seed; and whose female flowers in the radius likewise produce seeds. 3. *Polygamia frustranea*, such as have hermaphrodite seed-bearing floscules in the disk, but whose floscules in the radius, having no stigmata, are barren. 4. *Polygamia necessaria* is the reverse of the former: the hermaphrodite flowers in the disk want stigmata, and are barren; but the female floscules in the radius are furnished with stigmata, and produce seeds. 5. *Polygamia segregata*, many floscules inclosed in one common calyx, and each of the floscules likewise furnished with a perianthium proper to itself. 6. *Monogamia*. This order have only 7 genera, none of which have properly compound flowers, but are ranked under this class, merely from having their stamina united by the antheræ.

(128.) The Orders of the 21st class are partly taken from the number of stamina, and partly from the names and characters peculiar to some of the other classes; *e. g.* monœcia *triandria*, monœcia *syngenesia*, monœcia *gynandria*.

(129.) The Orders of the 22d class are founded upon the number, union, and situation of the stamina in the male flowers. The Orders of the 23d are all taken from classical characters; *e. g.* poly-

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gamia *monœcia*, polygamia *diœcia*, and polygamia *triœcia*.

(130.) The 24th class is divided into 4 Orders: 1. *Filites*, comprehending all plants that bear their seeds in the back edges of the leaf, and those that are called *capillary plants*. 2. *Musci*, which comprehends all the moss kind. 3. *Algæ*, including the lichens, fuci, and many others whose parts of fructification are either altogether invisible, or exceedingly obscure. 4. *Fungi*, comprehending all the mushroom tribe.

(131.) In the following table the classes are repeated, for the more readily understanding the orders into which each class is subdivided. *Plate* XLIII. exhibits a view of the distinctive characters of each order; and in *Plate* XXVI. the classes are all expressed, along with one of the orders.

(132.) TABLE OF THE ORDERS.

CLASSES.	NUMBER *and* NAMES *of the* ORDERS.
1. MONANDRIA	2 *Monogynia, Digynia.*
2. DIANDRIA	3 *Monogynia, Digynia, Trigynia.*
3. TRIANDRIA	3 *Monogynia, Digynia, Trigynia.*
4. TETRANDRIA	3 *Monogynia, Digynia, Tetragynia.*
5. PENTANDRIA	6 *Monogynia, Digynia, Trigynia, Tetragynia, Pentagynia, Polygynia.*
6. HEXANDRIA	5 *Monogynia, Digynia, Trigynia, Tetragynia, Polygynia.*
7. HEPTANDRIA	4 *Monogynia, Digynia, Tetragynia, Heptagynia.*
8. OCTANDRIA	4 *Monogynia, Digynia, Trigynia, Tetragynia.*
9. ENNEANDRIA	3 *Monogynia, Trigynia, Hexagynia.*
10. DECANDRIA	5 *Monogynia, Digynia, Trigynia, Pentagynia, Decagynia.*
11. DODECANDRIA	5 *Monogynia, Digynia, Trigynia, Pentagynia, Dodecagynia.*
12. ICOSANDRIA	5 *Monogynia, Digynia, Trigynia, Pentagynia, Polygynia.*
13. POLYANDRIA	7 { *Monogynia, Digynia, Trigynia, Tetragynia, Pentagynia, Hexagynia, Polygynia.*
14. DIDYNAMIA	2 *Gymnospermia, Angiospermia.*
15. TETRADYNAMIA	2 *Siliculosa, Siliquosa.*
16. MONADELPHIA	8 { *Triandria, Pentandria, Octandria, Enneandria, Decandria, Endecandria, Dodecandria, Polyandria.*
17. DIADELPHIA	4 *Pentandria, Hexandria, Octandria, Decandria.*
18. POLYADELPHIA	4 *Pentandria, Dodecandria, Icosandria, Polyandria.*
19. SYNGENSIA	6 { *Polygamia æqualis, Polygamia superflua, Polygamia frustranea, Polygamia necessaria, Polygamia segregata, Monogamia.*
20. GYNANDRIA	9 { *Diandria, Triandria, Tetrandria, Pentandria, Hexandria, Octandria, Decandria, Dodecandria, Polyandria.*
21. MONOECIA	11 { *Monandria, Diandria, Triandria, Tetrandria, Pentandria, Hexandria, Heptandria, Polyandria, Monadelphia, Syngenesia, Gynandria.*
22. DIOECIA	15 { *Monandria, Diandria, Triandria, Tetrandria, Pentandria, Hexandria, Octandria, Enneandria, Decandria, Dodecandria, Icosandria, Polyandria, Monadelphia, Syngenesia, Gynandria.*
23. POLYGAMIA	3 *Monœcia, Diœcia, Triœcia.*
24. CRYPTOGAMIA	4 *Filices, Musci, Algæ, Fungi.*
APPENDIX	1 *Palmæ.*

(133.) Some botanists rank these last as a 25th class; but this is improper, as they are all capable of being arranged in the preceding classes of the system, although on account of their singular structure, Linnæus placed them in an appendix. They contain such genera as have a spadix and spatha, *i. e.* whose flowers and fruit are produced on that particular receptacle called a *spadix*, protruded from a common calyx in form of a sheath, called *spatha*. This order consists of trees and shrubs only. These have always a simple stem, not branched, bearing leaves at the top, resembling those of fern, being a composition of a leaf and a branch, called *frondes*; and the corolla hath always 3 petals.

(134.) EXPLANATION *of the* BOTANICAL FIGURES *in* PLATE XXVI.——CLASSES *and* ORDERS. *Fig.* 1. Illustrates the class *Monandria* and order *Monogynia*; one stamen and one pistil. 2. *Diandria Monogynia*, two stamina, one pistil. 3. *Triandria Digynia*, three stamina, two stigmata. 4. *Tetrandria Monogynia*, four stamina, one pistil. 5. *Pentandria Monogynia*, five stamina, one pistil. 6. *Hexandria Monogynia*, six stamina, one pistil. 7. *Heptandria Monogynia*, seven stamina, one pistil. 8. *Octandria Monogynia*, eight stamina, one pistil. 9. *Enneandria Monogynia*, nine stamina, one pistil. 10. *Decandria Pentagynia*, ten stamina, five pistils. 11. *Dodecandria Monogynia*, 12 stamina, one pistil. 12. *Icosandria Polygynia*, 20 stamina arising from the substance of the calyx or corollæ, with many stigmata. 13. *Polyandria Monogynia*, many stamina, one pistil. 14. *Didynamia*, two stamina longer than the other two. 15. *Tetradynamia*, six stamina, 4 long and 2 short. 16. *Monadelphia Pentagynia*, many stamina united at the base, and forming a cylinder with five stigmata. 17. *Diadelphia*, the stamina in two parcels. 18. *Polyadelphia*, many sets of stamina in one flower. 19. *Syngenesia*, antheræ united. 20. *Gynandria*, stamina connected to the pistil. 21. *Monœcia*, male and female flowers separate, but on the same plant. 22. *Diœcia*, male and female flowers on distinct plants, bearing from a separate root 23. *Polygamia*,

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LINNEAN SYSTEM.

Monogynia

Digynia

Trigynia

Tetragynia

Pentagynia

Hexagynia

Heptagynia

Decagynia

Dodecagynia

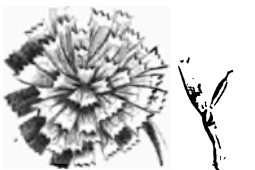
Polygynia

Gymnospermia

Angiospermia

Siliculosa

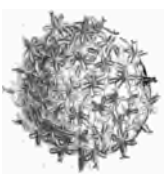
Siliquosa


Polygamia Æqualis

Polygamia Superflua

Polygamia Frustanea

Polygamia Necessaria


Polygamia Segregata

Trioecia

Polygamia Monogamia

Filices

Musci

Algæ

Fungi

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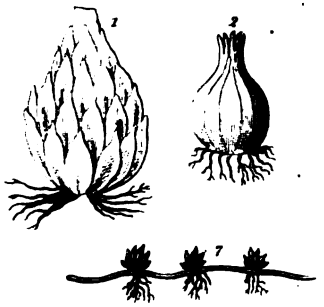
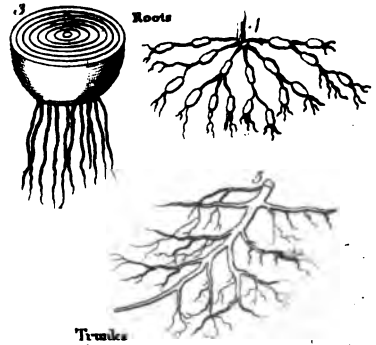
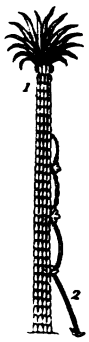
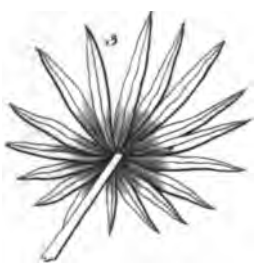


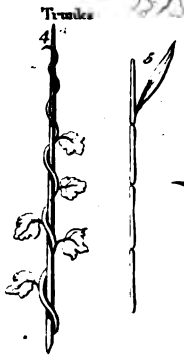
Roots

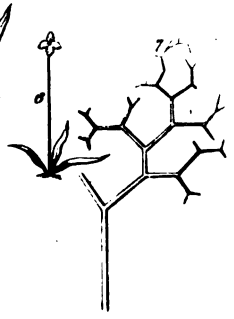


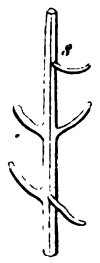




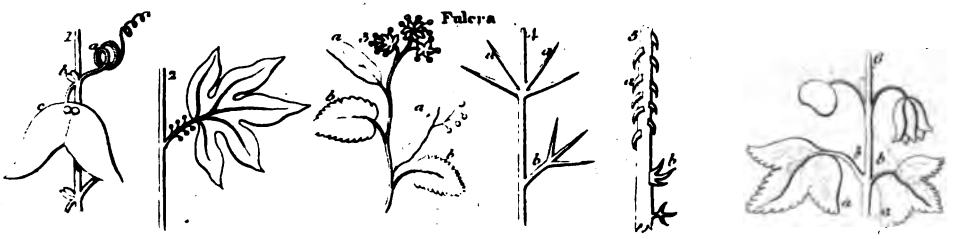
Trunks



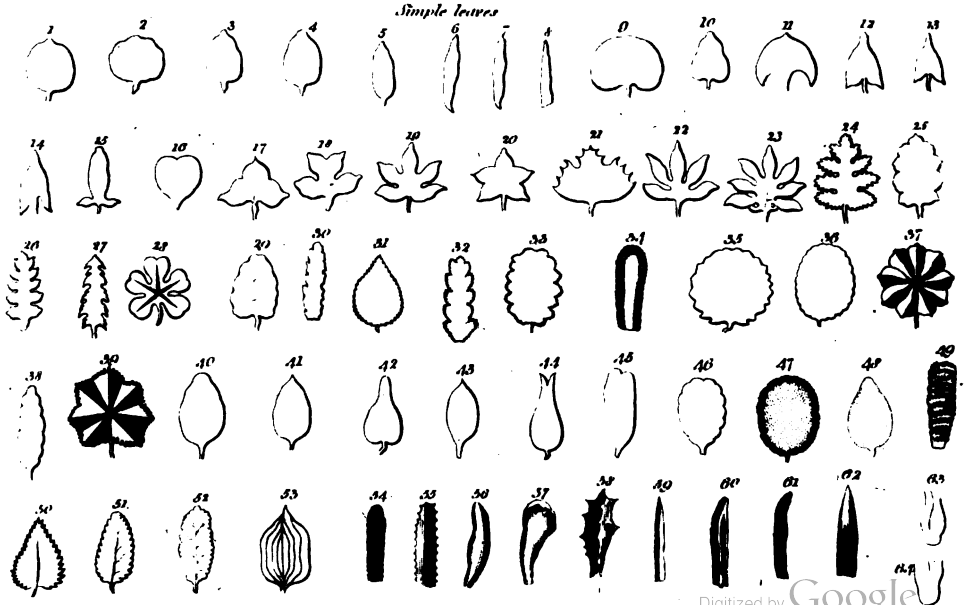




Fulcra



Simple leaves



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Compound Leaves.

Determinate Leaves.

Foliation.

Miscellaneous.

Rheum Palmatum
or True Rhubarb.

Bignonia Radicans
or Trumpet Flower.

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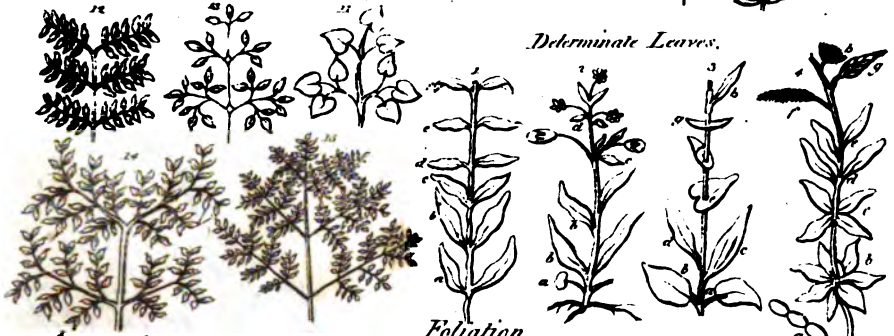
Compound Leaves.

Determinate Leaves.



Foliation.

Miscellaneous.

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Classes and Orders

Parts of the flower

Parts of the fruit

Bos Caffer, or Cape Buffalo.

BOS.

Bos Indicus, or Little Indian Buffalo.

Bubalus, or Common Buffalo.

The Musk Bull and Cow.

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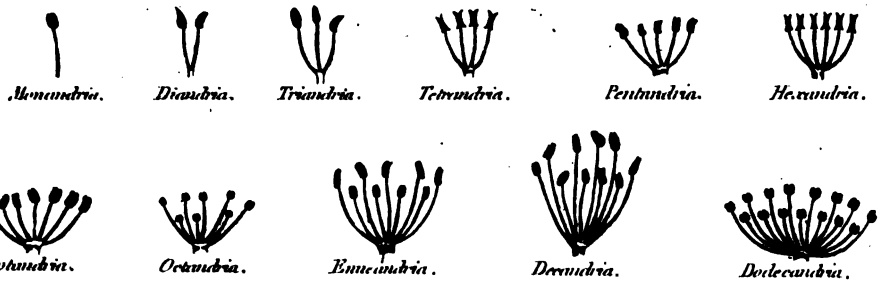
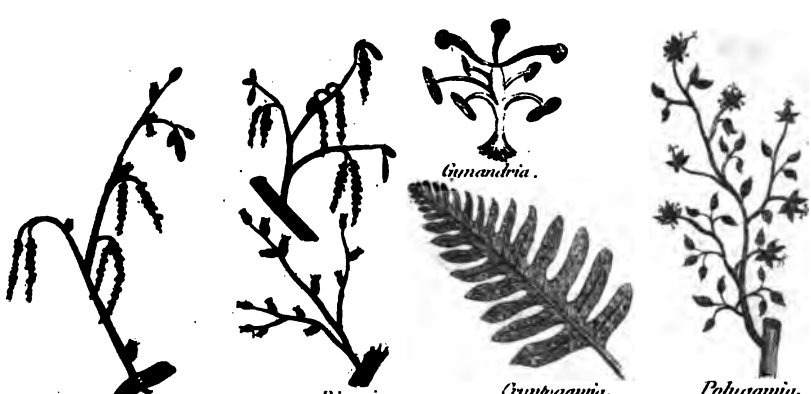
LINNEAN SYSTEM





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gamia, male, female, and hermaphrodite flowers. 24. *Cryptogamia*, concealed fructification.——PARTS *of the* FLOWER, *Fig.* 1. A flower with its corolla, piſtillum, and ſtamina; *a*, the petals of the corolla; *b*, the germen; *c*, the ſtyle; *d*, the ſtigma; *e*, the filaments; *f*, the antheræ. 2. The calyx, piſtillum, and ſtamina, ſeparate from the corolla; *a*, the perianthium; *b*, the germen; *c*, the ſtyle; *d*, the ſtigma; *e*, the filaments; *f*, the antheræ burſting and diſcharging the pollen; *g*, an anthera before it has burſt. 3. A flower whoſe corolla is monopetalous; *a*, the corolla; *b*, the perianthum. 4. A polypetalous corolla; *a*, the ungues; *b*, the laminæ. 5. A *Narciſſus* iſſuing from its ſpatha: *a*, the flower; *b*, the ſpatha. 6. An amentum. 7. The fructification of a *Moſs*; *a*, the Calyptra. 8. A *Fungus*; *a*, the volva. 9. A *Graſs*; *a*, the gluma, *b*, the ariſta. 10. A compound umbel: *a*, the univerſal umbel; *b*, partial umbels; *c*, univerſal involucrum; *d*, partial involucra. 11. A bractæa accompanying the flowers of the *Tilia*: *a*, the bractæa. 12. *a*, the pollen ſeen with a microſcope; *b*, an elaſtic vapour diſcharged from it.—PARTS *of the* FRUIT, *Fig.* 1. A capſule; *a*, the valvules. 2. *a*, A receptacle of ſeeds. 3. A ſtrobilus. 4. A winged ſeed; *a*, the ſeed; *b*, the wing. 5. A legumen; *a*, the upper ſuture, along which runs the receptacle of the ſeeds. 6. A ſiliqua: *a*, *b*, the two ſutures to which the ſeeds are faſtened alternately. 7. A ſeed crowned with a pappus; *a*, the ſeed; *b*, the ſtipes which ſupports the pappus; *c*, a hairy pappus; *d*, a feathery pappus. 8. The ſeed of a *Bean* ſplit in two; *a*, the cotyledons; *b*, the corculum, *c*, the roſtellum; *d*, the plumula; *e*, the hilum. 9. A drupa; *a*, the nucleus, or ſtone; *b*, the pulp. 10. A pomum; *a*, the capſule; *b*, the pulp. 11. A berry; *a*, the ſeeds; *b*, the pulp. 12. A ſeed crowned with a calyculus; *a*, the ſeed; *b*, the calyculus.

SECT. VI. *Of the* PARTS *that diſtinguiſh the* GENERA *of* PLANTS.

(135.) IN inveſtigating the genus of a plant, we muſt firſt conſider its eſſence. The eſſence of every vegetable, ſays Linnæus, conſiſts in the fructification; the eſſence of the fructification in the flower and fruit; the eſſence of the flower conſiſts in the antheræ and ſtigma, and the eſſence of the fruit in the ſeed. Hence he makes the flower and fruit the foundation of his generic diſtinctions, in his ſexual theory.

(136.) Theſe are generally compoſed of 7 parts; the CALYX, the COROLLA, the STAMINA, the PISTILLUM, the PERICARPIUM, the SEMINA, and the RECEPTACULUM; and the preſence or abſence, the number, figure, proportion, and ſituation of the ſeveral parts, conſtitute the genus. But as there are few genera wherein all the parts of the *natural* character are conſtant in every one of the ſpecies, it is neceſſary to fix upon ſuch circumſtances as are conſtant in both genus and ſpecies, and call thoſe the *eſſential* or ruling character; both to diſtinguiſh one genus from another, and to fix the ſeveral ſpecies and their varieties to their reſpective genera; for which purpoſe, in ſome caſes, Linnæus was obliged to have recourſe to the *nectarium*. The firſt 4 parts of the fructification are properly parts of the flower, and the laſt 3 of the fruit.

(137.) I. The CALYX, or cup, is the termination of the outer bark of a plant. Its chief uſe is to incloſe, ſupport, and project the other parts of the fructification. When preſent, it is ſeated on the receptacle: and is diſtinguiſhed by its figure: by the number, diviſion, and ſhape of its leaves, or ſegments; and by the following names, according to the circumſtances with which it is attended.

(138.) PERIANTHIUM, when its ſtation is cloſe to, and ſurrounds the other parts of the fructification, is called the *perianthium of the fructification*: If it includes many floſcules, as in ſcabioſa, and other aggregate and compound flowers, it is called a *common perianthium*: if it includes only one floſcule, it is called a *proper perianthium*: if it includes the ſtamina, and not the germen, it is the perianthium of the *flower*, and is ſaid to be *above*, as in lonicera, ribes, campanula, &c.: if it includes the germen, but not the ſtamina, it is the perianthium of the *fruit*, and is ſaid to be *below*, as to linnea and morina, each of which have two calyxes and two receptacles above each other, one of the flower and the other of the fruit.

(139.) INVOLUCRUM, when ſtationed at the foot of an umbel, below the common receptacle, and at a diſtance from the flower, is called *univerſal*, if placed under the univerſal umbel; and *partial*, if placed under a partial umbel.

(140.) AMENTUM conſiſts of a great number of chaffy ſcales, diſpoſed along a ſlender axis or common receptacle, which, from its reſemblance to a cat's tail, has obtained the name of *catkin*; and theſe flowers have generally no petals: Sometimes the ſame amentum ſupports both male and female flowers, diſtinct, on the ſame plant, as in carpinus, &c. ſometimes the male and female flowers are removed from each other on the ſame plant, and the amentum ſupports only the male flowers, and the female flowers are incloſed by a perianthium, as in corylus, fagus, &c. and ſometimes an amentum only ſupports male flowers on one plant, and female flowers on another plant, as in ſalix, populus, &c.

(141.) SPATHA, a ſort of calyx growing from the ſtalk, burſting lengthways, and protruding a ſpadix, ſupporting one or more flowers, which have often no perianthium. It conſiſts either of one leaf, with a valve on one ſide only, as in the greater number of ſpathaceous plants; or of two leaves, with two valves, as in ſtratiotes, &c. or is imbricated, as in muſa, &c. with one or two valves.

(142.) GLUMA, a huſk, chiefly belongs to corn and graſſes, conſiſting of 1, 2, 3, or more valves, folding over each other like ſcales, and frequently terminated by a long, ſtiff, pointed prickle, called the *ariſta*.

(143.) CALYPTRA, the proper calyx of moſſes, is placed over the antheræ of the ſtamina, reſembling an extinguiſher, a hood, or monk's cowl.

(144.) VOLVA, ſo named from its *infolding*, is the proper calyx of funguſſes, being membranaceous, and ſurrounding the ſtalk, before their expanſion.

(145.) It is often difficult to diſtinguiſh the

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calyx from the *bracteæ*, which are found on many plants, ſituated on the flower-ſtalk: and are often ſo near to the lower parts of the fructification as to be miſtaken for the calyx, as in tilia, paſſiflora, &c. but they may be beſt diſtinguiſhed by this rule; the bracteæ differ in ſhape and colour from the other leaves of the plant, but are commonly of the ſame duration; whereas the calyx always withers when the fruit is ripe, if not before.

(146.) II. The COROLLA is the termination of the inner bark of the plant; which accompanies the fructification, in the form of leaves variouſly coloured. It is generally ſeated on the receptacle, ſometimes on the calyx; ſerving as an inner work of defence to the part it incloſes; as the calyx, which is uſually of ſtronger texture, does for an outer. The leaves of the corolla are called *petals*, by the number, diviſion, and ſhape of which it is diſtinguiſhed. It is ſaid to be *below*, when it includes the germen, and is attached to the part immediately below it, as in borago, &c. and it is ſaid to be *above*, when it is placed above the germen, as in cratægus, &c. In reſpect to duration, the corolla either continues till the fruit is ripe, as in nymphæa; or falls off at the firſt opening of the flower, as in actæa; or with the ſtamina and other parts of the flower, as in moſt plants; or does not fall, but withers, as in campanula, &c.

(147.) The NECTARIUM, Linnæus ſays, principally belongs to the corolla, as an appendage to the petals; and contains the honey, which is the principal food of bees and other inſects. But though, in plants where it is found, it may be attached to the corolla, and be then moſt evident; yet it is almoſt as often attached to other parts of the fructification: Linnæus therefore chiefly makes uſe of it as an eſſential character in many of the genera, as being leſs variable than others, and obſerves, that when it is not united with the ſubſtance of the petals, thoſe plants are generally poiſonous: The tube or lower part of monopetalous flowers, he conſiders as a true nectarium, becauſe it contains a ſweet liquor. But as it affords very ſingular varieties in other inſtances, it has the following diſtinctions.

1. CALYCINE NECTARIA ſuch as are ſituated upon, and make a part of, the calyx; as in tropæolum, monotropa, &c.

2. COROLLACEOUS NECTARIA are attached to the corolla, and are called calcariate when they reſemble a ſpur. They are either on flowers of one petal, as in valeriana, &c. or on flowers of many petals, as in viola, &c. or within the ſubſtance of the petals, as in lilium, iris, &c.

3. STAMINEOUS NECTARIA attend the ſtamina, and are either ſeated upon the antheræ, as in adenanthera; or upon the filaments, as in laurus, &c.

4. PISTILLACEOUS NECTARIA accompany the piſtillum, and are placed upon the germen, as in hyacinthus, butomus, &c.

5. RECEPTACULACEOUS NECTARIA join the receptacle, as in polygonum, ſedum, &c.

6. NECTARIA, that crown the corolla, are placed in a row within the petals, though entirely unconnected with their ſubſtance, as in ſilene, &c. and in this ſituation often reſemble a cup, as in narciſſus, &c.

7. NECTARIA of ſingular conſtruction, are ſuch as cannot properly be placed under any of the foregoing diſtinctions, as in amomum, curcuma, ſaliva, urtica, &c. The proper uſe of the nectarium, is not yet diſcovered.

(148.) III. The STAMINA, or chives, are the males of the flower, proceeding from the wood of the plant. Each ſtamen conſiſts of two parts, viz. the filament and the antheræ. In moſt flowers they are placed upon the receptacle, within the corolla, and round the germen; and are chiefly diſtinguiſhed by number.

(149.) 1. The FILAMENT is the thread-ſhaped part of the ſtamen, ſerving as a footſtalk to elevate the antheræ, and ſometimes has jags or diviſions; which are either two, as in ſalvia; 3, as in fumaria; or 9, as in the claſs diadelphia. They are alſo diſtinguiſhed by their form or figure, as awl-ſhaped, thread-ſhaped, hair-like, ſpiral, revolute, &c. by their proportion, as equal, unequal, irregular, long, or ſhort: and by their ſituation, being generally oppoſite to the leaves or diviſions of the calyx, and alternate with the petals; that is, when the diviſions of the calyx are equal in number to the petals, and to the ſtamina. In monopetalous flowers they are generally inſerted into the corolla; but ſcarcely ever in flowers of more than one petal, but into the receptacle: Yet in the claſs icoſandria they are inſerted into the calyx or corolla (though the flowers have many petals,) as alſo in a few other plants. But in the claſs polyandria, and moſt other polypetalous plants, they are inſerted into the receptacle, like the calyx and corolla. The claſs gynandria, however, is an exception to the above rules, where the ſtamina are ſometimes without filaments.

(150.) 2. The ANTHERA, from ἀνθος, a flower, emphatically ſo called from its great utility in the fructification, is the top of the filament, containing the impregnating pollen; and is either one to each filament, as in moſt plants; or one common to three filaments, as in curcurbita, &c. or one common to 5 filaments, as in the claſs ſyngeneſia: or ſometimes there are two antheræ to each filament, as in ranunculus and mercurialis; 3 to each filament, as in fumaria; 5 to 3 filaments, as in bryonia; or 5 to each, as in theobroma. The anthera is alſo diſtinguiſhed by its form or figure, as oblong, round, angular, &c. It conſiſts of one or more cells, which burſt differently in different parts; either in the ſide, as in moſt plants; on the top; or from the top to the baſe. It is alſo faſtened to the top of the filament, either by its baſe, as in moſt plants, or horizontally by its middle, to the top of the filament, ſo poiſed as to turn like a vane: or it is fixed by its ſide, leaning to the top of the filament, then called incumbent. Sometimes it grows to the nectarium, as in coſtus; to the receptacle, as in arum: or to the piſtillum, in the claſs gynandria.

(151.) IV. The PISTILLUM, or the female of the flower, proceeding from the pith of the plant, is that erect column which is generally placed in the centre of the flower, amidſt the ſtamina; and conſiſts of 3 parts, the germen, the ſtyle, and the ſtigma.

(152.)

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(152.) 1. The GERMEN is the baſe of the piſtillum, ſupporting the ſtyle. After ſome time, it becomes a ſeed-veſſel, and may therefore be conſidered as the rudiment of the pericarpium. It is diſtinguiſhed by its ſhape, number, and ſituation; and is ſaid to be *above* or *below*, according to its ſituation above or below the attachment of the corolla.

(153.) 2. The STYLE elevates the ſtigma from the germen, to receive the influence of the ſtamina, and to convey it down to the germen as through a tube. It is diſtinguiſhed either by its number, which, when preſent (or when abſent, the number of ſtigmata,) gives riſe to moſt of the orders, and are called ſo many females; or by its diviſions, being double, treble, or quadruple, &c. though joined at the baſe; or by its length, being longer, ſhorter, or equal with the ſtamina; or by its proportion, being thicker or thinner than the ſtamina; or by its figure, being regular, cylindric, awl ſhaped, bent, &c. or by its ſituation, being generally on the top of the germen, though in ſome inſtances ſuppoſed to be both above and below, as in cappairs and euphorbia; unleſs the lower part in theſe genera be conſidered as the extenſion of the receptacle. It is often placed on the ſide of the germen, as in hirtella, ſuriana; alſo in roſa rubus, and the reſt of the plants in the claſs icoſandria and order polygynia. With reſpect to duration, it generally falls with the other parts of the flower; but in ſome plants it is permanent, and attends the fruit to its maturity, as in the claſs tetradynamia. In flowers which have no ſtyle, the ſtigma adheres to the germen.

(154.) 3. The STIGMA, when ſingle, is generally placed like a head on the ſummit of the ſtyle: when ſeveral, they are placed on the top, or regularly diſpoſed along the ſide; and covered with moiſture, to retain the pollen of the antheræ. It is diſtinguiſhed either by its number, being ſingle in moſt plants; or by its diviſions, figure, length, thickneſs, or duration; as in moſt plants it withers when the germen is become a ſeed-veſſel; in ſome it is permanent, as in papaver.

(155.) V. The PERICARPIUM, is the germen grown to maturity, and become a matrix. All plants, however, are not furniſhed with a ſeed-veſſel, as corylus, &c. In many, it is ſupplied chiefly by the calyx, which converging incloſes the ſeeds till they arrive at maturity; as is the caſe with the rough-leaved plants, and the labial and compound flowers of the claſſes, pentandria, didynamia, and ſyngeneſia. Sometimes the receptacle ſupplies the office of ſeed-veſſel, as in gundelia: and ſometimes the nectarium, as in carex. The pericarpium is ſituated at the receptacle of the flower, either above or below, or both, as in ſaxifraga and lobelia: and is diſtinguiſhed by the following appellations, according to its different ſtructure.

(156.) 1. CAPSULA is frequently ſucculent whilſt green; but when ripe, it is a dry huſky ſeed-veſſel, that parts to diſcharge its contents; and by ſome elaſtic motion, the ſeeds are often darted forth with conſiderable velocity, as in dictamnus, &c. It opens either at the top, as in moſt plants; at the bottom; at the ſide, horizontally acroſs the middle; or longitudinally; and if it is articulated or jointed, it opens at each of the joints, which contains a ſingle ſeed. It is diſtinguiſhed externally, by its number of valves; and internally, by its number of the cells, wherein the ſeed is incloſed; as well as by its ſhape and ſubſtance.

(157.) 2. SILIQUA, a pod, is a pericarpium of two valves; but as ſome are long, others round or broad, Linnæus diſtinguiſhes them by their form into *ſiliquas* and *ſilicula* which give name to the orders in the claſs tetradynamia. The *ſiliqua* is a long pod, being much longer than broad, as in braſſica, ſinapis, &c. the *ſilicula*, a little pod, is a roundiſh pod, either flat or ſpherical, and the length, and breadth nearly equal, as in lunaria, draba, &c. In both, the apex, which had been the ſtyle, is often ſo long beyond the valves, as to be of equal length with the pod; and the ſeeds in both are faſtened alternatley by a ſlender thread, to both the ſutures or joinings of the valves.

(158.) 3. LEGUMEN, pulſe, is alſo a pod, and is likewiſe a pericarpium of two valves, wherein the ſeeds are faſtened to ſhort receptacles along the upper ſuture only, on each ſide, alternate: this chiefly belongs to the papilionaceous flowers of the claſs diadelphia.

(159.) 4. FOLLICULUS, or CONCEPTACULUM, is a pericarpium of one valve only, opening lengthways on one ſide, and the ſeeds not faſtened to the ſuture, but to a receptacle within the fruit, as in aſclepias, &c.

(160.) 5. DRUPA is a pericarpium that is pulpy, having no valve. It contains within its ſubſtance a nut or ſeed incloſed with a hard ligneous cruſt, as olea, cornus, &c. and when the drupa is ſeated below the calyx, it is furniſhed with an umbilicus like the pomum.

(161.) 6. POMUM, an apple, is alſo a pulpy pericarpium without valve; but containing in the middle a membraneous capſule, with ſeveral cells containing the ſeeds: and at the end oppoſite to the footſtalk there is generally a ſmall cavity, called *umbilicus* from its reſemblance to the navel in animals: and which was formerly the calyx, ſeated above the fruit, and perſiſtent, as in pyrus, cucumis, &c.

(162.) 7. BACCA, a berry, is alſo a pulpy pericarpium without valve, incloſing one or more ſeeds, which have no membraneous capſule or covering, but are diſpoſed promiſcuouſly through the pulp, as in ſolanum, &c. and are generally placed on footſtalks attached to receptacles within the pulp, as in ribes, &c. The berry alſo admits of the following diſtinction: It is ſaid to be *proper*, when it is a true pericarpium formed of a germen; and *improper*, when it is formed from other parts of the fructification; as in roſa, juniperus, &c. A large ſucculent calyx becomes a berry; and in juniperus, the 3 petals become the umbilicus; in poterium the berry is formed of the tube of the corolla; in fragaria, &c. it is formed of the top of the receptacle; in rubus, &c. it is formed from a ſeed, which is the receptacle of the berry; in ruſcus, &c. it is incloſed within and is a part of the nectary. The berry is commonly either round or oval, and is frequently furniſhed with an umbilicus, as in ribes, &c. it does not naturally

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Sideroxylum, Rhamnus, Arduina, Ellisia, Phylica, Bladhia, and Fragræa. Polypetalous, viz. Ceanothus, Byttneria, Myrsine, Celastrus, Euonymus, Diosma, Brunia, Itea, Galax, Cedrela, Mangifera, Hirtella, Ribes, Gronovia, Hedera, Vitis, Lagœtia, Sauvagesia, Claytonia, Achyranthes, Roridula, Kunhia, Plectronia, Cyrilla, Aquilicia, Heliconia, Carissa, Cleosia, Calodendrum, Chenolea, and Corynocarpus. 7. Incomplete flowers, viz. Illecebrum, Glaux, and Thesium. 8. Such as have lobes of the corollæ bent obliquely to the right, viz. Rauvolfia, Cerbera, Vinca, Gardenia, Nerium, Plumeria, Echites, Cameraria, and Tabernæmontana. II. Digynia contains, 75 genera, distinguished into, 1. Such as have the lobes of the corollæ bent obliquely to the right, viz. Periploca, Cynanchum, Apocynum, Asclepias, Linconia, and Stapelia. 2. Monospermous, viz. Herniaria, Chenopodium, Beta, Salsola, Anabasis, Cressa, Gomphrena, Steris, Bosea, and Ulmus. 3. Polyspermous, viz. Nama, Hydrolea, Heuchera, Swertia, Schrebera, Velezia, Gentiana, Bumalda, Coprosma, Cussonia, Melondinus, Russelia, and Vahlia. 4. Gymnodispermous, with a simple umbel, viz. Phyllis, Eryngium, and Hydrocotyle. 5. Gymnodispermous with an universal umbel and partial involucrum, viz. Sanicula, Astrantia, Bupleurum, Echinophora, Tordylium, Caucalis, Artedia, Daucus, Ammi, Bunium, Conium, Selinum, Athamanta, Peucedanum, Crithmum, Hasselquistia, Cachrys, Ferula, Laserpitium, Heracleum, Ligusticum, Angelica, Sium, Sison, Bubon, Cuminum, and Oenanthe. 6. Gymnodispermous, with only one partial umbel, viz. Phellandrium, Cicuta, Æthusa, Coriandrum, Scandix, Chærophyllum, Imperatoria, and Seseli. 7. Gymnodispermous without any involucrum, viz. Thapsia, Pastinaca, Smyrnium, Anethum, Carum, Pimpinelle, Apium, and Ægopodium. III. Trigynia, 17 genera, viz. Rhus, Viburnum, Cassine, Sambuchus, Spathelia, Staphylea, Tamarix, Turnera, Telephium, Corrigiola, Pharnaceum, Alcine, Drypis, Basella, Sarothra, Xylophylla, and Semicarpus. IV. Tetragynia, 2 genera, viz. Parnassia, and Evolvulus. V. Pentagynia, 10 genera, viz. Aralia, Mahernia, Statice, Linum, Aldrovanda, Drosera, Crassula, Sibbaldia, Gisekia, and Commersonia. VI. Polygynia, 1 genus, viz. Myosorus.

(181.) Class VI. Hexandria. Ord. I. Monogynia, contains 62 genera, distinguished into 1 Such as have trifid corollæ, and a calyx, viz. Bromelia, Tillandsia, Burmannia, Tradescantia, Bursera, Licuala, and Lachenalia. 2. Such as have monophyllous spatha, viz. Pontederea, Hæmanthus, Galanthus, Leucoium, Tulbagia, Narcissus, Pancratium, Duroia, and Nandina. 3. Such as are hexapetalous and naked, viz. Crinum, Amaryllis, Bulbocodium, Aphyllanthes, Allium, Lilium, Fritillaria, Uvularia, Gloriosa, Tulipa, Erythronium, Albuca, Ornithogalum, Scilla, Hypoxis, Cyanella, Asphodelus, Anthericum, Leontice, Dracena, Asparagus, Ehrharta, Massonia, Phormium, and Pollia. 4. Monopetalous and naked, viz. Convallaria, Polyanthes, Hyacinthus, Aletris, Yucca, Aloe, Agave, Alstroemeria, Capura, and Hemerocallis. 5. Such as have a calyx, but the corollæ not trifid, viz. Acorus, Orontium, Calamus, Juncus, Achras, Richardia, Prinos, Berberis, Loranthus, Frankenia, Hillia, Peplis, and Canaria. II. Digynia, contains 4 genera, viz. Atraphaxis, Oryza, Falkia, and Gahnia. III. Trigynia, 10 genera, viz. Flagellaria, Rumex, Scheuchzeria, Triglochin, Melanthium, Medeola, Urillium, Colchicum, Helonias, and Wurmbea. IV. Tetragynia, one genus, viz. Petiveria. V. Polygynia, one genus, viz. Alisma.

(182.) Class VII. Heptandria. Order I. Monogynia, contains 3 genera, viz. Trientalis, Disandra, and Æsculus. II. Digynia, one genus, viz. Limeum. III. Tetragynia, two genera, viz. Saururus, and Aponogeton. IV. Heptagynia, one genus, viz. Septas.

(183.) Class VIII. Octandria. Order I. Monogynia, contains 31 genera, viz. Tropæolum, Osbeckia, Rhexia, Oenothera, Gaura, Epilobium, Melicocca, Grislea, Amyris, Allophylus, Combretum, Fuchsia, Ximenia, Mimusops, Jambolifera, Memecylon, Lawsonia, Vaccinium, Erica, Daphne, Dirca, Gnidia, Stellera, Passerina, Lachnæa, Antichorus, Chlora, Dodonæa, Ophira, Guarea, and Bæckea. II. Digynia, 5 genera, viz. Galenia, Weinmania, Moehringia, Schmidelia, and Codia. III. Trigynia, 5 genera, viz. Polygonum, Coccoloba, Paulinia, Cardiospermum, and Sapindus. IV. Tetragynia, 4 genera, viz. Paris, Adoxa, Elatine, and Haloragis.

(184.) Class IX. Enneandria. Order I. Monogynia, contains 3 genera, viz. Laurus, Tinus, and Cassyta. II. Trigynia, one genus, viz. Rheum. III. Hexagynia, one genus, viz. Butomus.

(185.) Class X. Decandria. Ord. I. Monogynia, contains 56 genera, distinguished into, 1. Such as have declined stamina, viz. Sophora, Anagyris, Cercis, Bauhinia, Parkinsonia, Hymenæa, Cassia, Poinciana, Cæsalpinia, Guilandina, Guaiacum, Cynometra, Anacardium, Swietenia, and Dictamnus. 2. Such as have erect stamina, viz. Ruta, Toluifera, Hæmatoxylum, Adenanthera, Melia, Trichilia, Zygophyllum, Quassia, Fagonia, Tribulus, Thyrallis, Murraya, Monotropa, Justicua, Limonia, Melastoma, Kalmia, Ledum, Quisqualis, Dais, Bergera, Bucida, Copaifera, Samyda, Rhododendron, Andromeda, Epigæa, Gualtheria, Arbutus, Clethra, Pyrola, Prosopis, Heisteria, Chalcas, Codon, Styrax, Turræa, Dionæa, Ekebergia, Inocarpus, and Myroxylon. II. Digynia, contains 12 genera, viz. Royena, Hydrangea, Cunonia, Chrysosplenium, Saxifraga, Tiarella, Metella, Scleranthus, Trianthema, Gypsophila, Saponaria, and Dianthus. III. Trigynia, 12 genera, viz. Cucubalus, Silene, Stellaria, Arenaria, Cherleria, Garidella, Malpighia, Banisteria, Triopteris, Erythroxylon, Hirtæa, and Deutzia. IV. Pentagynia, 14 genera, viz. Averrhoa, Spondias, Cotyledon, Sedum, Penthorum, Oxalis, Suriana, Lychnis, Agrostemma, Cerastium; Spergula, Grielum, Forskohlea, and Bergia. V. Decagynia, 2 genera, viz. Neurada, and Phytolacca.

(186.) Class XI. Dodecandria. Ord. I. Monogynia, contains 25 genera, viz. Asarum, Gethyllis, Bocconia, Rhizophora, Blakea, Garcinia, Winterana, Cratæva, Triumfetta, Bastia, Peganum, Halesia, Nitraria, Portulaca, Hudsonia, Lythrum,

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Lythrum, Ginora, Decumaria, Befaria, Vatica, Apactis, Canella, Dodecas, Eurya, and Ariftotelia. II. Digynia, 2 genera, viz. Heliocarpus, and Agrimonia. III. Trigynia, 5 genera, viz. Refeda, Euphorbia, Pallafia, Tacea, and Vifnea. IV. Pentagynia, one genus, viz. Glinus. V. Dodecagynia, one genus, viz. Sempervivum.

(187.) Class XII. Icosandria. Ord. I. Monogynia, contains 11 genera, viz. Cactus, Eugenia, Philadelphus, Pfidium, Myrtus, Punica, Amygdalus, Prunus, Plinia, Chryfobalanus, and Sonneratia. II. Digynia, one genus, viz. Crataegus. III. Trigynia, two genera, viz. Sorbus, and Sefuvium. IV. Pentagynia, 6 genera, viz. Mefpilus, Pyrus, Tetragonia, Mefembryanthemum, Aizoon, and Spiræa. V. Polygynia, 9 genera, viz. Rofa, Rubus, Fragaria, Potentilla, Tormentilla, Geum, Dryas, Comarum, and Calycanthus.

(188.) Class XIII. Polyandria. Ord. I. Monogynia, contains 42 genera, diftinguifhed into, 1. Such as have fcarce any ftyle, viz. Marcgravia, Rheedia, Actæa, Sanguinaria, Podopyllum, Chelidonium, Papaver, Argemone, Muntingia, Cambogia, Sarracena, and Nymphæa. 2. Such as have a ftyle of fome length, viz. Bixa, Sloanea, Capparis, Mammea, Ochna, Calophyllum. Grias, Tilia, Laetia, Elæocarpus, Decythis, Vateria, Lagerftroemia, Thea, Caryophyllus, Mentzellia, Delima, Ciftus, Prockia, Corchorus, Seguieria, Loofa, Trewia, Trilix, Alftonia, Cleyera, Myriftica, Sparrmania, Ternftromia, and Vallea. II. Digynia, 4 genera, viz. Pæonia, Calligonum, Curatella, and Fothergilla. III. Trigynia, 2 genera, viz. Delphinium, and Aconitum. IV. Tetragynia, 3 genera, viz. Tetracera, Caryocar, and Cimicifuga. V. Pentagynia, 4 genera, viz. Aquilegia, Nigella, Reaumuria, and Brathys. VI. Hexagynia, one genus, viz. Stratiotes. VII. Polygynia, 21 genera, viz. Dillenia, Liriodendron, Magnolia, Michelia, Uvaria, Annona, Anemone, Atragene, Clematis, Thalictrum, Adonis, Illicium, Ranunculus, Trollius, Ifopyrum, Helleborus, Caltha, Hydraftis, Houtuynia, Unona, and Wintera.

(189.) Class XIV. Didynamia. Ord. I. Gymnospermia, contains 34 genera, diftinguifhed into, 1. Such as have the calyx quinquefid, and nearly equal, viz. Ajuga, Teucrium, Satureja, Thymbra, Hyffopus, Nepeta, Lavandula, Betonica, Sideritis, Mentha, Glechoma, Perilla, Lamium, Galeopfis, Stachys, Ballota, Marrubium, Leonurus, Phlomis, and Moluccella. 2. Such as have the calyx bilabiate, viz. Clinopodium, Origanum, Thymus, Melifla, Dracocephalon, Horminum, Melittis, Ocymum, Trichoftema, Scutellaria, Prunella, Cleonia, Prafium, and Phryma. II. Angiospermia, contains 69 genera, diftinguifhed into, 1. Such as have a fimple ftigma, and perfonate corollæ viz. Bartfia, Rhinanthus, Euphrafia, Melampyrum, Lathræa, Schwalbea, Tozzia, Pedicularis, Gerardia, Chelone, Gefneria, Antirrhinum, and Cymbaria. 2. A fimple ftigma and fpreading corollæ, viz. Craniolaria, Martynia, Torenia, Scrophularia, Celfia, Digitalis, Bignonia, Citharexylum, Halleria, Crefcentia, Gmelina, Petrea, Lantana, Cornutia, Lœfelia, Capraria, Selago, Hebenftretia, Erinus, Buchnera, Browallia, Linnæa, Sibthorpia, Limofella, Hemimeris, Dombeya, Caftilleja, Millingtonia, Thumbergia, and Amafonia. 3. With a double ftigma, viz. Stemodia, Obolaria, Orobanche, Dodartia, Lippia, Sefamum, Mimulus, Ruellia, Barleria, Duranta, Ovieda, Volkameria, Clerodendron, Vitex, Bontia, Columnea, Acanthus, Pedalium, Avicennia, Vandelia, Manulea, Befleria, Lindernia, Premna, and Hyobanche. 4. Polypetalous, viz. Melianthus.

(190.) Class XV. Tetradynamia. Ord. I. Siliculosa, contains 14 genera, viz. Myagrum, Vella, Anaftatica, Subularia, Draba, Lepidium, Thlafpi, Cochlearia, Iberis, Alyffum, Peltaria, Clypeola, Bifcutella, and Lunaria. II. Siliquosa, 8 genera, viz. Ricotia, Dentaria, Cardamine, Sifymbrium, Eryfimum, Cheiranthus, Heliophila, Hefperis, Arabis, Turritis, Braffica, Sinapis, Raphanus, Bunias, Iftis, Crambe, Cleome, and Chamira.

(191.) Class XVI. Monadelphia. Ord. I. Triandria contains 3 genera, viz. Aphyteja, Galaxia, and Hydnora. II. Pentandria 5; viz. Waltheria, Lerchea, Hermannia, Melochia, and Symphonia. III. Octandria, one genus; viz. Aytonia. IV. Enneandria, one genus; viz. Dryandra. V. Decandria, 3 genera; viz. Conarus, Geranium, and Hugonia. VI. Endecandria, one genus; viz. *Brownea*. VII. Dodecandria, one genus; viz. Pentapetes. VIII. Polyandria, 21 genera; viz. Bombyx, Sida, Adanfonia, Aithæa, Alcea, Malva, Lavatera, Malope, Urena, Goffypium, Hibifcus, Stewartia, Camellia, Morifonia, Mefua, Malachra, Gordonia, Guftavia, Carolinea, Barringtonia, and Solandra.

(192.) Class XVII. Diadelphia. Ord. I. Pentandria, contains one genus; viz. Monnieria. II. Hexandria, 2 genera; viz. Funaria, and Saraca. III. Octandria, 3; viz. Polygala, Securidaca, and Dalbergia. IV. Decandria, 50 genera, diftinguifhed into, 1. Such as have monadelphous filaments: viz. Niffolia, Erythrina, Pifcidia, Borbonia, Spartium, Geniffa, Afpalathus, Amorpha, Crotolaria, Ononis, Anthyllis, Ebenus, Abrus, Pterocarpus, Ulex, Arachis, and Lupinus. 2. Such as have diadelphous filaments and a downy ftigma; viz. Phafeolus, Dolichus, Glycine, Clitoria, Pifum, Orobus, Lathyrus, Vicia, Cicer, and Ervum. 3. Such as have diadelphous filaments, bilabiate calyces, and the ftigma not downy; viz. Cytifus, Geoffroya, Robinia, Colutea, Glycirrhiza, and Coronilla. 4. Such as have diadelphous filaments, ftigmata not downy, and calyces not bilabiate; viz. Ornithopus, Hippocrepis, Scoriurus, Hedyfarum, Æfchynomene, Indigofera, Galega, Phaca, Aftragalus, Biferrula, Pforalea, Trifolium, Lotus, Liparia, Trigonella, Medicago, and Mullera.

(193.) Class XVIII. Polyadelphia. Ord. I. Pentandria, contains two genera; viz. Theobroma, and Abroma. II. Dodecandria, one genus; viz. Monfonia. III. Icosandria, one genus; viz. Citrus. IV. Polyandria, 8 genera; viz. Hypericum, Afcyrum, Hopea, Symplocos, Melaleuca, Durio, Munchhaufia, and Glabraria.

(194.) Class XIX. Syngenesia. Ord. I. Polygamia æqualis, contains 42 genera, diftinguifhed into, 1. Such as have ligulate compound

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flowers; viz. Geropogon, Tragopogon, Scorzonera, Picris, Sonchus, Lactuca, Chondrilla, Prenanthes, Leontodon, Hieracium, Crepis, Andriala, Hyoseris, Seriola, Hypochæris, Lapsana, Catananche, Cichorium, and Scolymus. 2. Such as have tubulose compound flowers; viz. Arctium, Serratula, Carduus, Cnicus, Onopordon, Cynara, Carlina, Carthamus, Bidens, Cacalia, Atractylis, Eupatorium, Ageratum, Ethulia, Staehelina, Chrysocoma, Calea, Tarchonanthus, Pteronia, Athanasia, Spilanthus, Santolina, and Barnadesia. II. Polygamia superflua, 38 genera, distinguished into, 1. Tubulose; viz. Tanacetum, Artemisia, Gnaphalium, Xeranthemum, Carpesium, Baccharis, Cotula, and Conyza. 2. Radiate; viz. Erigeron, Tussilago, Senecio, After, Solidago, Inula, Cineraria, Arnica, Doronicum, Perdicium, Helenium, Bellis, Leysera, Tagetes, Pectis, Chrysanthemum, Matricaria, Anacyclus, Anthemis, Achillea, Tridax, Zinnia, Verbesina, Sigesbeckia, Bupthalmum, Eclipta, Bellium, Amelius, Unxia, and Mutisia. III. Polygamia frustranea, 9 genera, all radiate; viz. Helianthus, Rudbeckia, Coreopsis, Gorteria, Osmites, Zoegea, Centaurea, Sclerocarpus, and Didelta. IV. Polygamia necessaria, 14 genera, most of which are radiate; viz. Milleria, Silphium, Caryfogonum, Melampodium, Calendula, Arctotis, Osteospermum, Othonna, Polymnia, Eriocephalus, Filago, Micropus, Baltimora, and Hippia. V. Polygamia segregata, 7 genera, distinguished into, 1. Such as have 4 floſculi in each partial calyx; viz. Elephantopus, and Oedera. 2. With many floſculi; viz. Sphæranthus. 3. With one floſculus; viz. Echinops, Gundelia, and Stoebe. 4. With 3 floſculi; viz. Jungia. VI. Monogamia, 7 genera; viz. Strumpfia, Seriphium, Corymbium, Jasione, Lobelia, Viola, and Impatiens.

(195.) Class XX. Gynandria. Ord. I. Diandria, contains 11 genera; viz. Orchis, Satyrium, Ophrys, Serapias, Limodorum, Arethusa, Cypripedium, Epidendrum, Gunnera, Forstea, and Disa. II. Triandria, 4 genera; viz. Sisyrinchium, Ferraria, Stilago, and Salacia. III. Tetrandria, one genus; viz. Nepenthes. IV. Pentandria, 3 genera; viz. Passiflora, Gluta, and Ayenia. V. Hexandria, 2 genera; viz. Aristolochia, and Pistia. VI. Octandria, one genus; viz. Scopolia. VII. Decandria, two genera; viz. Helicteres, and Kleinhovia. VIII. Dodecandria, one genus; viz. Cytinus. IX. Polyandria, 8 genera; viz. Grewia, Xylopia, Arum, Dracontium, Calla, Pothos, Ambrosinia, and Zostera.

(196.) Class XXI. Monoecia. Ord. I. Monandria, contains 10 genera; viz. Zanichellia, Ceratocarpus, Cynomorium, Elaterium, Chara, Ægopricon, Artocarpus, Nipa Casuarina, and Phyllachne. II. Diandria, 2 genera; viz. Lemna, and Anguria. III. Triandria, 12 genera; viz. Omphalea, Typha, Sparganium, Zea, Coix, Tripsacum, Olyra, Carex, Axyris, Tragia, Hernandia, and Phyllanthus. IV. Tetrandria, 9 genera; viz. Centella, Betula, Buxus, Urtica, Morus, Cicca, Serpicula, Littorella, and Aucuba. V. Pentandria, 8 genera; viz. Xanthium, Ambrosia, Parthenium, Iva, Leea, Amaranthus, Nepaelium, and Clibadium. VI. Hexandria, two genera; viz. Zizania, and Pharus. VII. Heptandria, one genus; viz. Guettarda. VIII. Polyandria, 13 genera; viz. Ceratophillum, Myriophillum, Sagittaria, Begonia, Theligonum, Poterium, Quercus, Juglans, Fagus, Carpinus, Corylus, Platanus, and Liquidambar. IX. Monadelphia, 15 genera; viz. Hura, Pinus, Cupressus, Thuja, Acalypha, Dalechampia, Plukenetia, Cupania, Croton, Ricinus, Jatropha, Sterculia, Hippomane, Stillingia, and Gnetum. X. Syngenesia, 6 genera; viz. Trichosanthes, Momordica, Cucumis, Cucurbita, Sicyos, and Bryonia. XI. Gynandria, 2 genera; viz. Andrachne, and Agyneia.

(197.) Class XXII. Dioecia. Ord. I. Monandria, contains 2 genera; viz. Najas, and Pandanus. II. Diandria, 3 genera; viz. Vallisneria, Salix, and Cecropia. III. Triandria, 6 genera; viz. Empetrum, Osyris, Caturus, Excoecaria, Restio, and Maba. IV. Tetrandria, 7 genera; viz. Viscum, Hippophae, Myrica, Trophis, Batis, Montinia, and Brucea. V. Pentandria, 12 genera; viz. Pistacia, Zanthoxylum, Aftronium, Irefine, Antidesma, Spinacia, Acnida, Cannabis, Humulus, Zanonia, Fewillea, and Canarium. VI. Hexandria, 4 genera; viz. Tamus, Smilax, Rajania, and Dioscorea. VII. Octandria, 3 genera; viz. Populus, Rhodiola, and Magaritaria. VIII. Enneandria, 2 genera; viz. Mercurialis, and Hydrocharis. IX. Decandria, 4 genera; viz. Carica, Kiggelaria, Coriaria, and Schinus. X. Dodecandria, 3 genera; viz. Menispermum, Datisca, and Euclea. XI. Icosandria, one genus; viz. Flacourtia. XII. Polyandria, two genera; viz. Cliffortia, and Hedycaria. XIII. Monadelphia, 6 genera; viz. Taxus, Juniperus, Ephedra, Cissampelos, Napæa, and Adelia. XIV. Syngenesia, one genus; viz. Ruscus. XV. Gynandria, one genus; viz. Clutia.

(198.) Class XXIII. Polygamia. Ord. I. Monoecia, contains 24 genera, distinguished into, 1. Polygamous by male hermaphrodites, and female hermaphrodites; one genus; viz. Musa. 2. By hermaphrodites and males; 22 genera; viz. Ophioxylon, Celtis, Veratrum, Fusanus, Andropogon, Holcus, Apluda, Ischæmum, Cenchrus, Ægilops, Valantia, Parietaria, Atriplex, Brabeium, Acer, Gouania, Solandra, Terminalia, Clusia, Hermas, Spinifex, and Manisurus. 3. By hermaphrodites and females; one genus; viz. Mimosa. II. Dioecia, 10 genera; distinguished into, 1. Such as are polygamous by hermaphrodites and females; viz. Fraxinus, and Gleditsia. 2. By hermaphrodites and males; viz. Diospyrus, Nyssa, and Pisonia. 3. By androgynes and males; five genera; viz. Anthospermum, Arctopus, Panax, Chrysitrix, and Stilbe. III. Trioecia, comprehending such plants as have the polygamy on 3 distinct plants; two genera; viz. Ficus, and Ceratonia.

(199.) Class XXIV. Cryptogamia. Ord. I. Filices, contains 18 genera; viz. Cycas, Zamia, Equisetum, Onoclea, Ophioglossum, Osmunda, Acrosticum, Pteris, Blechnum, Hemionitis, Lonchitis, Asplenium, Polypodium, Adianthum, Trichomanes, Marsilea, Pilularia, and Isoetes. II. Musci, 11 genera: viz. Lycopodium, Porella, Sphagnum, Phascum, Splachnum, Polytrichum, Mnium, Bryum, Hypnum, Fontinalis, and Buxbaumia. III. Algæ, 12 genera; viz. Jungermannia,

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mannia, Targionia, Marchantia, Blafia, Riccia, Anthoceros, Lichen, Tremella, Fucus, Ulva, Conferva, and Byſſus. IV. FUNGI, 10 genera; viz. Agaricus, Boletus, Hydnum, Phallus, Clathrus, Helvella, Peziza, Clavaria, Lycoperdon, and Mucor.

(200.) APPENDIX. Under the Order PALMÆ, are contained 9 genera; viz. Chamærops, Boraſſus, Corypha, Cocos, Phœnix, Elais, Areca, Elate, and Caryota.

(201.) EXPLANATION *of* PLATE XXIV.—Roots. *Fig.* 1. A Squamoſe Bulb. 2. A Solid Bulb. 3. Tranſverſe Section of a Tunicate Bulb. 4. A Pendulous Tuberoſe Root of the Filipendula. 5. A Ramoſe Root. 6. A Fuſiform Root. 7. A Repent Root.—TRUNKS. *Fig.* 1. A Squamoſe Culm. 2. A Repent Stem. 3. A Frons. 4. A Voluble Stem. 5. An Articulate Culm. 6. A Scapus. 7. A Dichotomous Stem. 8. A Brachiate Stem.—FULCRA. *Fig.* 1. *a*, A Cirrhus; *b*, Stipulæ; *c*, Concave Glandules. 2. *a*, Pedicellate Glandules. 3. *a*, Bracteæ differing from the Leaves; *b*, The Leaves. 4. *a*, Simple Spines. *b*, A Triple Spine. 5. *a*, Simple Aculei; *b*, Triple Aculei, or Forks. 6. *a*, Oppoſite Leaves; *b*, The Axillæ.—SIMPLE LEAVES. *Fig.* 1. Orbiculate. 2. Subrotund. 3. Ovate. 4. Oval. 5. Oblong. 6. Lanceolate. 7. Linear. 8. Subulate. 9. Reniform. 10. Cordate. 11. Lunulate. 12. Triangular. 13. Saggittate. 14. Cordato-ſagittate. 15. Haſtate. 16. Fiſſa. 17. Trilobe. 18. Fræmorſe. 19. Lobate. 20. Quinquangular. 21. Eroſe. 22. Palmate. 23. Pinnatifid. 24. Laciniate. 25. Sinuate. 26. Dentato-ſinuate. 27. Retrorſum-ſinuate. 28. Partite. 29. Repand. 30. Dentate. 31. Serrate. 32. Duplicato-ſerrate. 33. Duplicato-crenate. 34. Cartilagineous. 35. Acutely crenate. 36. Obtuſely crenate. 37. Plicate. 38. Crenate. 39. Criſp. 40. Obtuſe. 41. Acute. 42. Acuminate. 43. Obtuſe with an acumen. 44. Acutely emarginate. 45. Cuneiform emarginate. 46. Retuſe. 47. Piloſe. 48. Tomentoſe. 49. Hiſpid. 50. Ciliate. 51. Rugoſe. 52. Venoſe. 53. Nervoſe. 54. Papilloſe. 55. Linguiform. 56. Acinaciform. 57. Dolabriform. 58. Deltoid. 59. Triquetrous. 60. Canaliculate. 61. Sulcate. 62. Teretes. 63. Parabolic. 64. Spatulate.

(202.) EXPLANATION *of* PLATE XXV.—COMPOUND LEAVES. *Fig.* 1. Binate. 2. Ternate, with folioles ſeſſile. 3. Ternate, with the folioles petiolate. 4. Digitate. 5. Pedate. 6. Pinnate, with an odd one. 7. Pinnate abrupt. 8. Pinnate alternately. 9. Pinnate interruptedly. 10. Pinnate cirrhoſe. 11. Biternate. 12. Bipinnate. 13. Triternate. 14. Tripinnate abrupt. 15. Tripinnate with an odd one.—DETERMINATE LEAVES. *Fig.* 1. *a*, Inflex; *b*, Erect; *c*, Patent; *d*, Horizontal; *e*, Reclined; *f*, Revolute. 2. *a*, Seminal; *b*, Cauline; *c*, Rameous; *d*, Floral. 3. *a*, Peltate; *b*, Petiolate; *c*, Seſſile; *d*, Decurrent; *e*, Amplexicaul; *f*, Perfoliate: *g*, Connate; *h*, Vaginant. 4. *a*, Articulate; *b*, Stellate; *c*, Quartern; *d*, Oppoſite; *e*, Alternate; *f*, Aceroſe; *g*, Imbricate; *h*, Faſciculate.—FOLIATION. *Fig.* 1. Convolute. 2. Involute. 3. Revolute. 4. Conduplicate. 5. Equitant. 6. Imbricate. 7. Obvolute. 8. Plicate. 9. Convoluta (more than one leaf convolute). 10. Involute oppoſite. 11. Involute alternate. 12. Revolute oppoſite. 13. Equitant ancipit, with two prominent angles. 14. Equitant triquetrous, forming a triangle.—MISCELLANEOUS. *Fig.* 1. A Corymbus. 2. An Arillus exemplified in the Fruit of the *Euonymus*; *a*, the Valvules of the Capſule; *b*, a Seed; *c*, the Arillus opened to diſcover the Seed. 3. A Verticillus. 4. *a*, The Horned Nectaria in *Aconitum*; *b*, two Peduncles or Styles that ſupport them. 5. A paleaceous Receptacle of a compound Flower ſhewn in *Rudbeckia*; *b*, the tubuloſe Florets of the Diſk; *c*, the ligulate Corollulæ of the Radius; *d*, a ligulate Corollula fallen off. 6. *a*, A Spatha; *b*, a Spadix. 7. A Racemus. 8. A tubuloſe Floret of a compound Flower. 9. A monopetalous hypocrateriform Corolla; *a*, the Tube; *b*, the Limb. 10. A Nectarium that crowns the Corolla ſhewn in the Cup of a *Narciſſus*; *a*, the Cup. 11. A Spike. 12. A calycine Nectarium ſhewn in the Flower of a *Tropæolum*; *a*, the Nectarium. 13. A Nectarium of ſingular conſtruction ſhewn in a Flower of the *Parnaſſia*; *a*, five heart-ſhaped Nectaria terminated by Styles or Threads, each of which is crowned with a little Ball. 14. A Cyma of the *Lauruſtinus*. 15. A Panicle.

SECT. VIII. *Of the* SPECIES *of* PLANTS.

(203.) The genera include a great number of ſpecies, diſtinguiſhed by the ſpecific difference of the root, the trunk, the branches, the leaves, &c. yet all agreeing in the eſſential generic character. They are called by trivial names, expreſſive of the difference or ſome other circumſtance, added to the generic name. To inveſtigate the ſpecies, therefore, it is neceſſary to underſtand thoſe differences, and to be acquainted with the names by which they are expreſſed. Several of theſe have been already incidentally explained; but for a complete enumeration, the reader muſt have recourſe to the GLOSSARY. To illuſtrate the manner in which thoſe terms are uſed, we ſhall here give a few examples.

(204.) Claſs II. DIANDRIA. Order MONOGYNIA. Genus VERONICA, or SPEEDWELL. Species *Veronica arvenſis* has ſolitary flowers; cut, ſeſſile, and cordated leaves. *Veronica agreſtis* has ſolitary flowers: cut, cordated, and petiolated leaves.

(205.) Claſs XVI. MONADELPHIA. Order POLYGYNIA. Genus MALVA, the MALLOW. Species *Malva ſpicata* has tomentoſe, crenated, and cordated leaves, and oblong hairy ſpicæ. *Malva ſylveſtris* has an erect, herbaceous ſtalk, with acute, ſeven-lobed leaves, and hairy pedunculi and petioli.

(206.) Claſs XIX. SYNGENESIA. Order POLYGAMIA ÆQUALIS. Genus CARDUUS, the THISTLE. Species *Carduus helenioides*, or *melancholy thiſtle*, has lanceolated, teethed, amplexicaule leaves; with unequal, ciliated ſmall ſpines.

(207.) Claſs XXIV. CRYPTOGAMIA. Order FILICES. GENUS ASPLENIUM, or MAIDENHAIR. Species *Aſplenium trichomanes*, has a pinnated frons; the pinnæ are roundiſh, and crenated.

(208.) In general it may be obſerved, that *ſpecific* differences take their riſe from any circumſtance, wherein plants of the ſame genus diſagree; provided ſuch circumſtance is conſtant, and not liable to alteration by culture, or other accidents. Hence Linnæus aſſerts the ſpecies to be as numerous, as there were different forms of vegetables produced

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at the creation: and conſiders all caſual differences as varieties of the ſame ſpecies.

(209.) Mr Lee remarks, that the root often affords a real ſpecific difference, and is ſometimes the chief diſtinction, as in *Scilla*, where the ſpecies are ſcarce to be diſtinguiſhed, but by the bulbs being tunicate, ſolid, or ſquamoſe; but as acceſs cannot always be conveniently had to the root, it is better to fix on ſome other ſpecific difference. The trunk, the ſtipulæ, the hybernacles, the buds, the inflorescence, and the fructification, afford much more certain and deciſive marks of diſtinction; as the attentive reader will obſerve in the deſcriptions of the various ſpecies of plants, given under their reſpective genera in the courſe of this work.

(210.) We ſhall conclude this ſection with a complete deſcription of a plant, reduced to its claſs, order, genus, and ſpecies.

(211.) RHEUM PALMATUM, the *True Rhubarb*. See *Plate* XXV. The flower of this plant has no calyx. The COROLLA, *d d*, conſiſts of one petal, narrower at the baſe, nor perforated, and divided in the margin into ſix obtuſe ſegments, one leſs and one larger alternately; the petal is marceſcent. The STAMINA, *e e*, conſiſt of 9 capillary filaments, inſerted into the corolla, and about the ſame length with it. The *antheræ* are didymous, oblong, and obtuſe. The PISTILLUM, *f*, has a ſhort three-ſided germen. It can hardly be ſaid to have any ſtyli; but has 3 reflected plumoſe ſtigmata. The PERICARPIUM is wanting. Each flower contains but one large, three-ſided, acute SEED *g*, with a membranaceous edge. The number of *Stamina* determines this plant to belong to the ENNEANDRIA *Claſs*; and the number of *Stigmata* fixes its *Order* to be TRIGYNIA. The other parts of the above deſcription clearly demonſtrate the genus to be the RHEUM or *Rhubarb*, and ſufficiently diſtinguiſh it from the Laurus, Tipus, Caſſyta, and Butomus, the only other genera belonging to this claſs. The SPECIFIC mark is taken from the leaves, which are PALMATED, *a*, and ſharp and tapering at the points, *b*; none of the other ſpecies having palmated leaves.

SECT. IX. *Of the* VARIETIES *that occur in the* SPECIES *of* PLANTS.

(212.) The collecting of VARIETIES, ſays Mr Lee, under their proper ſpecies is no leſs neceſſary than that of collecting the ſeveral ſpecies under their proper genus. Theſe varieties, which are only incidental, are grounded on the circumſtances of ſex, magnitude, time of flowering, colour, ſcent, taſte, virtues, uſes, duration, multitude, pubeſcence, leaves, and monſtrous flowers.

(213.) The ſex of plants in the claſs *Diœcia* affords a variety of all others the moſt natural; for the male and female flowers in this claſs being upon different plants, theſe laſt are diſtinguiſhed by the fructification, though the ſpecies is the ſame in both. But this kind of variety holds only in the claſs Diœcia; for, in the genera that belong to any of the hermaphrodite claſſes, the ſame circumſtance, when it occurs, becomes a ſpecific diſtinction. Differences in magnitude, time of flowering, ſcent, taſte, virtues, duration, and multitude, are all very uncertain marks of *ſpecific* difference, but very proper to conſtitute *varieties*.

(214.) Colour is ſo very changeable in the ſame ſpecies of plants, that it can only afford a diſtinction of varieties. The moſt uſual change is from blue or red to white; and the whole plant is often found to vary in colour. But the trifling diſtinctions which have been made by floriſts, in ſome genera, from the colours of the corollæ, and to which they have given very pompous names, (ſuch as, *Phœbus*, *Aſtræa*, *Triumphus Floræ*, *Splendor Aſiæ*, &c.) are held by Linnæus to be below the notice of the botaniſt; and he warns him from the infection of ſuch idle amuſement. He alſo diſapproves of the diſtinctions made by gardeners with regard to the taſte of fruits, as too minute for the attention of the botaniſt, however uſeful for the purpoſes of gardening.

(215.) Leaves not only furniſh elegant ſpecific diſtinctions, but alſo, from their luxuriance, afford many diſtinctions of varieties in the ſame ſpecies. Thus *oppoſite* leaves will become *terni*, *quaterni*, or *quini*; *digitate* leaves will gain an addition of one or more *foliolæ*: broad leaves will vary to narrow leaves; and bullate, criſp, and curled leaves frequently occur. In *tanacetum mentha*, and other ſcented plants, when the leaves are curled, the ſcent is obſerved to be heightened by the criſpature.

(216.) Monſtrous flowers, whether multiplicate, full, or proliferous, are only varieties from luxuriance; owing to change of ſoil, climate, &c. and would all return to their original conditions, if theſe were again changed. In like manner the improvements made in plants cultivated for ſale, are not to be eſteemed laſting; as they would run off, if the plants were left to themſelves in a poor ſoil, and their original wild qualities return.

(217.) HYBRID, or MULE plants, muſt alſo be ranked among varieties, whether occaſioned by accident, by the pollen of one plant falling upon the piſtilla of another, or reared by art; of which Linnæus gives many curious inſtances.

(218.) Varieties may generally be reduced under their ſpecies, by comparing the variable marks of the variety with the natural plant: but there are ſome which are attended with difficulty, and require judgment and experience: particularly in ſome ſpecies of Heleborus, Gentiana, Fumaria, Valeriana, Scorpiurus, and Medicago. In theſe two laſt there is a remarkable diverſity in the fruit of the individuals. In the *Medicago*, or *Snail trefoil*, in particular, the forms of the real ſnails, which nature has imitated in theſe plants, are ſcarce more diverſified, than the fruit of this mimic ſpecies ſo that the botaniſt, who is ſtudious of varieties, would find no end to his labour, were he to attempt to purſue nature through the various ſhapes ſhe has wantonly adopted. The whole order of the *Fungi* too, as Mr Lee obſerves, is ſtill a chaos; botaniſts not being yet able in theſe to decide what is a *ſpecies*, and what a *variety*.

PART II.

OF THE NATURAL METHOD OF CLASSIFICATION.

SECT. I. *Of the* NATURAL CLASSES *or* ORDERS.

(219.) Notwithſtanding the evident ſuperiority of the ſexual ſyſtem over all others, Linnæus and moſt other modern botaniſts are of opinion, that there

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there is a *natural method*, or nature's ſyſtem, which we ſhould diligently endeavour to find out. That this ſyſtem, ſay they, is no chimera, will appear particularly from hence, that all plants, of what order ſoever, ſhow an affinity to ſome others; and thus, not only the virtues of a great number of ſpecies may be aſcertained, but we may know with certainty how to find a proper ſuccedaneum for plants which cannot eaſily be had.—On theſe principles, Linnæus divides vegetables into 58 natural claſſes or orders: viz.

(220.) 1. PALMÆ. Theſe are perennial, and moſtly trees or ſhrubs. The roots form a maſs of fibres which are commonly ſimple and without ramifications. The ſtem is generally ſimple, without branches, cylindrical, and from 2 feet to 100 in height. It is compoſed of ſtrong longitudinal fibres. The leaves, which are a compoſition of a leaf and a branch, by Linnæus called *frondes*, are of different forms; being ſometimes ſhaped like an umbrella or fan; ſometimes ſingly or doubly winged; the ſmall or partial leaves, which are often 3 feet in length, being ranged alternately. The principal leaves are 6, 8, 10, or 12 feet long; the length varying according to the age and ſize. They are covered at firſt with a thick brown duſt, like thoſe of ferns. The baſe of the leaves frequently embraces the greater part of the ſtem. The flowers are male and female upon the ſame or different roots; except in ſtratiotes, which bears hermaphrodite flowers only; and palmetto, in which the flowers are hermaphrodite and male upon diſtinct roots. The flowers are all diſpoſed in a panicle, except in the hydrocharis, ſtratiotes, and vallisneria; in which they proceed ſingly from the angles of the leaves. The common calyx is a ſpatha with one or two valves. The ſpadix is generally branched. Each flower generally has a perianthium conſiſting of 3 leaves, ſmall and permanent. The petals are 3, of a ſubſtance like leather, and permanent. The flowers of zamia have no petals. The ſtamina are from 2 to 20, cohering ſlightly at their baſe. The ſeed-buds are from 1 to 3, placed in the middle, and ſupporting 3 ſhort ſtyles. The ſeed veſſel is generally a pulpy fruit, containing one cell filled with fibrous fleſh, and covered with a ſkin like leather. The ſeeds are from 1 to 3, in each fruit, of a hardy bony ſubſtance, round or oval, and attached to the bottom of the fruit. They are aſtringent.

(221.) 2. PIPERITÆ are moſtly herbaceous and perennial. The ſtalks of pothos creep along rocks and trees, into which they ſtrike root at certain diſtances. Their height is from 3 to 15 feet. The ſmell of many of them is extremely fetid. The flowers, however, of an Ethiopian dracunculus or arum, and the cover in which they are involved, are ſaid to emit a very fragrant odour.

(222.) 3. CALAMARIÆ. The baſe of the leaf, which embraces the ſtalk like a glove, is entire, and has no longitudinal aperture. The ſtalk is generally triangular, and without knots or joints. The roots of ſome are long and knotty; in others they are compoſed of fleſhy fibres which pierce deep into the grouud: and in others, of a bulb. The flowers are either hermaphrodite, or male and female upon the ſame root. The inflorescence is generally a ſpike; ſometimes a capitulum. The calyx is either a gluma or an amentum. The corolla is wanting. The filaments of the ſtamina are 3, ſhort, ſlender, and ſometimes briſtly. The antheræ are generally long, ſlender, and erect. The ſeed-bud is very ſmall, blunt, and ſometimes three-cornered. The ſtyle is thread-ſhaped, and of the length of the ſcaly calyx. The ſtigmata are generally ſlender, hairy, and ſometimes permanent.

(223.) 4. GRAMINA are moſtly annual or perennial herbs; ſome of them creep; others are erect. The roots, in the greateſt number, are creeping, and emit fibres from each knot or joint; in others they are ſimply branching and fibrous. The ſtems and branches are round. The leaves are ſimple, alternate, entire, very long, and commonly narrow. They form a ſort of ſheath, which ſurrounds the ſtem, and is generally cleft on one ſide through its whole length. The flowers are either hermaphrodite, male and female on the ſame root, or hermaphrodite and male on the ſame root. They proceed either ſingly from the ſheath of the leaves, or are formed into a panicle. From one to 6 ſcales ſupply the place of calyx and corolla. The ſtamina are generally 3, placed irregularly. The antheræ are long, furniſhed with two cells, and ſlightly attached to the filaments. The ſeed-bud is placed upon the ſame receptacle as the calyx, corolla, and ſtamina. The ſtyle is generally double, and crowned with a hairy ſtigma or ſummit. The ſeed-veſſel is wanting. The ſeeds are ſingle, oval, and attached below to the bottom of the flower.

(224.) 5. TRIPETALOIDEÆ have no very ſtriking characters, and are nearly allied to the graſſes. All the genera have not the circumſtance expreſſed in the title.

(225.) 6. ENSATÆ are nearly allied to the graſſes and lilaceous plants, and furniſh a beautiful collection of perennial herbs, of different heights, from one inch to 15 feet. The roots are fleſhy, and garniſhed with fibres; the ſtalks are ſimple, and commonly compreſſed on the ſides. The leaves are ſimple, alternate, entire, ſword-ſhaped, and form at their origin a ſheath which in the greateſt number is cleft through the whole length, except at the baſe, where it embraces the ſtalk like a ring. The flowers are hermaphrodite, and generally proceed from the ſummit of the ſtalks either ſingly, in an umbel, a ſpike, or a panicle. In pontederia they proceed from the angles of the leaves either ſingly or in an umbel. Moſt of them want the perianthium; the flowers burſt from a common ſpatha, which is frequently permanent. The petals are from one to 6: The ſtamina generally 3. The ſeed-bud is ſometimes above the flower, ſometimes below it. The ſtyle is generally ſingle, and crowned with a triple ſtigma. The ſeed-veſſel is a dry capſule, generally oblong, and opens at 3 valves, diſcovering the ſame number of cells, each incloſing a quantity of roundiſh ſeeds.

(226.) 7. ORCHIDEÆ. The roots of many of theſe plants are compoſed of one or more fleſhy tubercles, attached to the lower part of the ſtem, and ſending forth fibres from the top. Thoſe of orchis reſemble the ſcrotum in animals; from which circumſtance the genus has derived its name. The leaves are of a moderate ſize, inſcribed with a number of longitudinal ribs, and without

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without any footſtalk. At their origin they form round the ſtalk a kind of ſheath, which is long, entire, and cylindrical. The flowers are hermaphrodite, and placed at the ſummit of the ſtalk, either in a ſpike or in a panicle. The calyx is a *ſpatha*, that burſting open protrudes a *ſpadix*, which has no perianthium. The petals are 5, and very irregular. The nectarium is remarkably conſpicuous; but different in the different genera; and has the appearance of a 6th petal. The filaments are always two, and placed upon the piſtillum. The antheræ are erect, and generally covered by the upper lip of the nectarium. The ſeed-bud is either oblong or pillar-ſhaped, twiſted like a ſcrew, and placed below the receptacle. The ſtyle is ſingle, very ſhort, and forms one ſubſtance with the inner margin of the nectarium. The ſeed-veſſel is generally a capſule with one cavity and 3 valves, keel-ſhaped, and open on the angular ſides. The ſeeds are numerous; very ſmall, like ſaw duſt, and attached, without footſtalks, to a ſlender receptacle, which extends lengthwiſe in the middle of each valve.

(227.) 8. Scitamineæ are beautiful exotics, all natives of very warm countries. Some of them furniſh exquiſite fruits; but though the plants riſe very high, they are perennial only by their roots. Thoſe which have only one filament, have in all their parts an aromatic odour, and an acrid taſte; the roots are hot and refinous.

(228.) 9. Spathaceæ are nearly allied in habit and ſtructure to the liliaceous plants from which they are chiefly diſtinguiſhed by the ſpatha, out of which their flowers are protruded.

(229.) 10. Coronariæ are herbaceous, perennial, and from one inch to 15 feet high. The roots are either bulbous, fibrous, or compoſed of ſmall fleſhy knots, jointed at top. The bulbs either conſiſt of ſcales laid over each other, or are ſolid. The baſe of the leaves, enfolding each other, form at bottom a roundiſh fleſhy bulb. In the others the ſtem is ſimple, and is either furniſhed with leaves or riſes naked. The branches are alternate and cylindrical. The leaves are ſimple, alternate, and entire. Thoſe next the root, generally form at their origin a ſheath, which in a great number is entire; whilſt in others, it is divided longitudinally on one ſide. The flowers are univerſally hermaphrodite, except in white hellebore, which has both male and hermaphrodite flowers. The flowers are ſometimes ſingle, and terminate the ſtem; ſometimes they form an umbel, ſometimes a ſpike, and ſometimes a panicle. The ſingle cover in moſt of theſe plants, though beautifully coloured, ought to be denominated a calyx; as its diviſions, generally fix, are oppoſite to the ſtamina. The coloured leaves of the flower are from one to ſix. The petals in ſome ſpecies are turned back. The nectarium is various in the different genera. The ſtamina are 6; erect, and inſerted into the receptacle, if the flower conſiſts of many petals; into the tube, or diviſions of the corolla, if it conſiſts of one. The antheræ are long, divided below, and ſlightly attached to the filaments on which they turn like a vane. The ſeed-bud is ſingle, and placed either within the flower cup or below it. The ſtyle is ſingle, thread-ſhaped, and generally of the length of the petals. The ſtigma is generally ſingle, of a conic form, and hairy at the extremity. The ſeed-veſſel is generally a capſule, divided externally into 3 valves, internally into 3 cells.

(230.) 11. Sarmentosæ have climbing ſtems and branches, that, like the vine, attach themſelves to other bodies for ſupport. They are not a true natural claſs, for they ſcarce agree in a ſingle circumſtance, except that of climbing, which is not peculiar to this order.

(231.) 12. Holeraceæ contains trees, ſhrubs, perennial, and annual herbs. Some of the woody vegetables retain their green leaves during the winter. The roots are very long, and frequently ſpindle-ſhaped; from the knots on the ſtems and branches of ſuch plants as creep on the ground, or float on the water, proceed fibrous and branching roots. The ſtems and young branches are cylindric; and in the greateſt part of the aquatic plants of this order, the ſtalks are hollow within. The buds are conic and naked. The leaves are generally ſimple, entire, alternate, and attached to the branches by a cylindric foot-ſtalk, commonly very ſhort. Some have two ſtipulæ attached to the branches near the origin of the foot-ſtalk of each leaf. In many others, each leaf bears on its foot ſtalk a membranaceous cylindric ſheath, frequently fringed on the margin, and penetrated by the ſtem. The flowers are either hermaphrodite; male and female upon the ſame or different roots; hermaphrodite and male, or hermaphrodite and female on the ſame or different roots.

(232.) 13. Succulentæ. This order conſiſts of flat, fleſhy, and juicy plants, moſt of them ever-greens. They are aſtringent, refreſhing, and very wholeſome.

(233.) 14. Gruinales conſiſt of *geranium*, and a few other genera which Linnæus conſiders as allied to it in their habit and external ſtructure. They contain both herbaceous and woody plants. The roots are ſometimes fibrous, ſometimes tuberous, or jointed. The ſtems are cylindric; the young branches, in ſome, nearly ſquare. The buds are conic and covered with ſcales. The leaves are either ſimple or compound. The flowers are hermaphrodite. The calyx conſiſts of 5 diſtinct leaves, or of one leaf divided almoſt to the bottom into 5 parts. The petals are 5, ſpreading, and frequently funnel-ſhaped. The ſtamina are generally ten, awl-ſhaped, erect, oblong; and frequently attached to the filaments by the middle, ſo as to lie, and ſometimes to veer about, upon them. The ſeed-bud is either oblong or five-cornered. The number of ſtyles is either one or five. The ſeed-veſſel is commonly a five-cornered capſule, with 1, 2, 5 or 10 cells; one ſeed is generally placed in each cell.

(234.) 15. Inundatæ are aquatic plants, low, herbaceous, and moſtly perennial. The roots are fibrous. The ſtem is generally wanting. In its place is an aſſemblage of leaves, which enfolding each other mutually form a ſheath; from the middle of which is produced the footſtalk. The leaves are ſometimes alternate, ſometimes placed in whirls. The flowers are hermaphrodite, or male and female on the ſame root. The flower-cup is either wanting, or conſiſts of 3, 4 or 5 diviſions or leaves. The ſtamina are from 1 to 16 or upwards.

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The filaments and antheræ are ſhort. The ſeed-buds are from 1 to 4. The ſeed-veſſel is univerſally wanting, except in Elatine. The ſeeds are generally 4. Theſe plants are aſtringent.

(235.) 16. CALYCIFLORÆ have the ſtamina inſerted into the calyx, and are all of the ſhrub or tree kind. Some riſe to 12 or 14 feet; others not above 2 or 3. The roots are branching, fibrous, and woody. The ſtems are cylindric. The branches, when young, are cornered; the buds of a conic form, and without ſcales. The leaves are ſimple, alternate, and attached to the branches by a very ſhort foot-ſtalk. The flowers are either male or female upon diſtinct roots, or hermaphrodite and male on the ſame root. The calyx is a perianthium compoſed of one leaf divided into 2, 3, or 4 ſegments. It is commonly placed upon the ſeed-bud. The corolla is univerſally wanting, except in *trophis*. The ſtamina are generally 4, ſlender, ſhort, placed at a diſtance from the ſtyle, and inſerted into the calyx. The piſtillum is compoſed of a roundiſh germen, crowned with the calyx; a ſingle thread-ſhaped ſtyle; and a cylindric ſtigma. The ſeed-veſſel is either an obtuſe oval fruit of the cherry kind, or a globular berry with one cell, containing a roundiſh ſeed.

(236.) 17. CALYCANTHEMÆ have the corolla and ſtamina inſerted in the calyx. This order conſiſts of trees, ſhrubs and annual, biennial, and perennial herbs. The herbaceous annuals are the moſt numerous. The roots are branching and fibrous; the ſtems and branches cylindric, and ſquare. The buds are conic and without ſcales. The leaves are generally either alternate, ſimple, and attached to the branches by a ſhort foot ſtalk, or oppoſite at the bottom of the ſtem; and in ſome, alternate towards the top. They are univerſally ſeſſile. The calyx is a perianthium, generally monophyllous. The corolla conſiſts of 4, 5, and 6 petals, attached to the tube of the calyx, and ſometimes placed alternate, ſometimes oppoſite to the diviſions of the limb. The ſtamina, are from 4 to 20 and upwards, attached to the tube of the calyx. The antheræ are generally hemiſpherical, frequently cleft below; and by that aperture attached ſlightly to the filaments, on which they often veer about like a vane. They are ſurrounded longitudinally, and open on the ſides into two loculi or cells. The pollen conſiſts of a number of minute particles, of an oval figure, yellow and tranſparent. The germen is placed either above or under the receptacle of the flower. The ſtyle is ſingle, thread-ſhaped, and of the length of the ſtamina. The ſtigma is generally ſingle and undivided. The ſeed-veſſel is a capſule, generally divided internally into cells. The ſeeds are numerous, minute, and frequently three-cornered. Theſe plants are aſtringent.

(257.) 18. BICORNES, plants whoſe antheræ have the appearance of two horns. This appearance, however, is not very conſpicuous, except in a few genera. The plants of this order are all ſhrubs or trees. The roots are branching and fibrous. The ſtems and branches are cylindric; the buds conic; the leaves generally alternate; either ſeſſile, or ſuppotted by a very ſhort foot-ſtalk. The flowers are all hermaphrodite, except in Indian date plum, where hermaphrodite and male flowers are upon diſtinct roots. The calyx is generally placed around or below the germen; and is univerſally a perianthium. The corolla is generally monopetalous. The upper part of the petal is generally divided into 4 or 5 ſegments. The lower part is cylindric, and generally of the length of the calyx. The number of ſtamina is from 4 to 20; generally erect, and attached to the lower part of the tube of the corolla. The antheræ are forked below, and, being ſlightly attached to the filaments, are frequently inverted ſo as to exhibit the appearance of two horns at top. The germen or ſeed-bud is generally roundiſh, and ſeated above the receptacle. The ſtyle is ſingle, thread-ſhaped, of the ſame length with the corolla, and in a few genera permanent. The ſeed-veſſel is either a capſule with 5 cells, a roundiſh berry, or an oblong four cornered nut with two cells. Theſe are alſo aſtringent.

(238.) 19. HESPERIDEÆ are of the ſhrub and tree kind, and moſtly evergreen. The bark of the ſtalks is ſlender, and comes off in thin plates. The leaves are generally oppoſite, but in ſome alternate above. The buds are conic; the flowers generally hermaphrodite. The calyx is placed above the ſeed-bud. The petals are 3, 4, or 5, in number, and ſtand upon the brims of the tube of the calyx. The ſeed-bud is large, oblong, and placed below the receptacle. The ſtyle is ſingle, awl-ſhaped, of the length of the ſtamina, and terminated with a ſingle ſtigma. The ſeeds are generally numerous, ſmall, and oblong.

(239.) 20. ROTACEÆ conſiſts of plants with one wheel-ſhaped petal without a tube. Theſe reſemble in quality thoſe of the order of preciæ, to which they are in all reſpects very nearly allied.

(240.) 21. PRECIÆ conſiſts of primroſe, an early flowering plant, and ſome others which agree with it in habit and ſtructure.

(245.) 22. CARYOPHYLLÆ are all herbaceous, and moſtly annual. Some of the creeping kinds do not riſe above an inch, and the talleſt exceed not 7 or 8 feet. The roots are branching, fibrous, and of a moderate length. The ſtems are cylindrical. The branches proceed from the angles of the leaves, and are generally oppoſite, and jointed at each knot. The leaves are generally placed oppoſite in pairs, ſo as to reſemble a croſs; and are ſlightly united at the bottom by their foot-ſtalks. The hairs are ſimple, like ſilk. The flowers are hermaphrodite; but ſome have male and female flowers upon diſtinct roots. They either ſtand ſingle on their foot-ſtalks, and proceed from the angles of the leaves and branches, or are diſpoſed in a ſpike, corymbus, umbel, or panicle. The calyx is permanent, and compoſed either of one piece with 5 indentments, or of 4 or 5 diſtinct leaves. The corolla generally conſiſts of five petals, which have claws of the length of the calyx; and a ſpreading limb, ſometimes entire, but oftener cleft. The ſtamina are from 3 to 15. When their number is double the diviſions of the calyx, they are attached alternately to the claws of the petals, the remaining ſtamina are inſerted into the common receptacle, and ſtand oppoſite to the ſegments of the calyx. The antheræ are ſhort, hemiſpherical, marked with 4 longitudinal furrows, frequently cleft below,

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low, moſt commonly erect; ſometimes, however, *incumbent*, that is, faſtened to the filaments by the ſides. The piſtil is compoſed of a ſingle ſeed bud, which is generally roundiſh, ſometimes cornered. The ſtyles are thread-ſhaped, of the length of the ſtamina, and crowned with a ſimple ſmooth ſtigma, ſlightly hollowed within. The ſeed veſſel is a dry capſule, of an oval form of the length of the calyx, and conſiſts of one or 3 cells.

(242.) 23. Trihilatæ conſiſt of plants with 3 ſeeds, which are marked with an external cicatrix, where they are faſtened within to the fruit.

(243.) 24. Corydales have irregular flowers, ſomewhat reſembling a helmet, and are moſtly herbaceous and perennial. The roots are tuberous or knobby; the ſtems generally branching; The leaves alternate, ſometimes ſimple, but commonly winged. The foot-ſtalk of the leaves is ſtrait or narrow, except in *epimedium*. The flowers are hermaphrodite. The calyx conſiſts of 2, 4, 5, or 6 leaves, which are frequently coloured. The corolla is generally irregular: of one, or many pieces: gaping; and furniſhed with a nectarium, which is very different in the different genera. The ſtamina are from 2 to 6. The filaments are diſtinct, except in two genera, fumitory and *monnieria*, which have two ſets united in a cylinder. The antheræ are univerſally diſtinct, except in *impatiens* where they form a cylinder divided at the baſe. The ſeed-bud is generally roundiſh, but ſometimes angular. The ſtyle is commonly ſingle, extremely ſhort and ſlender, and crowned with a ſimple ſtigma. The ſeed veſſel is either a hollow blown-up berry, a capſule of one cell, or a pod. The ſeeds are generally numerous and round.

(244.) 25. Putamineæ conſiſt of a few genera of plants allied in habit, whoſe fruit is frequently covered with a hard woody ſhell.

(245.) 26. Multisiliquæ conſiſt of plants which have more ſeed-veſſels than one. The greater part have many dry capſules, and the remainder bear numerous diſtinct ſeeds. They are moſtly perennial; the ſtems of ſome are erect; others creep upon the ground, and produce roots near the origin of each leaf: others climb, and attach themſelves to other bodies; either by the foot-ſtalk, or by tendrils which terminate it. The greateſt height of thoſe that riſe erect ſeldom exceeds 8 feet. Thoſe which climb rarely exceed 15 or 20 feet. The roots are generally fleſhy. In ſome they are hand-ſhaped: in others finger-ſhaped; in others ſpherical or fibrous. The ſtems and young branches are cylindric. The leaves are of different forms; ſometimes ſimple and entire, ſometimes hand-ſhaped, generally alternate. The foot-ſtalk, which is ſometimes cylindric, ſometimes angular, is membranous, and very large at its origin, ſurrounding a great part of the ſtem. The flowers are hermaphrodite, and proceed either ſingly from the leaves, or terminate the branches in a ſpike, panicle, or head. The petals are from 4 to 15; generally equal, and ſometimes diſpoſed in 2 or 3 ſeries; 5 is the prevailing number. The ſtamina are from 5 to 300, diſtinct, and attached generally in ſeveral rows to the receptacle. The ſtyle is frequently wanting. In ſome the ſeed veſſel is wanting; in others it is compoſed of ſeveral dry capſules, each containing a ſingle cell. The ſeeds are numerous, and often angular. They are cauſtic and purgative.

(246.) 27. Rhæadeæ, conſiſt of poppy and a few genera which reſemble it in habit and ſtructure. Upon being cut, they emit plentifully a juice which is white in poppy, and yellow in the others. Theſe plants are narcotic.

(247.) 28. Luridæ are an order of plants whoſe pale appearance indicates their baleful and noxious qualities. Moſt of them are herbaceous and perennial. Many of them are of the maſked tribe of flowers; others reſemble thoſe in their general appearance, but differ from them in the equality of their ſtamina. The roots are generally branched, ſometimes tuberous. The ſtems and branches are cylindric. The leaves are generally ſimple, and placed alternate. The flowers are hermaphrodite. They proceed either ſingly or in cluſters from the angle formed by the leaves and branches. The calyx is generally of one piece deeply divided into 5 parts. The corolla conſiſts of one petal, which is either bell, funnel, or wheel-ſhaped. The ſtamina are 4 or 5. The ſeed-bud is placed above the receptacle. The ſtyle is ſingle, and terminated by a hemiſpherical top. The ſeed-veſſel, in ſuch as have equal ſtamina, is a berry; in the reſt, it is generally a capſule. The ſeeds are numerous and frequently kidney-ſhaped.

(248.) 29. Campanaceæ have bell-ſhaped flowers, and are herbaceous and perennial. The roots are either ſpindle ſhaped, or branching. The ſtems are round; the branches are generally alternate, and commonly attached to the branches by a ſemi-cylindric foot ſtalk. The indentments are terminated by a ſmall white knob. The flowers are hermaphrodite. The calyx is a perianthium, generally compoſed of one leaf, divided into 5 ſegments. The corolla is monopetalous, and of the bell, funnel, or wheel ſhape. The upper part of the corolla is deeply divided into 5 ſegments, which are alternate with the diviſions of the calyx. The corolla is generally permanent. The ſtamina are 5, attached to the baſe of the tube of the corolla, alternate with its diviſions, and oppoſite to thoſe of the calyx. The filaments are diſtinct, very large at their origin; and ſlender and awl-ſhaped above. The antheræ are very long; oval; marked with 4 longitudinal furrows. The germen is roundiſh, and ſituated under the flower. The ſtyle and ſtigma are commonly ſingle. The ſeed-veſſel is a roundiſh capſule, generally divided into 3 cells. The ſeeds are ſmall, numerous, rounded, and ſometimes cornered. The plants are medicinal, and abound with a white milky juice.

(249.) 30. Contortæ, plants which have a ſingle petal twiſted towards one ſide. This order contains trees, ſhrubs, fat ſucculent plants, and herbaceous vegetables, generally perennial. The roots are ſometimes branching but commonly fleſhy. The ſtems are round. The branches are ſometimes alternate, ſometimes oppoſite. The buds are of a conic form, and naked. The leaves are ſometimes alternate, ſometimes oppoſite, and ſometimes in whirls. The weapons are a downy ſort of pubeſcence, and ſimple, or forked prickles. The flowers are hermaphrodite, either ſingle or in cluſters. The flower-cup is one leaf divided in five

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five unequal segments, which are permanent. The corolla consists of one petal, which in the different genera is bell, salver, funnel, or wheel-shaped. The upper part of the petal is generally divided into five equal parts, slightly bent to the left. The tube is generally long and cylindric. In several flowers of this order, the petal is accompanied with a *nectarium*, which varies in the different genera. The stamina, are 5, short and equal. The antheræ are generally erect. The seed-bud is either single or double. In some the style is wanting. The stigma is frequently double. The seed-vessel in some genera is a pulpy fruit, of the berry and cherry kind; but most frequently that species termed by Linnæus *conceptaculum* and *folliculus*. Two of these dry fruits, with a single cell, compose the seed-vessel of most plants of this order. The seeds are generally numerous, and in several genera crowned with a long downy wing, by which they disperse and sow themselves. The plants being cut, emit a juice, either of a milky, or greenish white, which is deemed poisonous.

(250.) 31. VEPRECULÆ, (from *vepres*, a briar,) consist of plants resembling the daphne, &c. but which do not constitute a true natural class.

(251.) 32. PAPILIONACEÆ, plants that have papilionaceous flowers, are of very different duration; some being herbaceous, either annual or perennial; others of the shrub and tree kind, a few of which rise to 70 feet and upwards. The herbaceous plants generally climb; for, being weak, they are provided with tendrils and sharp-pointed hooks, to fasten upon the neighbouring trees or rocks; and some twist themselves, for support, around bodies. The shrubs and trees are mostly armed with strong spines. The roots are very long, and furnished with fibres. The stems are cylindric. The bark of the large trees is extremely wrinkled; the wood is very hard and commonly veined. The buds are hemispherical, without scales; and the leaves are alternate, and either simple, finger-shaped, or winged. The pinnated leaves of this order have a daily motion, depending upon the sun in his diurnal course. The flowers are hermaphrodite. The calyx is a perianthium of one leaf bell-shaped. The bottom of the calyx is moistened with a sweet liquor like honey. The petals are 4 or 5, very irregular, and resemble a butterfly. The stamina are generally ten. The antheræ are small, round, and slightly attached to the filaments. The seed-bud is single, placed upon the receptacle, oblong, cylindrical, slightly compressed and sometimes elevated by a slender footstalk which issues from the centre of the calyx. The style is single, slender, and generally bent. The stigma is commonly covered with a beautiful down, and placed immediately under the antheræ. The seed-vessel is a legumen, of an oblong figure, compressed, with two valves, and several cavities, often separated, when ripe, by a sort of joints. The seeds are generally few, round, smooth, and fleshy, and all fastened along one suture. These plants are emollient.

(252.) 3. LOMENTACEÆ, (from *lomentum*, a colour used by painters,) furnish beautiful tinctures, and some of them are much used in dyeing. They differ from the last order, only in the following particulars: In all plants of this order, except milk-wort, the stamina are distinct. The flower is not shaped like a butterfly, but is less irregular, and frequently consists of one petal. The leaves are sometimes simple, but most commonly winged. The seeds are marked with a furrow on both sides. These plants are mucilaginous.

(253.) 34. CUCURBITACEÆ, (from *cucurbita*, a gourd) plants which resemble the gourd in external figure, habit, virtues, and sensible qualities. They generally climb, have long diffused branches, and are mostly herbaceous and perennial. The roots in the perennial are shaped like those of the turnip; in the annual they are branching and fibrous. The stems are cylindric and succulent. The leaves are alternate, angular, and sometimes hand-shaped. From the angle of each of the upper leaves proceeds a tendril, which twists itself spirally round the different bodies in its neighbourhood. The lower leaves have no tendril. The flowers are either hermaphrodite, or male and female, separated upon the same root. The flower cup, in the female flowers, is placed upon the seed-bud; and generally consists of one bell-shaped leaf, deeply divided into five unequal segments, which falls off with the petals and the other parts of the flower. The corolla consists of one petal, with 5 equal divisions, which adhere to the tube of the calyx. The stamina are from 1 to 5, short, and generally inserted into the calyx. The filaments are distinct. The seed-bud is single, and placed below the receptacle. The style is generally single, cylindrical, and crowned with a triple stigma. The seed-vessel is generally pulpy, of the apple or berry kind, and consists of 2 or 3 cells. The seeds are numerous. These plants are purgative.

(254.) 35. SENTICOSÆ, (from *sentis*, a briar,) consist of the rose, bramble, and other plants which resemble them in external structure. These plants are so nearly allied in form, habit and structure, to the POMACEÆ, that they ought never to have been separated. The fruits are cooling.

(255.) 36. POMACEÆ, consist of plants which have a pulpy esculent fruit, of the apple, berry, or cherry kind. The plants of this order, which furnish many of our most esteemed fruits, are mostly of the shrub and tree kind. The roots are branched, fibrous, and very long. The stems and branches are cylindric. These last are placed alternate; and, when young, are, in some genera, angular. The bark is thick and wrinkled. The buds are of a conic form, placed in the angles of the leaves, and covered with scales which lie over each other like tiles. The leaves, which are either simple or winged, are generally placed alternate. The footstalk of the leaves is furrowed above, and frequently accompanied by knobs. The flowers are universally hermaphrodite, except in *spiræa aruncus*, in which male and female flowers are produced on distinct plants. In the greater number of genera they are produced in clusters. The calyx is of one piece, with 3 segments, which are permanent. The petals are 4, inserted into the tube of the calyx. The stamina are generally 20 and upwards. The antheræ are short, and slightly attached to the filaments. The seed-bud is single; and in those genera which have the calyx permanent, it is placed below the receptacle. Those of the apple kind are divided

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internally into a number of cavities or cells. The ſeeds are numerous. The fruits are eſculent.

(256.) 37. Columniferæ, (from *columna* a pillar, and *fero*, to bear,) plants whoſe ſtamina and piſtil have the appearance of a pillar in the centre of the flower. This order furniſhes a choice collection of herbs both annual and perennial, ſhrubs, and trees. Theſe vary greatly in ſize and height, from the creeping mallows, and low ſhrubby tea tree, to the fleſhy limes, and the lofty ſilk-cotton trees, which are ſaid to be ſo large as not to be fathomed by 16 men, and ſo tall that an arrow cannot reach their top. The ſhrubs and trees of this order are deciduous, pretty thick, of a beautiful appearance, with an erect ſtem, formed by its branches and foliage into a round head. The roots are extremely long, branch but little, and either run perpendicularly downwards, or extend horizontally below the ſurface. The ſtems are cylindric. The bark is thick and pliant. The wood, in general, very ſoft and light. The buds are conic, naked, and ſituated either at the extremity of the branches, or in the angle formed by the branch and leaf. The leaves are alternate, ſimple, divided into ſeveral lobes, and frequently hand or finger ſhaped. The nerves on the back of the leaf, in ſome genera, are provided near their origin, with a number of hollow furrows, which, being filled with a clammy honey-like liquor, have been conſidered as ſo many veſſels of ſecretion. The foot-ſtalk is cylindric, ſwelled at its origin, and appears jointed at its junction with the branch. The flowers are univerſally hermaphrodite, except in *biggeleria* and *napæa dioica*. In many plants of this order, the flowers generally open about nine in the morning, and remain expanded till 1 p. m. In ſome of them the calyx is ſingle, and compoſed of one leaf which is permanent. In thoſe plants that have a double cayx, both flower-cups are generally permanent. The petals are from 4 to 9; the ſtamina from 5 to 20 and upwards. The filaments are either diſtinct, or united in a cylinder, which ſurround the ſeed-bud. The antheræ are placed erect on the filaments, moſt commonly oblong, and ſlightly attached by the middle, to the filaments, on which they turn like a vane. The ſeed-bud is generally roundiſh or conic; and ſometimes angular. The ſeed-veſſel is generally a capſule; ſometimes a pulpy fruit of the berry or cherry kind. In ſome, it is a woody or membranous capſule, divided into as many cells internally as there were partitions in the ſeed-bud. The ſeeds are generally ſolitary, ſometimes angular, and ſometimes kidney-ſhaped. The plants are mucilaginous and lubricating.

(257.) 38. Tricocceæ, (from τρεις, three, and κοκκος, a grain;) plants with a ſingle three-cornered capſule, having 3 cells, each containing a ſingle ſeed. The ſeed-veſſel is of a ſingular form, and reſembles 3 capſules, which adhere to one common footſtalk as a centre, but are divided externally into 3 pretty deep partitions. This order is not completely natural, but the character expreſſed in the title is a ſtriking one; and though plants which poſſeſs it are not connected by ſuch numerous relations as to form a true natural claſs, yet they are by that circumſtance diſtinguiſhed from all other plants with as great, nay, greater facility, than by any artificial character yet known. But all the genera have not this ſtriking character.

(258.) 39. Siliquosæ, plants which have a pod for their ſeed-veſſel. They are chiefly biennial and perennial herbs of an irregular figure. The roots are long, branched, crooked, and fibrous. In ſome they are ſucculent and fleſhy, in others jointed. The ſtems and young branches are cylindric. The leaves are either ſimple or winged, and are generally placed alternate. The flowers are hermaphrodite. The flower-cup is compoſed of four leaves, which are oblong, hollow, blunt, bunched at the baſe, ſometimes erect, and ſometimes ſpread horizontally. The petals which are 4, ſpread at top, and are diſpoſed like a croſs; the claws are erect, flat, awl-ſhaped, and ſomewhat longer than the calyx. The ſtigma are ſix. The antheræ are of an oblong figure, pointed, thicker at the baſe, and erect. The ſeed-bud is ſingle, and ſtands upon the receptacle. The ſtyle is either cylindric or flat. The ſtamina is blunt, and ſometimes deeply divided into two parts. The ſeed-veſſel is either a long pod, or a ſhort and round one. The ſeeds are roundiſh, ſmall, and attached alternately by a ſlender thread to both ſutures. The plants are diuretic and antiſcorbutic.

(259.) 40. Personatæ, (from *perſona*, a maſque,) conſiſt of a number of plants whoſe flowers are furniſhed with an irregular, gaping, or grinning petal, in figure ſomewhat reſembling the ſnout of an animal. This order furniſhes both herbaceous and woody vegetables of the ſhrub and tree kind. The roots are generally fibrous and branched. The ſtems and branches are cylindric when young, except in ſome ſpecies of figwort. The leaves are ſimple, generally placed oppoſite in pairs at the bottom of the branches, but in many genera ſtand alternate towards the top. The flowers are hermaphrodite; they proceed either ſingly or in cluſters from the wings of the leaves, or terminate the branches in a ſpike, panicle, or head. The calyx is of 1 leaf, which is cut into 2, 3, 4, or 5 ſegments that are permanent. The corolla is compoſed of one irregular petal. The ſtamina are 2 or 4. The ſeed-bud is ſingle, and placed above the receptacle. The ſtyle is ſingle; thread-ſhaped; bent in the direction of the ſtamina; and crowned with a ſtigma which is generally blunt, and ſometimes divided into two. The ſeed-veſſel is a capſule, generally divided into two cells. The ſeeds are numerous, and affixed to a receptacle. The internal uſe of many of them is extremely pernicious: applied externally, they are anodyne, and powerful reſolvents.

(260.) 41. Asperifoliæ, rough-leafed plants, are moſtly herbaceous and perennial. The roots are branching and fibrous; the ſtems and branches rounded; the buds of a conic form and naked. The leaves are ſimple, alternate, commonly rough to the touch, and in moſt of the herbaceous plants ſeſſile. In the trees, however, the leaves have a foot-ſtalk, the lower part of which, after the fall of the leaves, remains like a thorn. The hairs are ſimple, and generally very rough. The flowers are commonly collected into a ſpike; and proceed not from the angle formed by the branch with the leaf, but from the ſide of the leaf, or the

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the part of the ſtem oppoſite to it. They are almoſt all hermaphrodite; except in a few ſpecies of *cordia*, which are dioecious. The calyx is compoſed of one leaf, which is divided into from 3 to 10 parts. The corolla is monopetalous, and variouſly ſhaped. The ſtamina are 5, alternate with the diviſions of the corolla. The antheræ are in ſome genera *connivent*. The piſtillum is generally a ſlender ſtyle, crowned with a ſimple ſtigma. The ſeeds are generally 4, and lodged in the bottom of the calyx. They are diuretic, and cordial.

(261.) 42. VERTICILLATÆ conſiſt of herbaceous vegetables, having 4 naked ſeeds, and the flowers placed in whorls round the ſtalk. The roots are branched and fibrous. The ſtems are round when old, but ſquare when young. The leaves are oppoſite, and generally ſupported upon a long cylindrical foot-ſtalk, furrowed above. The flowers are all hermaphrodite, except in one ſpecies of thyme. They are diſpoſed round the ſtem in whorls. The calyx is of one piece, generally cut into 5 unequal diviſions. The petal is of the gaping kind, and more or leſs irregular, either in its tube, or the diviſions of the lips which vary from 2 to 4. The ſtamina are moſtly 4, of unequal length. The ſeed-buds conſiſts of 4 diſtinct ovaries, is placed upon the ſeat of the flower, and elevates from their centre a common ſtyle, which is ſlender and bent. The ſeeds are 4 and lodged in the bottom of the calyx. Each ſeed has two covers; the one external and cartilaginous; the other internal, and membranaceous. The leaves are cordial and cephalic.

(262.) 43. DUMOSÆ, (from *dumus* a buſh,) are all of the ſhrub and tree kind, thick and buſhy, riſing from 6 to 25, 30, and even 40 feet high. Many of them, too, are evergreens. The roots are branched and fibrous. The ſtems are cylindric. The buds are naked in the evergreen ſhrubs; but covered with ſcales in moſt of the others. The leaves, which in ſome genera are ſimple, in others compound, are placed alternate in ſome, and oppoſite in others. The flowers are moſtly hermaphrodite. The calyx is generally very ſmall, and conſiſts of one leaf, with 4, 5, or 6 diviſions, which are permanent. The petals are from 1 to 5. The ſtamina are either 4, 5, 6, or 10. The ſeed-bud is generally roundiſh, and within the flower. The ſtyle is commonly ſingle, and ſometimes wanting. The ſtigma is either ſingle or triple. The ſeed-veſſel is generally a berry, ſometimes a dry capſule; the ſeeds are generally ſingle and egg ſhaped. The berries are purgative.

(263) 44. SEPIARIÆ, (from *ſepes* a hedge,) from their ſize, elegance, and other circumſtances, are very proper for hedges. This order contains both ſhrubs and trees, moſt of which do not drop their leaves till nearly the time when the new leaves begin to appear.

(264.) 45. UMBELLATÆ, plants whoſe flowers grow in umbels, with 5 petals that are often unequal, and two naked ſeeds joined at top and ſeparated below. They are herbaceous, and chiefly perennial. The roots are either tuberous or ſpindle-ſhaped; ſometimes forked. The ſtems are cylindric, full of pitch, and frequently hollow. The branches and leaves are alternate. The latter vary much in form; being ſimple and entire in ſome; target ſhaped, finger or hand-ſhaped, in others; and pinnated in the greater number. They are ſupported by a foot-ſtalk, which is very broad at is origin, and commonly embraces the whole contour of the ſtem and branches. The flowers are in general hermaphrodite: though ſome have male flowers in the ſame umbel, and others hermaphrodite and male flowers upon diſtinct plants. The common ſort is that termed by Linnæus *involucrum*. The petals are 5, diſpoſed upon the ſides of the flower-cup in form of a roſe. The ſtamina are 5, placed oppoſite to the diviſions of the flower-cup, and alternate with the petals. The ſeed-bud is placed under the ſeat of the flower, and ſupports two ſtyles. The ſeeds are two, which, when ripe, ſeparate below. The plants of this order, which grow in dry places, are ſudorific, ſtomachic, and warming.

(265.) 46. HEDERACEÆ, (from *hedera* ivy;) conſiſts of both herbaceous and ſhrubby plants; moſt of which, particularly ivy and vine, have creeping branches, which attach themſelves by roots or tendrils to other bodies. The roots are long, with few branches. The ſtems and young branches are cylindric. In ſome ſpecies of vine they are ſquare. The leaves are alternate; ſometimes ſimple, ſometimes winged. The foot-ſtalk of the leaves is cylindrical, and without any furrow. The buds are of a conic form, and without ſcales. The flowers are either hermaphrodite, male and female upon different roots, or hermaphrodite and male upon different roots. The calyx conſiſts of one leaf divided into 5 parts. The petals are generally 5. The ſtamina are alſo 5, awl-ſhaped, erect, and generally of the length of the petals. The anthera are roundiſh, and ſometimes, as in ivy, attached to the filaments by the ſides. The ſeed-bud is ſometimes round, ſometimes pear-ſhaped, and ends in 1, 2, or 5 awl-ſhaped ſtyles, crowned with a ſimple ſtigma. The ſeed-veſſel is of the berry kind, with 1, 2, or 5 ſtyles. The ſeeds are from 1 to 5, placed either in diſtinct cells, or diſperſed through the pulp.

(266.) 47. STELLATÆ, (from *ſtella* a ſtar,) conſiſt of plants with two naked ſeeds, and leaves diſpoſed round the ſtem in form of a radiant ſtar. This order contains herbs, ſhrubs, and trees. The herbs are chiefly annual, and creep along the ground. The ſhrubs and trees are moſtly evergreens, which riſe erect, and are of an agreeable conic form. They are opening and cordial.

(267.) 48. AGGREGATÆ, plants which have aggregate flowers, conſiſt of a number of florets, each of which have a proper and common calyx.

(268.) 49. COMPOSITÆ, plants with compound flowers. In this order Linnæus has conſtructed his primary diviſions from the different ſexes of the florets, which he terms *polygamia*; the ſubaltern diviſions are conſtructed from the figure of the petals, the diſpoſition of the flowers, the pappus or crown of the ſeed, the common receptacle, and other circumſtances which characterize the ſubaltern diviſions in other authors.

(269.) 50. AMENTACEÆ, plants bearing catkins.

(270.) 51. CONIFERÆ, (from *conus*, a cone, and *fero* to bear); plants, whoſe female flowers, placed at a diſtance from the male, either on the ſame or diſtinct roots, are formed into a cone. In

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this character, the only one expressed in the title, the plants seem to be nearly allied to the mosses: from which however, they are easily distinguished by their habit, as well as by the structure of the small flowers, in which the stamina are united below into a cylinder, and distinct at top. They are mostly shrubs and trees, and retain their leaves all the year. The form of these plants is generally conic, and extremely beautiful, from the disposition of the branches, which cover the stems to the roots, extending horizontally and circularly like rays. The height of some genera does not exceed half a foot; that of others approaches to 100. The roots are short, branching, not very fibrous, and extend horizontally. The stems and branches are cylindric. The bark is thin, and split into slender scales. The wood, except that of the yew, possesses little hardness. The buds are of a conic form and naked. The leaves are entire, small, and thick, frequently triangular, generally pointed; and are either alternate, opposite, placed in whorls, or collected into small bundles, proceeding from a single point. The flowers are all male and female. The calyx of the male flowers is a catkin; of the female, a cone. The petals are wanting; except in juniper. The stamina are from 3 to 20 and upwards; united into a cylinder, which rises out of the centre of the calyx. The antheræ are erect, distinct, of a roundish form, and divided into internal cells. The seed buds are generally numerous. From each seed bud arises a very short cylindrical style, crowned with a simple stigma, of a conic form. The seeds are naked. They are gummy and odorous.

(271.) 52. Coadunate, (from *coadunare*, to join,) are so termed from the general appearance of the seed-vessels, which are numerous, and being slightly attached below, form all together a single fruit in the shape of a sphere or cone; the parts of which, however, are easily separated. This order consists of exotic shrubs and trees, both evergreen and deciduous. The trees are often 60 feet high, and garnished from the bottom to the top with spreading branches and leaves of a bright green colour, which assume a very agreeable conic form. The roots are branching and fibrous. The stems are cylindric, and the wood very hard. The buds are conic, flat, and generally without scales. The leaves are all simple and alternate. The foot stalk is cylindric, without furrows, and frequently swelled at its origin. The flowers are hermaphrodite. The calyx consists of 3 oblong plain leaves, like petals. The petals are from 6 to 18, oblong, concave, and disposed in 2 or 3 rows. The stamina are numerous, short, and inserted into the common receptacle in some, and into the seed-bud in others. The filaments are very short and slender. The antheræ are numerous, slender, and placed round the seed-bud. The pistillum generally consists of a number of seed-buds in the form of a cone, seated upon a receptacle, which rises above that of the calyx. From each seed bud generally rises a short cylindrical style. The stigma is commonly blunt. The seed-vessels are of the berry, capsule, or cherry kind, and are equal in numbers to the seed-buds, and generally slightly attached below. The seeds are numerous, hard, roundish and sometimes cornered. The plants have a strong, agreeable, and aromatic smell. The bark and wood are bitter.

(272.) 53. Scabridæ, (from *scaber* rough,) consist of plants with rough leaves, which seem to be akin to the *Asperifoliæ*; only their degree of roughness is much greater. They are astringent. Their taste is bitter and styptic.

(273.) 54. Miscellaneæ, miscellaneous plants. This order consists of such genera as are not connected together by very numerous relations. See § 333.

(274.) 55. Filices, ferns, bear their flower and fruit on the back of the leaf or stalk. These plants, in figure, approach the more perfect vegetables, being furnished, like them, with roots and leaves. The roots creep, and extend horizontally under the earth, throwing out a number of very slender fibres on all sides. The stem is not to be distinguished from the common foot-stalk, or rather middle rib of the leaves: so that in strict propriety the greater number of ferns may be said to be *acaules*. In some, however, the middle rib overtops the leaves, and forms a flower-stalk. The leaves proceed singly, or in numbers, from the extremities of the branches of the main root. They are winged or hand-shaped in all the genera, except in adders-tongue, pepper-grass, and some species of spleen-wort. The flowers are, in the greater number of genera fastened, and as it were glued, to the back of the leaves; in others, they are supported upon a stem which rises above the leaves; but in some, on a flower-stalk. The stamina are placed apart from the seed-bud in a genus termed by Mr Adanson *palma finix*; in the other ferns, where the stamina have been discovered, they are found within the same covers with the seed-bud. Most of the ferns have a disagreeable smell. They are opening and attenuating.

(275.) 56. Musci, mosses, resemble the pines, firs, and other evergreens of that class, in the form and disposition of the leaves, and manner of growth of the female flowers, which are generally formed into a cone. They frequently creep, and extend like a carpet upon the ground, trees, and stones; being generally collected into bunches and tufts; the smallest are only one third of an inch in height, and the largest do not exceed 5 or 6. Few of them are annual: small as they are, the greater number are perennial and evergreens. Their growth is remarkably slow, as may be judged by the time that the antheræ take to ripen. This, reckoning from the first appearance of the antheræ to the dispersion of its powder or male dust, is generally 5 or 6 months. Although preserved dry for several years, they have the singular property of resuming their original verdure upon being moistened. It is uncertain, whether they do not also resume their vegetative quality. Their roots are fibrous, slender, branched, and short. The stems and branches are cylindric and weak; they creep upon the ground, and strike root on every side. The leaves are very small and undivided. They are either alternate, opposite, or placed by fours round the stalk. They have no perceptible foot-stalk, but are seated immediately upon the stem. The flowers are universally male and female: in some, the male flowers are produced

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produced upon the ſame plants with the female, and ſtand before them; in others, they are produced ſometimes on the ſame, and ſometimes on diſtinct plants. The male flowers conſiſt entirely of antheræ, and their covering: proceed either ſingly, or in cluſters, from the extremity of the branches, or angles of the leaves; and are either ſeated immediately upon the branches, or ſupported by a long footſtalk. The female flowers, which generally reſemble capſules or cones, are all placed immediately upon the ſtem or branches, without any footſtalk; and proceed ſingly either from the wings of the leaves, or ſummit of the branches; when produced upon the ſame plant with the male they are always placed under them. The female cones of the moſſes greatly reſemble thoſe of the pines and evergreen trees of that claſs; the ſcales which form them are true leaves, each containing in its wing or angle a ſingle ſeed. When the ſeeds are ripe, the cones probably open for their diſperſion. When ſhut, they reſemble buds, and have ſometimes been ignorantly miſtaken for ſuch. The calyx, in this order, reſembles a monk's cowl, which, in the male flowers, covers or is ſuſpended over the tops of the ſtamina like an extinguiſher. The petals are univerſally wanting. The moſſes in general are almoſt taſteleſs, have few juices, and being once dried do not readily imbibe moiſture from the air. Thoſe which grow in water, being thrown into the fire, grow red, and are reduced to aſhes without flame; on which account ſome ſuperſtitious people, the Siberians in particular, place water moſs in their chimnies, as a preſervative againſt fire. They all have a ſurpriſing property of preſerving dry ſuch bodies as are ſuſceptible of moiſture; and in retaining, for a long time, the humidity of young plants without expoſing them to putrefaction. For this reaſon, ſuch plants, as are to be ſent to any conſiderable diſtance, are generally wrapped up in them.

(276.) 57. ALGÆ, flags, conſiſt of marine plants, &c. whoſe root, leaf, and ſtem, are all one.

(277.) 58. FUNGI, muſhrooms, are rarely branched, ſometimes creeping, but moſt commonly erect. Such as are furniſhed with branches have them of a light ſpongy ſubſtance like cork. Muſhrooms differ from the fuci, in that thoſe which, like the fuci, have their ſeeds contained in capſules, are not branched, as that numerous claſs of ſea-weeds are. The greateſt part of muſhrooms have no root: ſome, inſtead of roots, have fibres, which, by their inoſculations, frequently form a net with unequal meſhes, ſome of which produce plants ſimilar to their parent vegetable. The ſtamina in theſe plants are ſtill undetermined. The ſeeds are ſpread over the ſurface of the plant, or placed in open holes or cavities, reſembling the open capſules of ſome of the fuci. In muſhrooms which are branched, the ſeeds are frequently viſible by the naked eye, and always to be diſtinctly obſerved by the aſſiſtance of a good microſcope. Theſe plants are very aſtringent. As food, they are at beſt ſuſpicious; ſome of them are rank poiſon.

(278.) PLANTÆ DUBII ORDINIS, plants of uncertain order. Under this name Linnæus claſſes all the other genera which cannot be rduced to any of the above-mentioned orders, and which are near 120 in number.

SECT. II. *The* GENERA *arranged according to the* NATURAL METHOD.

(279.) IN the natural method of claſſification there is no ſubdiviſion ſimilar to that of ORDERS, in the Sexual ſyſtem; and therefore the terms CLASSES and ORDERS are uſed ſynonimouſly for the *higher* diſtinction, and the GENERA of conſequence rank as the *ſecond* diviſion. The following, though not complete, is the beſt arrangement we can make out from botanical authors, of the genera under the natural orders.

(280.) 1. PALMÆ contains 14 genera; viz. Areca, Boraſſus, Caryota, Chamærops, Cocos, Corypha, Cycas, Elias, Elate, Hydrocharis, Phœnix, Stratiotes, Vallisneria, and Zamia.

(281.) 2. PIPERITÆ contains 10 genera; viz. Acorus, Ambroſinia, Arum, Calla, Dracontium, Orontium, Piper, Pothos, Saururus, and Zoſtera.

(282.) 3. CALAMARIÆ, 7 genera; viz. Carex, Cyperus, Eriophorum, Schænus, Scirpus, Sparganium, and Typha.

(283.) 4. GRAMINA, 45 genera; viz. Ægilops, Agroſtis, Aira, Alopecurus, Andropogon, Anthoxanthum, Apluda, Ariſtida, Arundo, Avena, Bobariza, Briza, Bromus, Cenchrus, Cinna, Coix, Cornucopiæ, Cynoſurus, Dactylis, Elymus, Feſtuca, Holcus, Hordeum, Iſchæmum, Lagurus, Lolium, Lygæum, Melica, Milium, Nardus, Olyra, Oryza, Panicum, Paſpalum, Phalaris, Pharus, Phleum, Poa, Saccharum, Secale, Stipa, Tripſacum, Triticum, Uniola, and Zea.

(284.) 5. TRIPETALOIDEÆ, 9 genera; viz. Aliſma, Aphyllanthes, Butomus, Calamus, Flagellaria, Juncus, Sagittaria, Scheuchzeria, and Triglochin.

(285.) 6. ENSATÆ, 15 genera; viz. Antholyza, Calliſia, Commelina, Crocus, Eriocaulon, Ferraria, Gladiolus, Iris, Ixia, Moræa, Pontederia, Syſyrinchium, Tradeſcantia, Wachendorfia, and Xyris.

(286.) 7. ORCHIDEÆ, 8 genera; viz. Arethuſa, Cypripedium, Epidendrum, Limodorum, Ophrys, Orchis, Satyrium, and Serapias.

(287.) 8. SCITAMINEÆ, 9 genera; viz. Alpinia, Amomum, Cana, Coſtus, Curcuma, Hæmpferia, Maranta, Muſa, and Thalia.

(288.) 9. SPATHACEÆ, 11 genera; viz. Allium, Amaryllis, Bulbocodium, Colchicum, Crinum, Galanthus, Gethyllis, Hæmanthus, Leucoium, Narciſſus, and Pancratium.

(289.) 10. CORONARIÆ, 33 genera; viz. Agave, Albuca, Aletris, Aloe, Antherium, Aſphodelus, Bromelia, Burmannia, Cyanella, Fritillaria, Aclonias, Hemerocallis, Hyacinthus, Hypoxis, Lilium, Melanthium, Ornithogalum, Polianthes, Scilla, Tillandſia, Tulipa, Veratrum, and Yucca.

(290.) 11. SARMENTOSÆ, 20 genera; viz. Alſtroemeria, Ariſtolochia, Aſarum, Aſparagus, Centella, Ciſſampelos, Convallaria, Cytinus, Dioſcorea, Erythronium, Glorioſa, Medeola, Meniſpermum, Paris, Rajania, Ruſcus, Smilax, Tamus, Trillium, and Uvularia.

(291.) 12. HOLERACEÆ, 35 genera; viz. Anabaſis, Anacardium, Atraphaxis, Atriplex, Axyris, Baſella, Begonia,

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Begonia, Beta, Blitum, Bucida, Calligonum, Callitriche, Camphorosma, Ceratocarpus, Chenopodium, Coccoloba, Corispermum, Heisteria, Herniaria, Illecebrum, Laurus, Mimusops, Nyssa, Petiveria, Polycnemum, Polygonum, Rheum, Rhizophora, Rivina, Rumex, Salicornia, Salsola, Spinacia, Tinus, and Winterania.

(292.) 13. SUCCULENTÆ, 28 genera; viz. Adoxa, Aizoon, Cactus, Chrysosplenium, Claytonia, Cotyledon, Crassula, Galenia, Hydrangea, Mesembryanthemum, Mitella, Nama, Neurada, Penthorum, Portulaca, Reaumuria, Rhodiola, Saxifraga, Sedum, Sempervivum, Septas, Sesuvium, Suriana, Tamarix, Tetragonia, Tiarella, Tillea, and Trianthema.

(293.) 14. GRUINALES, 11 genera; viz. Aldrovanda, Averrhoa, Drosera, Fagonia, Germanium, Guaiacum, Linum, Oxalis, Quassia, Tribulus, and Zygophyllum.

(294.) 15. INUNDATÆ, 8 genera; viz. Ceratophyllum, Elatine, Hippuris, Myriophyllum, Potamogeton, Proserpinacea, Ruppia, and Zannichellia.

(295.) 16. CALYCIFLORÆ, 4 genera; viz. Elæagnus, Hippophae, Osyris, and Trophis.

(296.) 17. CALYCANTHEMÆ, 16 genera; viz. Ammiana, Epilobium, Frankenia, Gaura, Glaux, Grislæa, Ishardia, Jussiæa, Ludvigia, Lythrum, Melastoma, Mentzelia, Oenthera, Osbeckia, Peplis, and Rhexia.

(297.) 18. BICORNES, 21 genera; viz. Andromeda, Arbutus, Azalea, Blæria, Citrus, Clethra, Diospyros, Epigea, Erica, Garcinia, Gaultheria, Halesia, Kalmia, Ledum, Myrsine, Pyrola, Rhododendrum, Rhodora, Royena, Styrax, and Vaccinium.

(298.) 19. Hesperidæ, 5 genera; viz. Caryophyllus, Eugenia, Myrtus, Philadelphus, and Psidium.

(299.) 20. ROTACEÆ, 13 genera; viz. Anagallis, Asyrum, Centunculus, Chironia, Cistus, Exacum, Gentiana, Hypericum, Lysimachia, Phlox, Sarotha, Swertia, and Trientalis.

(300.) 21. PRECIÆ, 12 genera; Androsace, Aretia, Cortusa, Cyclamen, Diapensia, Dodecatheon, Hortonia, Limosella, Menyanthes, Primula, Samolus, and Soldanella.

(301.) 22. CARYOPHYLLEÆ, 29 genera; viz. Agrostemma, Alsine, Arenari, Bufonia, Cerastium, Cherleria, Cucubalis, Dianthus, Drypsis, Glinus, Gypsophila, Holosteum, Loeflingia, Lychnis, Minuartia, Mœhringia, Mollugo, Ortegia, Pharnaceum, Polycarpon, Polypremum, Queria, Sagina, Saponaria, Scleranthus, Silene, Spergula, Stellaria, and Valezia.

(302.) 23. TRIHILATÆ, 12 genera; viz. Acer, Æsculus, Banisteria, Cardiospermum, Malpighia, Melia, Paulinia, Sapindus, Staphylæa, Trichilia, Triopteris, and Tropæolum.

(303.) 24. CORYDALES, 9 genera; viz. Epimedium, Fumarin, Hypecoum, Impatiens, Leontice, Melianthus, Monnieria, Pinguicula, and Utricularia.

(304.) 25. PUTAMINEÆ, 6 genera; viz. Capparis, Cleome, Cratæva, Crescentia, Marcgravia, and Morisonia.

(305.) 26. MULTISILIQUÆ, 21 genera: viz. Aconitum, Actæa, Adonis, Anemone, Aquilegia, Atragene, Caltha, Clematis, Delphinium, Dictamnus Garidella, Helleborus, Isopyrum, Myosurus, Nigella, Pæonia, Peganum, Ranunculus, Ruta, Thallictrum, and Trollius.

(306.) 27. RHÆADEÆ, 6 genera; viz. Argemone, Bocconia, Chelidonium, Papaver, Podophyllum, and Sanguinaria.

(307) 28. LURIDÆ, 18 genera; viz. Atropa, Browallia, Capsicum, Catesbæa, Celsia, Cestrum, Datura, Digitalis, Ellisia, Hyoscymus, Lycium, Nicotiana, Pedalium, Physalis, Sesamum, Solanum, Strychnus, and Verbascum.

(308.) 29. CAMPANACEÆ, 11 genera; viz. Campanula, Convolvulus, Evolvulus, Jasione, Ipomœa, Lobelia, Phyteuma, Polemonium, Roella, Trachelium, and Viola.

(309.) 30. CONTORTÆ, 17 genera; viz. Apocynum, Asclepias, Cameraria, Cerbera, Ceropegia, Cynanchum, Echites, Gardenia, Genipa, Microcnemum, Nerium, Periploca, Plumeria, Rauvolfia, Stapelia, Tabernæmontana, and Vinca.

(310.) 31. VEPRECULÆ, 9 genera; viz. Dais, Daphne, Dirca, Gnidia, Lachnæa, Passerina, Quisqualis, Stellera, and Thesium.

(311.) 32. PAPILIONACEÆ, 50 genera; viz. Abrus, Æschynomene, Amorpha, Anagyris, Anthyllis, Arachis, Aspalathus, Astragalis, Biserrula, Borbonia, Cicer, Clitoria, Colutea, Coronilla, Crotalaria, Cytisus, Dolichos, Ebenus, Ervum, Erythrina, Galega, Genista, Geoffroea, Glycine Glycyrrhiza, Hedysarum, Hippocrepis, Indigofera, Lathyrus, Lotus, Lupinus, Medicaga, Nissolia, Ononis, Ornithopus, Orobus, Phaca, Phaseolus, Psicidia, Pisum, Psoralea, Pterocarpus, Robinia, Scorpiurus, Sophora, Spartium, Trifolium, Trigonella, Vicia, and Ulex.

(312) 33. LORENTACEÆ, 14 genera; viz. Adenanthera, Bauhinia, Cæsalpinia, Cassia, Ceratonia, Cercis, Gleditsia, Guilandina, Hæmatoxylon, Hymenæa, Mimosa, Parkinsonia, Poinciana, and Polygala.

(313.) 34. CUCURBITACEÆ, 12 genera; viz. Anguria, Bryonia, Cucumis, Cucurbita, Elaterium, Fevillea, Gronovia, Melotheria, Momordica, Passiflora, Sicyos, and Trichosanthes.

(313.) 35. SENTICOSÆ, 12 genera; viz. Agrimonia, Alchemilla, Aphanes, Comarum, Dryas, Fragaria, Geum, Potentilla, Rosa, Rubus, Sibbaldia, and Tormentilla.

(315.) 36. POMACEÆ, 10 genera; viz. Amygdalus, Chrysobalanus, Cratægus, Mespilus, Prunus, Punica, Pyrus, Ribes, Scorbus, and Spiræa.

(316.) 37. COLUMNIFERÆ, 33 genera; Adansonia, Alcea, Althæa, Ayenia, Bixa, Bombax, Camellia, Corchorus, Grevia, Gossypium, Helicteres, Heliocarpus, Hermannia, Hibiscus, Kiggelaria, Kleinhovia, Lavatera, Malope, Malva, Melochia, Micropus, Muntingia, Napæa, Pentapetes, Sida, Stewartia, Thea, Theobroma, Tilia, Triumfetta, Turnera, Urena, and Waltheria.

(317.) 38. TRICOCCÆ, 27 genera; viz. Acalypha, Adelia, Andrachne, Buxus, Cambogia, Caprica, Cliffortia, Clutia, Cneorum, Croton, Cupania, Delechampia, Euphorbia, Excœcaria, Guettarda, Hernandria, Hippomane, Hura, Jatropha, Mercurialis, Phyllanthus, Plukenetia, Ricinus, Solandra, Stereulia, Tragia, and Triallis.

(318.) 39.

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(318.) 39. Siliquosæ, 30 genera; viz. Alyssum, Anastatica, Arabis, Biscutella, Brassica, Bunias, Cardamine, Cheiranthus, Clypeola, Cochlearia, Crambe, Dentaria, Draba, Erysimum, Heliophila, Hesperis, Iberis, Isatis, Lepidium, Lunaria, Myagrum, Peltaria, Raphanus, Ricotia, Sinapis, Sisymbrium, Subularia, Thlaspi, Turritis, and Vella.

(319.) 40. Personatæ, 54 genera; viz. Acanthus, Antirrhinum, Avicennia, Barleria, Bartsia, Besleria, Bignonia, Bontia, Buchnera, Capraria, Chelone, Citharexylon, Clerodendrum, Collinsonia, Columnea, Cornutia, Craniolaria, Cymbaria, Dianthera, Dodartia, Duranta, Erinus, Euphrasia, Gerardia, Gesneria, Gmelina, Gratiola, Halleria, Justicia, Lantana, Lathræa, Manulea, Martynia, Melampyrum, Mimulus, Obolaria, Orobanche, Ovieda, Pedicularis, Petrea, Phryma, Rhinanthus, Ruellia, Schwalbea, Scoparia, Scrophularia, Stemodia, Torenia, Tozzia, Vandellia, Verbena, Veronica, Vitex, and Volkameria.

(320.) 41. Asperifoliæ, 19 genera; viz. Anchusa, Asperugo, Borago, Cerinthe, Cordia, Cynoglossum, Echium, Ehretia, Heliotropium, Lithospermum, Lycopsis, Myosotis, Nolana, Onosma, Patagonula, Pulmonaria, Symphytum, Tournefortia, and Varronia.

(321.) 42. Verticillatæ, 40 genera; viz. Ajuga, Amethystea, Ballota, Betonica, Cleonia, Clinopodium, Cunila, Dracocephalum, Galeopsis, Glechoma, Horminum, Hyssopus, Lamium, Lavandula, Leonurus, Lycopus, Marrubium, Melissa, Melittis, Mentha, Moluccella, Monarda, Nepeta, Ocymum, Origanum, Orvala, Phlomis, Prasium, Prunella, Rosmarinus, Salvia, Satureia, Scutellaria, Sideritis, Stachys, Teucrium, Thymbra, Thymus, Trichostema, and Zizyphora.

(322.) 43. Dumosæ, 18 genera; viz. Achras, Calliocarpa, Cassine, Ceanothus, Celastrus, Chrysophyllum, Euonymus, Fagara, Ilex, Phylica, Prinos, Rhamnus, Rhus, Sambucus, Schinus, Sideroxylon, Tomex, and Viburnum.

(323.) 44. Sepiariæ, 8 genera; viz. Chionanthus, Fraxinus, Jasminum, Ligustrum, Nyctanthes, Olea, Phillyrea, and Syringa.

(324.) 45. Umbellatæ, 46 genera; viz. Ægopodium, Æthusa, Ammi, Anethum, Angelica, Apium, Arctopus, Artedia, Astrantia, Athamanta, Bubon, Bunium, Bupleurum, Cachrys, Carum, Caucalis, Chærophyllum, Cicuta, Conium, Coriandrum, Crithmum, Cuminum, Daucus, Echinophora, Eryngium, Ferula, Hasselquistia, Heracleum, Hydrocotyle, Imperatoria, Lasserpitium, Ligusticum, Oenanthe, Pastinaca, Peucedanum, Phellandrium, Pimpinella, Sanicula, Scandix, Selinum, Seseli, Sison, Sium, Smyrnium, Thapsia, and Tordylium.

(325.) 46. Hederaceæ, 6 genera; viz. Aralia, Cissus, Hedera, Panax, Vitis, and Zanthoxylum.

(326.) 47. Stellatæ, 23 genera; viz. Anthospermum, Asperula, Coffea, Cornus, Crucianella, Diodia, Galium, Hedyotis, Houstonia, Ixora, Knoxia, Lippia, Oldenlandia, Ophiorrhiza, Pavetta, Phyllis, Psychotria, Richardia, Rubia, Sherardia, Spermacoce, Spigelia, and Valantia.

(327.) 48. Agregatæ, 26 genera; viz. Allionia, Boerhaavia, Brunia, Cephalanthus, Chiococca, Circæa, Conocarpus, Dipsacus Globularia, Hartogia, Hebenstretia, Knautia, Leucadendron, Linnæa, Lonicera, Loranthus, Mitchella, Morina, Morinda, Protea, Scabiosa, Selago, Statica, Triosteum, Valeriana, and Viscum.

(328.) 49. Compositæ, 105 genera; viz. Achillea, Ageratum, Ambrosia, Amellus, Anacyclus, Andryala, Anthemis, Arctium, Arctotis, Arnica, Artemisia, Aster, Athanasia, Atractylis, Baccharis, Bellis, Bidens, Bupthalmum, Cacalia, Calea, Calendula, Carduus, Carlina, Carpesium, Carthamus, Catananche, Centaurea, Chondrilla, Chrysanthemum, Chrysocoma, Chrysogonum, Cichorium, Cineraria, Conyza, Coreopsis, Corymbium, Cotula, Crepis, Cynara, Doronicum, Echinops, Elephantopus, Erigeron, Eriocephalus, Ethulia, Eupatorium, Filago, Geropogon, Gnaphalium, Gorteria, Gundelia, Helenium, Helianthus, Hieracium, Hyoseris, Hypocherris, Inula, Iva, Kuhnia, Lactuca, Lapsana, Leontodon, Leysera, Matricaria, Melampodium, Micropus, Milleria, Onopordum, Osmites, Osteospermum, Othonna, Parthenium, Pectis, Perdicium, Picris, Polymnia, Prenanthes, Pteronia, Rudbeckia, Santolina, Scolymus, Scorzonera, Senecio, Seriola, Seriphium, Serratula, Sigesbeckia, Silphium, Solidago, Sonchus, Sphæranthus, Stæhelina, Stoebe, Strumpfia, Tagetes, Tanacetum, Tarchonanthus, Tetragonotheca, Tragopogon, Tridax, Tussilago, Verbesina, Xanthium, Xeranthemum, and Zinnia.

(329.) 50. Amentaceæ, 13 genera; viz. Betula, Carpinus, Corylus, Cynomorium, Fagus, Juglans, Myrica, Pistacia, Platanus, Populus, Quercus, Salix, and Sloanea.

(330.) 51. Coniferæ, 7 genera; viz. Cupressus, Ephedra, Equisetus, Juniperus, Pinus, Taxus, and Thuja.

(331.) 52. Coadunatæ, 6 genera; viz. Annona, Liriodendron, Magnolia, Michelia, Uvaria, and Xylopia.

(332.) 53. Scabridæ, 13 genera; viz. Acnida, Bosea, Cannabis, Cecropia, Celtis, Dorstenia, Ficus, Humulus, Morus, Parietaria, Theligonum, Ulmus, and Urtica.

(333.) 54. Miscellaneæ, 21 genera; viz. Achyranthes, Amaranthus, Cedrela, Celosia, Coriaria, Corrigiola, Datisca, Empetrum, Gomphrena, Iresine, Lemna, Limeum, Nymphæa, Phytolacca, Pistia, Poterium, Reseda, Sanguisorba, Sarracena, Swietenia, and Telephium.

(334.) 55. Filices, 15 genera; viz. Acrostichum, Adianthum, Asplenium, Blechnum, Hemionitis, Isoetes, Lonchitis, Marsilea, Onoclea, Ophioglossum, Osmunda, Pilularia, Polypodium, Pteris, and Trichomanes.

(335.) 56. Musci, 11 genera; viz. Bryum, Buxbaumia, Fontinalis, Hypnum, Lycopodium, Mnium, Phascum, Polytrichum, Porella, Sphagnum, and Splachnum.

(336.) 57. Algæ. This order comprehends the whole class of sea weeds, and some other aquatic plants, but the genera have not yet been accurately enumerated.

(337.) 58. Fungi, 11 genera; viz. Agaricus, Boletus, Byssus, Clathrus, Clavaria, Elvela, Hydnum, Lycoperdon, Mucor, Peziza, and Phallus.

(338.) Dubii Ordinis genera are about 120. See *Linnæi Frag. Method. Nat.*

(339.) We

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(339.) We ſhall conclude with two examples of the ſyſtematic methods of deſcribing plants: by giving, 1. a deſcription of a plant, according to the *natural* character, from the *Genera Plantarum*; and 2. according to the *eſſential* character, with the ſeveral ſpecies, from the *Syſtema Vegetabilium*, tranſlated by the Litchfield Society.

(340.) PAPAVER, Poppy.

NATURAL CHARACTER.

CALYX. A perianthium two leaved, ovate, end-nick'd; *leaflets* ſubovate, concave, obtuſe, deciduous.

COROLLA. Petals four, roundiſh, flat, expanding, large, narrower at the baſe, leſs alternately.

STAMINA. Filaments numerous, capillary, much ſhorter than the corolla: *antheræ* oblong, compreſſed, erect, obtuſe.

PISTILLUM. Germ roundiſh, large: *ſtylus* none; *ſtigma* pellated, flat, radiated.

PERICARPIUM. A capſule crowned with the large flat ſtigma, unilocular, ſemi-multi-unilocular, gaping at the top under the crown with many apertures.

SEMINA. Seeds, numerous, very ſmall; *receptacles*, longitudinal folds, of equal number with the rays of the ſtigma adhering to the ſides of the pericarpium.

(341.) ESSENTIAL CHARACTER.

PAPAVER. *Corolla* four-petal'd, *calyx* two-leav'd, *capſule* one-celled, gaping with pores under the permanent ſtigma. *Poppy.*

* *With hiſpid capſules.*

1 P. HYBRYDUM. Capſules ſubglobular, brawny, hiſpid, ſtem leafy, many flowered. *mule.*

2 P. ARGEMONE. Capſules club'd, hiſpid, ſtem leafy, many flower'd.

3 P. ALPINUM. Capſules hiſpid, ſcape one-flower'd, naked, hiſpid, leaves twice feather'd. *alpine.*

4 P. NUDICAULE. Capſules, hiſpid, ſcape one flower'd, naked, hiſpid, leaves ſimple, feather-ſinuous. *naked ſtem.*

** *With ſmooth capſules.*

5 P. RHOEAS. Capſules ſmooth, globular, ſtem hairy, many-flower'd, leaves feather-cleft, gaſh'd.

6 P. DUBIUM. Capſules oblong, ſmooth, ſtem many-flower'd, with briſtles appreſs'd, leaves feather-cleft, gaſh'd. *dubious.*

7 P. SOMNIFERUM. Calyx and capſules ſmooth, leaves ſtem-claſping, gaſh'd. *ſomniferous.*

8 P. CAMBRICUM. Capſules ſmooth, oblong, ſtem many-flower'd, poliſh'd, leaves feather'd, gaſh'd.

9 P. ORIENTALE. Capſules ſmooth, ſtem one flower'd, rugged, leafy, leaves feather'd, ſaw'd. *orientale.*

(342.) To enable the young botaniſt to underſtand the various technical terms here uſed, as well as to conſult more extenſive works upon the Science, we ſubjoin the following GLOSSARY.

N. B. *Words not inſerted in the* GLOSSARY, *will be found fully explained in the preceding Treatiſe, upon conſulting the* INDEX.

(343.) GLOSSARY *of* BOTANICAL TERMS.

A.

Abbreviatum perianthium, a ſhortened cup, when the cup is ſhorter than the tube of the flower.

Abortiens flos, a barren flower, ſuch as produces no fruit.

Abrupta folia pinnata, winged leaves, ending without either foliole or cirrhus.

Acaulis, without ſtalk or ſtem.

Aceroſa folia, chaffy leaves, when they are linear and abiding.

Acicularis, needle-ſhaped.

Acinaciform, falchion or ſcimetar-ſhaped.

Acini, the ſmall berries of a mulberry or bramble.

Acotyledones, plants whoſe ſeeds have no cotyledons or ſeminal leaves.

Aculei, prickles, fixed in the ſurface of the bark.

Aculeatus caulis, a ſtalk or ſtem furniſhed with prickles.

Acuminatum folium, a leaf ending in a point.

Acutum folium, a leaf terminating in an acute angle.

Adnatum folium, the diſk of the leaf preſſing cloſe to the ſtem of the plant.

Adpreſſum folium, the diſk of the leaf preſſed to the ſtem.

Adſcendens caulis, or *ramus*, a ſtalk or branch inclining upwards.

Adverſum folium, an oppoſite leaf.

Alæ, wings, the ſide petals of a papilionaceous bloſſom, or membranes added to a ſeed, ſtalk, &c.

Alated, winged.

Alatus petiolus, the footſtalk of a leaf winged with membranes.

Alburnum, the white ſubſtance that lies between the inner bark and the wood of trees.

Alterni rami folia, leaves that come out ſingly, and follow alternately in gradual order.

Alveolated, deeply pitted; reſembling a honeycomb.

Amentum, a thong, or a catkin.

Amplexicaule folium, a leaf embracing the ſtalk, when the baſe of the leaf embraces the ſtem ſideways.

Anceps caulis, a double edged ſtalk, *i. e.* compreſſed, and forming two oppoſite acute angles.

Ancipitous, two-edged.

Angulatus caulis, an angulated ſtalk.

Anguſtifolious, narrow-leaved.

Angioſpermia, plants whoſe ſeeds are covered with a capſule.

Annua radix, an annual root; that which lives but one year.

Anthera, the ſummit of the ſtamen.

Apertura, an opening in ſome ſpecies of antheræ.

Apetalous, having no petals or corolla.

Apex, the top or ſummit.

Aphyllous, deſtitute of leaves.

Apophyſis, an excreſcence from the receptacle of the muſci.

Appendiculatus petiolus, a little appendage hanging from the extremity of the foot-ſtalk.

Appreſſed, approaching to the ſtem.

Approximata folia, leaves growing near each other.

Arbor, a tree.

Arboreus, arboreſcent; of the nature of a tree; producing buds.

Arbuſtiva, a copſe of ſhrubs or trees.

Arcuatum legumen, a curved or bent pod.

Ariſta, the beard of corn or graſſes.

Articu-

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Articulatus caulis, a ſtem with knots or joints.
Articulus culmi, the ſtraight part of the ſtalk between the two joints.
Aſſurgentia folia, leaves firſt bent down, but riſing erect towards the apex.
Attenuatus pedunculus, a foot-ſtalk that grows ſmaller towards the flower.
Auctus calyx, an augmented flower cup, having a ſeries of diſtinct leaves, ſhorter than its own, that ſurround its baſe.
Avenia folia, leaves which have no viſible veins.
Auriculatum folium, an ear-ſhaped leaf, when the leaf towards the baſe has a lobe on each ſide.
Axillaria folia, leaves growing out of the angles formed by the branches and the ſtem.

B.

Barbo, a beard, a ſpecies of pubeſcence, ſometimes on the leaves of plants.
Barbata folia, leaves terminated by a bunch of ſtrong hairs.
Bicapſular, having two capſules.
Biennis radix, a biennial root, which continues to vegetate two years.
Bifaria folia, leaves pointing two ways.
Biferæ plantæ, leaves that flower twice a year.
Bifidum folium, a leaf divided into two parts.
Biflorus pedunculus, a foot-ſtalk bearing two flowers.
Bigeminum folium, a forked foot-ſtalk, with two little leaves on the apex of each diviſion.
Bijugum folium, a winged leaf bearing two pair of foliola.
Bilabiata corolla, a corolla with two lips.
Bilobatum folium, a leaf conſiſting of two lobes.
Binatum folium, a digitate leaf, conſiſting of two foliola.
Bipartitum folium, a leaf divided into two ſegments.
Pinnatum folium, a double winged leaf, when the folioles of a pinnate leaf are alſo pinnate.
Biternatum folium, a leaf where there are 3 folioles on a petiole, and each foliole is ternate.
Bivalve, conſiſting of two valves.
Brachiatus caulis, a ſtem branching in pairs; each pair ſtanding at right angles with thoſe above and below.
Brachium, the arm, the 10th degree in the Linnæan ſcale for meaſuring plants, being 24 Pariſian inches.
Bracteatus, having a bractea growing out of it.
Bulbiferus caulis, a ſtalk bearing bulbs, as in lilium bulbiferum.
Bulboſa radix, a bulbous root.
Bullatum folium, a leaf whoſe ſurface riſes above the veins, ſo as to appear like bliſters.

C.

Caducus calyx, a flower cup that falls off at the firſt opening of the flower.
Calcariatus, reſembling a ſpur.
Calyculatus calyx, a little calyx added to a larger one.
Calyptra, a veil or covering.
Campanulata corolla, a bell-ſhaped flower.
Canaliculata folia, leaves having a deep channel running from the baſe to the apex.
Capillaceum folium, a capillary leaf.
Capillaris pappus, hairy down.
Capillus, hair, the firſt degree of the Linnæan ſcale for meaſuring plants; the diameter of a hair, and the 12th part of a line.
Capitati flores, flowers collected into heads.
Capitulum, a little head, a ſpecies of inflorescence, in which the flowers are connected into cloſe heads on the tops of the peduncles, as in gomphrena.
Capreolus, a tendril.
Capſula, a little cheſt or capſule.
Carina, a keel, the lower petal of the papilionaceous corolla.
Carinatum folium, a leaf whoſe back reſembles the keel of a ſhip.
Carnoſum folium, a fleſhy leaf.
Cartilagineum folium, a leaf whoſe brim is furniſhed with a margin of different ſubſtance from the diſk.
Caryophyllæus flos, a flower growing like a carnation.
Catenulata ſcabrities, a ſpecies of glandular roughneſs, hardly viſible, reſembling little chains, on the ſurface of ſome plants.
Caudex, the ſtem of a tree.
Cauleſcens, having a ſtalk or ſtem.
Caulina folia, leaves growing immediately on the ſtem.
Caulis, a ſtem, a ſpecies of trunk.
Cernuus, nodding or hanging down the head.
Ceſpitoſæ, plants which produce many ſtems from one root, and form a ſurface of turf or ſod.
Ciliatum, ciliated, with the margin guarded by parallel briſtles, formed like the eye-laſh.
Circinalia folia, leaves within the bud, rolled ſpirally downward.
Circumſciſſa capſula, a capſule cut tranſverſely.
Cirrhiferus pedunculus, a peduncle bearing a tendril.
Cirrhoſum folium, a leaf that terminates in a tendril.
Cirrhus, a claſper or tendril.
Claſſis, a claſs, defined by Linnæus to be an agreement of ſeveral genera in the parts of fructification, according to the principles of nature diſtinguiſhed by art.
Clavatus petiolus, or *pedunculus*, a foot-ſtalk with the leaf or flower club-ſhaped, tapering from the baſe to its apex.
Clavicula, a little key, or tendril.
Clauſa corolla, a corolla with its neck cloſe ſhut in with valves.
Coarctati rami, branches cloſe together.
Cochleatum legumen, a pod like the ſhell of a ſnail, as in medicago.
Coloratum folium, a leaf of any colour different from green.
Columnella, a little column, the ſubſtance that paſſes through the capſule, and connects the ſeveral partitions and ſeeds.
Columniferæ, pillar-ſhaped.
Coma, a buſh, a ſpecies of fulcrum, compoſed of large bractææ, which terminate the ſtalk.
Communis gemma, the common contents of the bud, both flower and fruit.
Communis calyx, a common flower cup containing both receptacle and flower.
Comoſa radix, a bulbous root with fibres reſembling hair.
Compactum folium, a leaf of a compact and ſolid ſubſtance.

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Completus flos, a complete flower, having a perianthium and corolla.

Compositus caulis, a compound ſtem, diminiſhing as it aſcends.

Compoſitum folium, a compound leaf, when the petiole bears more than one leaf.

Compreſſum folium, a leaf reſembling a cylinder compreſſed on the oppoſite ſides.

Concavum folium, a hollowed leaf, the margin forming an arch with the diſk.

Conceptaculum, a receiver.

Conduplicatum folium, a leaf doubled together, when the ſides are parallel, and approach.

Conferti rami, branches crowded together.

Confertus verticillus, a ſpecies of infloreſcence, wherein flowers and leaves are crowded, and formed into whorls round the ſtalk.

Confluentia folia, leaves flowing together, as in the pinnated leaf, when the pinnæ run into one another.

Conglobatus flos, a flower collected into a globular head.

Conglomerati flores, flowers irregularly crowded together.

Congeſta umbella, flowers collected into a ſpherical ſhape.

Conica ſcabrities, a ſpecies of cetaceous ſcabrities, formed like cones, ſcarce viſible, on the ſurface of plants.

Coniferæ, plants bearing cones.

Conjugatum folium, a pinnated leaf, where the folioles come by pairs.

Connata folia, two oppoſite leaves united at their baſe, ſo as to have the appearance of one leaf.

Connivens corolla, a corolla wherein the apices of the petals converge ſo as to cloſe the flower.

Conniventes antheræ, antheræ approaching together.

Continuatum folium, a continued leaf, or one which appears to be a continuation of the ſubſtance of the ſtalk.

Contrariæ valvulæ, contrary valves, *i. e.* when the diſſepimentum is placed tranſverſely between them.

Convexum folium, a leaf riſing from the margin to the centre of the leaf.

Convolutus cirrhus, a tendril twining in the ſame direction with the ſun's motion.

Convolutum folium, a leaf rolled up like a ſcroll.

Cordatum folium, a heart ſhaped leaf.

Cordiformis, ſhaped like a heart.

Corolla, a wreath or little crown.

Corollula, a little corolla.

Corona ſeminis, a crown adhering to many kinds of ſeeds ſerving them as wings, which enables them to diſperſe.

Cortex, the outer rind or bark.

Crenatum folium, a notched leaf.

Criſpum folium, a curled leaf, when the circumference becomes larger than the diſk admits of.

Criſtatus flos, a flower with a tufted creſt.

Cruciated flowers, } croſs-ſhaped flowers, conſiſt-
Cruciformes flores, } ing of 4 petals diſpoſed in the form of a croſs.

Cubitus, a cubit, the 9th degree of the Linnæan ſcale for meaſuring plants, from the elbow to the extrimity of the middle finger, or 17 Pariſian inches.

Cucullata folia, leaves rolled up lengthways in the form of a cone.

Culmen, the top or crown of any thing.

Culmus, a reed or ſtraw, the ſtem of a graſs.

Cuneiforme folium, a wedge-ſhaped leaf.

Cuſpidatum folium, a leaf whoſe apex reſembles the point of a ſpear.

Cyathiformis corolla, a flower of the form of a cup.

Cylindracea ſpica, a ſpike in the form of a cylinder.

Cymbiform, keel-ſhaped.

D.

Dædalium folium, a leaf whoſe texture is remarkably beautiful.

Debilis caulis, a weak, feeble ſtalk.

Decaphyllus calyx, a calyx conſiſting of ten leaves.

Decidua folia, leaves that fall off in winter.

Declinatus caulis, a ſtalk bending towards the earth.

Decompoſitum folium, when a petiole once divided connects many folioles.

Decumbens, lying down.

Decurrens folium, a leaf running down, is applied to the baſe of a ſeſſile leaf extending itſelf downwards along the ſtem, beyond the proper termination of the leaf.

Decurſive folium pinnatum, a pinnated leaf, wherein the baſes of the foliole are continued along the ſides of the petiolus.

Decuſſata folia, } leaves growing in pairs, and
Decuſſated leaves, } oppoſite to each other.

Deflexus ramus, a branch bent a little downwards.

Defloratæ ſtamina, ſtamina that have ſhed their farina.

Defoliatio, the falling of the leaves.

Deltoides folium, a leaf like the Greek Δ.

Demerſa folia, leaves ſunk in the water.

Dentata folia, leaves having horizontal points of the ſame conſiſtence with the leaf, and ſtanding at a little diſtance from each other.

Dependens folium, a leaf pointing towards the ground.

Depreſſum folium, a leaf preſſed down, when the ſides riſe higher than the diſk.

Dichonomi caules, forked ſtalks, when the diviſions come by two and two.

Dicotyledones, plants whoſe ſeeds have two cotyledons, that are the placenta of the embryo plant, and afterwards the ſeed leaves.

Didymæ antheræ, twin antheræ, *i. e.* when they occur by two on each filament.

Didynamia, the ſuperiority of two.

Diformia folia, leaves on the ſame plant of different forms.

Diffuſi caules, the branches of a ſtalk ſpread different ways.

Digitatum folium, a fingered leaf, *i. e.* when the apex of a petiole connects many folioles.

Dimidiatum, halved.

Dipetalous, conſiſting of two petals.

Diphyllous, conſiſting of two leaves.

Diſcus, a diſk, the middle part of a radiate compound flower.

Diſpermous plants, plants producing their ſeeds by two.

Diſſecta folia, leaves cut into diviſions.

Diſſepimentum, a partition of the fruit, which divides the pericarpium into cells.

Diſſiliens ſiliqua, a pod that burſts with elaſticity.

Diſtans

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Diſtans verticulus, a ſpecies of inflorescence, wherein the whorls of verticillate flowers ſtand at a great diſtance from one another.
Diſticha folia, leaves in two rows, on two ſides of the branches only.
Divaricati rami, branches ſtanding wide from each other in different directions.
Divergentes rami, branches widening gradually.
Dodrans, the 7th degree in the Linnæan ſcale for meaſuring the parts of plants, or nine Pariſian inches.
Dodrantalis, 9 inches long.
Dolabriforme folium, a leaf reſembling an axe.
Dorſalis ariſta, an awn, fixed to the back of the gluma.
Drupa, a pulpy pericarpium.
Duplica radix, a double root, a ſpecies of bulbous root, conſiſting of two ſolid bulbs.
Duplicato ſerratum folium, a leaf ſawed double, with leſſer teeth within the greater.

E.

Ebracteatus, without a bractea.
Ecaudata corolla, a corolla without a tail or ſpur
Echinatum pericarpium, a pod beſet with prickles, like a hedge-hog.
Efflorescentiæ tempus, the time of efflorescence, when a plant ſhews its firſt flowers.
Elliptical, reſembling an oval.
Emarginated, terminated by a notch.
Enervia folia, leaves having no apparent nerves.
Enneapetala corolla, a flower conſiſting of 9 petals.
Enodis, having no knots or joints.
Enſatæ, plants having ſword-ſhaped leaves.
Enſiformia folia, leaves ſhaped like a two-edged ſword, tapering towards the point.
Epiphylloſpermous, bearing the fruit on the back of the leaf.
Equitantia folia, leaves riding, *i. e.* when their ſides approach ſo, that the outer embrace the inner.
Erectus, upright, perpendicular.
Erosum folium, a gnawed leaf, *i. e.* when the margin appears as if it were gnawed or bitten.
Exſerta ſtamina, ſtamina ſtanding forth, when they appear above the corolla.
Exſtipulatus, without ſtipulæ.
Exſuccum folium, a leaf whoſe ſubſtance is dry.
Extrafoliaceæ ſtipulæ, ſtipulæ growing on the outſide of the leaves.

F.

Farctum folium, a ſtuffed leaf.
Faſciata planta, a plant with many ſtalks grown together, like a bundle.
Faſcicular, conſiſting of fleſhy parts connected to the baſe without the intervention of threads.
Faſcicularis radix, a bundled root, *i. e.* tuberous roots growing in bundles.
Faſciculata folia, bundled leaves; growing in bunches.
Faſtigiati pedunculi, peduncules pointed at the apex.
Fauces, } the jaws, or opening between the ſeg-
Faux, } ments of a corolla, where the tube terminates.
Fibroſa radix, a fibrous root.
Filamentum, from *filum*, a thread, the part that ſupports the antheræ.
Filiform, thread-ſhaped.
Fimbricata petala, fringed petals.
Fiſſum folium, a leaf ſplit half way down.
Fiſtuloſus caulis, a hollow ſtem.
Flabellatum folium, a fan-ſhaped leaf.
Flaccidus pedunculus, the foot-ſtalk of a ſlender flower.
Flagellum, a twig, or ſhoot, like a whip.
Fleſhy, filled with a firm pulp.
Flexoſus caulis, a ſtalk having many turnings or bendings, taking a different direction at every joint.
Floralia folia, floral leaves, that immediately attend the flower.
Floralis gemma, a flower-bud.
Flos, a flower.
Floſculus, a little flower.
Foliaceæ glandulæ, glands growing on the leaves.
Foliaris cirrhus, a tendril growing from a leaf.
Foliaris gemmatio, a leaf bud.
Foliatio plantæ, the complication of the leaves, whilſt folded within the bud.
Foliatus caulis, a leafy ſtalk.
Folifera gemma, a bud producing leaves.
Foliolum, a little leaf, one of the ſingle leaves, ſeveral of which united conſtitute a compound leaf.
Foliоſum capitulum, a leafy head, *i. e.* covered with leaves amongſt the flowers or tops of the plant.
Folium, a leaf.
Folliculus, a little bag.
Fornicatum petalum, a vaulted or arched petal.
Frequens planta, a common plant, growing every where.
Frondeſcentiæ tempus, the ſeaſon when the leaves of plants are unfolded.
Frondoſus cordex, a ſpecies of trunk compoſed of a branch and a leaf blended together.
Fructeſcentiæ tempus, the time when a plant ſcatters its ripe ſeeds.
Fructificatio, the temporary part of a vegetable appropriated to generation, terminating the old plant and beginning the new.
Fruſtranea, to no purpoſe.
Frutex, a ſhrub.
Fruticoſus caulis, a ſhrubby ſtalk.
Fugaciſſima petala, petals of ſhort duration.
Fulcratus caulis, a branch having a prop.
Fulcrum, a prop or ſupport.
Furcata, forked.
Fuſiform, ſpindle-ſhaped.

G.

Galea, a helmet, applied to the corolla of the claſs gynandria.
Galeatum labium, the lip of a flower, ſhaped like a helmet.
Geminæ ſtipulæ, ſtipulæ growing in pairs.
Geminatus pedunculus, a double foot-ſtalk growing from one point.
Gemmiparous, bearing buds.
Geniculatus, jointed.
Geniculæ, little joints.
Germen, a ſprout or bud.
Gibbum folium, a leaf bunching out.
Glaber, ſmooth, having an even ſurface.
Glabrous, of a ſlippery nature.
Gladiata filiqua, a ſword-ſhaped pod.
Glandulæ, glands, or ſecretory veſſels.

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Glandulifera scabrities, a kind of bristly roughness on the surface of some plants, on which there are minute glands at the extremity of each bristle.

Glareosi loci, gravelly places.

Glaucophyllus, an azure coloured leaf.

Globosa radix, a round root.

Globularis scabrities, a species of glandular roughness, scarce visible to the naked eye, the small grains of which are exactly globular.

Glochoides, the small points of the pubes of plants. Linnæus applies this term only to the hami triglochoides, with 3 hooked points.

Glomeratæ spicæ, flowers crowded together in a globular form.

Gluma, a husk or chaff.

Glutinosity, a slippery juice like glue or paste.

Gramina, grasses.

Granulatæ radices, } consisting of many little knobs,
Granulated roots, } like seeds or grain, attached to one another by small strings.

Gymnospermous, naked seeded.

Gynandria, male and female parts united.

H.

Hamosæ setæ, hooked bristles.

Hamus, a hook; an acuminated crooked point.

Hastata folia, leaves resembling the head of a spear.

Hemisphericus calyx, a half round flower cup.

Herba, an herb; the part of the vegetable arising from the root, terminated by the fructification, and comprehending the stem, leaf, props, and hybernacula.

Herbaceæ plantæ, perennial plants, which annually perish down to the root.

Herbaces caules, stalks that die annually.

Hexagonus caulis, a stalk with six angles.

Hexapetalæ corollæ, flowers consisting of six petals.

Hexaphyllus calyx, a flower cup consisting of six leaves.

Hians corolla, a gaping flower.

Hirsutus, rough, hairy.

Hispidus caulis, a stalk covered with strong fragile bristles.

Holeraceæ, pot herbs.

Horizontalis flos, a horizontal flower, growing with its disk parallel to the horizon.

Hybridæ plantæ, mule plants.

Hypocrateriformis corolla, a monopetalous flower, shaped like a cup or salver.

I J.

Imberbis corolla, a flower without a beard.

Imbricatus, tiled, *i. e.* when the scales of a stalk, or flower cup, lie over one another like tiles upon a house.

Immutatæ, unaltered.

Impar, odd, applied to a pinnated leaf terminating in an odd lobe.

Inane, filled with spongy matter.

Inanis caulis, a hollow or empty stalk.

Incana folia, leaves covered with whitish down.

Incisa folia, leaves cut into irregular segments.

Incompletus flos, an imperfect flower without petals.

Incrassati pedunculi, foot stalks that increase in thickness as they approach the flowers.

Incumbens anthera, an anthera affixed to the filament sideways.

Incurvatus caulis, a stalk bowed towards the earth.

Individuum folium, an undivided leaf.

Inerme folium, a leaf unarmed, *i. e.* without prickles.

Inferus flos, a flower whose receptacle is situated below the germen.

Inflated, puffed out like a bladder.

Inflexa folia, bending inwards to the stem.

Infundibuliform, shaped like a funnel.

Insertus petiolus, a foot-stalk inserted into the stem.

Integrum folium, an undivided leaf.

Integerrimum folium, an entire leaf, whose margin is destitute of incisions.

Interfoliaceus pedunculus, a flower-stalk arising from between opposite leaves.

Interrupta spica, a spike of flowers interrupted by small clusters of flowers between the larger ones.

Interruptum folium pinnatum, the large folioles of a winged leaf, interrupted alternately by pairs of smaller ones.

Intorsion, twisting to one side.

Intrafoliaceæ stipulæ, stipulæ growing on the inside of the leaves of a plant.

Inundata loca is applied by Linnæus to places that are overflowed only in winter.

Involucellum, a partial involucrum.

Involucrum, a cover.

Involuta folia, leaves rolled in, *i. e.* when their lateral margins are rolled spirally inwards on both sides.

Irregularis flos, an irregular flower.

Juba, a crest of feathers.

Iulus, a catkin.

K.

Kernel, a seed covered with a shell.

Kidney-shaped, having a notch cut out of the base, without posterior angles.

L.

Labiatus flos, a lipped flower.

Lacera folia, leaves whose margin is cut into segments, as if rent or torn.

Laciniæ, segments or divisions.

Laciniatum folium, a leaf cut into irregular segments.

Lactescentia, milkiness.

Lacunosa folia, leaves deeply furrowed, by the veins being sunk below the surface.

Lacustres plantæ, plants which grow in lakes.

Lævis, smooth, having an even surface.

Lamina, a thin plate, the upper expanded part of a polypetalous flower.

Lana, wool, a species of pubescence, which covers the surface of plants.

Lanatum folium, a woolly or downy leaf.

Lanceolatum folium, a lance-shaped leaf.

Lappet, the superior spreading part of a monopetalous corolla.

Laterales flores, flowers coming from the sides.

Laxus caulis, a loose or slender stalk.

Leguminous plants, plants whose seeds are inclosed in pods.

Lenticularis scabrities, a species of glandular scabrities, in the form of lentils.

Leprosus, spotted like a leopard.

Liber, the inner rind of a plant.

Lignosis caulis, a woody stem.

Lignum,

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Lignum, wood.

Ligulated, *Ligulatus flos*, a flower whose petals are tubulated at the base, plain on the outside, linear towards the middle, and widest at the extremity, in form of a bandage.

Liliaceous, like a lily.

Limbus, a border, the upper expanded part of a monopetalous flower.

Linea, a line, the second degree in the Linnæan scale for measuring plants; the 12th part of an inch.

Lineare folium, a narrow leaf, whose opposite margins are almost parallel.

Lineata folia, leaves whose superficies are marked with parallel lines, running lengthways.

Lingulatum folium, a leaf shaped like a tongue.

Lobata folia, *Lobed leaves*, leaves divided to the middle into parts that stand wide from each other, and have their margins convex.

Loculamentum, a cell, a division of a capsula.

Locus foliorum, the particular part of a plant to which the leaf is affixed.

Lomentaceous, like bean meal.

Longiusculus, somewhat long.

Longum perianthium, a long perianthium, *i. e.* when the tube of the calyx is equal in length to that of the corollæ.

Lucidum folium, a clear shining leaf.

Lunata folia, moon-shaped leaves, round and hollowed at the base like a half moon.

Lunulated, shaped like a crescent.

Luridus, pale, wan, or dismal.

Lyratum folium, a leaf shaped like a lyre.

M.

Marcescens corolla, a flower withering on the plant.

Margo folii, the margin of the leaf.

Masculus flos, a male flower, containing antheræ, but no stigma.

Masked flower, a flower gaping, but shut close between the lips.

Mas planta, a male plant.

Matrix, a seed vessel.

Medulla, marrow, the pith of a plant.

Membranacea folia, leaves which have no distinguishable pulp between their surfaces.

Membranatus caulis, a stalk covered with thick membranes.

Milky plants, plants whose juices are white, red, or yellow.

Monocotyledones, plants whose seeds have a single cotyledon.

Monœcia, one house.

Monopetalous, having but one petal.

Monophyllous, consisting of one leaf.

Monospermous, having one seed.

Miliaria scabrities, a species of glandular roughness on some plants, like grains of millet.

Mucronatum folium, a leaf terminating in a sharp point.

Multifidum folium, a leaf divided into many linear segments.

Multiflorous, bearing many flowers.

Multipartitum folium, a leaf divided into many parts.

Multifiliquæ, plants with many pods.

Muricatus caulis, a stalk, whose surface is covered with sharp points, like the murex.

Muticous, without a beard or prickle.

N.

Naked, without bristles or hairs.

Natans folium, a leaf which swims on the surface of water.

Navicularis valvula, the valve of a seed vessel resembling a ship.

Nervosum folium, a leaf whose surface is full of nerves or strings.

Nervous, having unconnected small vessels, like nerves, running from the base to the top.

Nidulantia semina, seeds in the pulp of a berry.

Nitidum folium, a bright glossy leaf.

Nucleus, a kernel.

Nudus, naked.

Nutans caulis, a nodding stalk.

O.

Obcordatum petalum, a heart-shaped petal, with its apex downwards.

Obliquum folium, a leaf whose apex points obliquely towards the horizon.

Oblongum folium, an oblong leaf.

Obsolcta lobata folia, leaves having lobes scarce discernible.

Obtusa folia, leaves rounded at the apex.

Obvoluta folia, leaves rolled against each other, when their respective margins alternately embrace the straight margin of the opposite leaf.

Officinalis, plants used in medicine, and kept in the apothecaries shops.

Operculum, a cover.

Oppositifolius, *Oppositi rami folia*, branches and leaves that grow by pairs opposite each other.

Orbiculatum folium, a round leaf.

Orgya, a fathom, or six Parisian feet.

Ovale folium, an oval leaf.

Ovarium, the germen.

Ovatum folium, an egg-shaped leaf.

P.

Pagina folii, the surface of a leaf.

Palea, chaff, a thin membrane rising from a common receptacle, which separates the flosculi.

Paleaceus pappus, chaffy down.

Palmata radix, a handed root.

Palmatum folium, a leaf shaped like an open hand.

Palustris, marshy or fenny.

Panduriforum, shaped like a guitar.

Papilionaceous, butterfly-shaped.

Papillosum folium, a leaf covered with dots or points like nipples.

Pappus, down.

Papulosum folium, a leaf whose surface is covered with pimples.

Parabolical, in form of a parabola.

Parallelum dissepimentum, the dissepiment parallel to the sides of the pericarpium.

Parasiticæ plantæ, plants that grow only out of other plants.

Partialis umbella, a partial umbel.

Partiale involucrum, a cover at the base of the partial umbel.

Partitum folium, a divided leaf.

Parvum perianthium, a little flower cup.

Patens, spreading.

Patulus calyx, a spreading cup.

Pauciflorous, having few flowers.

Pedalis caulis, a stalk a foot in height.

Pedatum folium, a species of compound leaf, whose divisions resemble the toes of the foot.

Pedicellus,

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Pedicellus, a little foot-ſtalk.
Peduncularis cirrhus, a tendril proceeding from the foot-ſtalk of a flower.
Pedunculati flores, flowers growing on foot-ſtalks.
Pedunculus, the foot-ſtalk of a flower.
Peltatum folium, a leaf, in which the foot-ſtalk is inſerted into its diſk, inſtead of its baſe.
Penicilliforme ſtigma, a ſtigma in the form of a painter's pencil,
Pentagonus caulis, a five-angled ſtalk.
Pentapetalous, conſiſting of 5 petals.
Pentaphyllous, conſiſting of 5 leaves.
Perennial, continuing for many years.
Perfecti flores, flowers having petals; the perfect flowers of Ray, Tournefort, and other botaniſts.
Perfoliatum folium, a leaf whoſe baſe entirely ſurrounds the ſtem, or through whoſe centre the ſtalk grows.
Perforati cotyledones, perforated cotyledons.
Perianthium, *i. e.* ſurrounding the flower, a ſpecies of calyx.
Pericarpium, *i. e.* round the fruit, a pod.
Perichætium, a circular tuft of fine hair-like leaves, ſurrounding the baſes of the filaments in the muſci and algæ.
Petaliforme ſtigma, a ſtigma reſembling the ſhape of a petal.
Petaloides flos, a flower having petals.
Petiolaris cirrhus, a tendril proceeding from the foot-ſtalk of a leaf.
Petiolatum folium, a leaf growing on a foot-ſtalk.
Petiolus, a little foot-ſtalk.
Pileus, a hat or bonnet, the orbicular expanſion of a muſhroom, which covers the fructification.
Piloſum folium, a leaf whoſe ſurface is covered with long diſtinct hairs.
Pinnatifidum folium, a winged leaf; applied to ſimple leaves whoſe laciniæ are tranſverſe to the rachiæ.
Pinnatum folium, a winged leaf.
Pixidatum folium, a kind of foliage, where one leaf is let into another by a joint.
Planipetalous, with plain flat petals.
Planum folium, a plain flat leaf.
Plicatum folium, a plaited leaf.
Plumata ſeta, a feathered briſtle.
Plumoſus pappus, a kind of ſoft down.
Pollex, a thumb, the length of the firſt joint of the thumb, or a Pariſian inch.
Polycotyledones, many cotyledons.
Polygamia, many marriages.
Polygynia, many females.
Polypetalous, conſiſting of many petals.
Polyphyllous, conſiſting of many leaves.
Polyſpermous, containing many ſeeds.
Polyſtachius culmus, a ſtalk of graſs having many ſpikes.
Præmorſa radix, a bitten root, ending abruptly.
Priſmaticus calyx, a triangular flower-cup.
Procumbent, lying on the ground.
Prominulous, jetting out beyond the valves.
Pronum diſcum foliii, a leaf with its face downwards.
Proprium involucrum, an involucrum at the baſe of an umbellated flower.
Pulpoſum folium, a pulpy leaf.
Pulveratum folium, a leaf powdered with a kind of duſt like meal.
Punctatum folium, a leaf ſprinkled with hollow dots or points.
Putamineous, like a ſhell.

Q.

Quadrangulare folium, a leaf with 4 prominent angles in the edge of its diſk.
Quadrifidum folium, a leaf divided into 4 parts.
Quadrijugum folium, a leaf having 4 pair of folioles.
Quadrilobum folium, a leaf conſiſting of 4 lobes.
Quadripartitum folium, a leaf conſiſting of 4 diviſions down to the baſe.
Quaterna folia, verticillate leaves, having 4 in each whorl.
Quina folia, verticillate leaves by fives.
Quinatum folium, a digitate leaf with 5 folioles.
Quinquangulare folium, a leaf with 5 prominent angles in the edge of its diſk.
Quinquefidum folium, a leaf conſiſting of 5 diviſions, with linear ſinuſes, and ſtraight margins.
Quinquejugum folium, a pinnated leaf with 5 pair of folioles.
Quinquelobum folium, a leaf with 5 lobes.
Quinquepartitum folium, a leaf conſiſting of 5 diviſions down to the baſe.

R.

Rachis folii pinnati, the middle rib of a winged leaf, to which the folioles are affixed.
Radiatus flos, a ſpecies of compound flowers, in which the florets of the diſk are tubular, and thoſe of the radius ligulate.
Radicalia folia, leaves proceeding immediately from the root.
Radicans caulis, a ſtalk bending to the ground, and taking root where it touches the earth.
Radicata folia, leaves ſhooting out roots.
Radius, a ray, the ligulate margin of the diſk of a compound flower.
Ramea folia, leaves that grow only on the branches, and not on the trunk.
Ramoſiſſimi caules, ſtalks abounding with branches irregularly diſpoſed.
Ramoſus caulis, a ſtalk having many branches.
Ramus, a branch of a tree.
Reclinatum folium, a leaf bending downward.
Recurvatum folium, a leaf bent backwards.
Reflexus ramus, a branch bent back towards the trunk.
Remotus verticillus, a ſpecies of inflorescence, wherein the whorls of flowers and leaves ſtand at a diſtance from one another.
Reniforme folium, a kidney-ſhaped leaf.
Repandum folium, a leaf having a bending or waved margin without any angles.
Repens radix, a creeping ſtalk, either running along the ground, or on trees, or rocks, and ſtriking roots at certain diſtances.
Repens caulis, a creeping root extending horizontally.
Reptans flagellum, a twig creeping along the ground.
Reſtantes pedunculi, foot ſtalks remaining, after the fructification has fallen off.
Reſupinatio florum, the upper lip of a flower facing the ground, and the lower lip turned upwards.
Reſupinatum folium, a leaf, the lower diſk of which looks upward.
Retroſus ramus, a branch bent in different directions.

Retrofractus

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Retrofractus pedunculus, a foot-ſtalk bent back towards its inſertion, as if it were broken.
Retuſum folium, a leaf with its apex blunt.
Revolutum folium, a leaf rolled back.
Rhombeum folium, a leaf whoſe ſhape nearly reſembles a rhombus.
Rhomboideum folium, a leaf of a geometrical figure, whoſe ſides and angles are unequal.
Rigidus caulis, a ſtiff or rigid ſtem.
Rimoſus caulis, a ſtalk abounding with clefts and chinks.
Ringens, grinning or gaping.
Roſaceus flos, a flower whoſe petals are placed in a circle, like thoſe of a roſe.
Roſtellum, a little beak.
Rotaceus, like a wheel.
Rotatus limbus corollæ, a wheel-ſhaped flower, expanded horizontally, having a tubular baſis.
Rotundatum folium, a roundiſh leaf.
Rubra lactescentia, red milkineſs.
Ruderata loca, rubbiſhy places.
Rugoſum folium, a rough or wrinkled leaf.

S.

Sagittatum, arrow-ſhaped.
Sarmentoſus caulis, the ſhoot of a vine, naked between each joint, and producing leaves at the joints.
Scabor caulis, a ſcabby and rough ſtalk, having tubercles.
Scabrities, a ſpecies of pubeſcence, compoſed of particles ſcarce viſible, on the ſurface of plants.
Scandens caulis, a climbing ſtalk.
Scarioſa folia, leaves dry on the margin, that ſound when touched.
Scorpioides flos, a flower reſembling the tail of a ſcorpion.
Scutellum, a ſpecies of fructification which is orbicular, concave, and elevated in the margin.
Scyphifer, cup-bearing.
Secretoria ſcabrities, a ſpecies of glandular roughneſs on the ſurface of ſome plants.
Securiformis pubeſcentia, a ſpecies of pubeſcence on ſome plants, the briſtles reſembling an axe.
Semenalia folia, ſeed leaves.
Semiteris caulis, a half round ſtalk, flat on one ſide.
Sempervirens folium, an ever-green leaf.
Sena folia, leaves growing in ſixes.
Sericeum folium, a leaf whoſe ſurface is of a ſoft ſilky texture.
Serratum folium, a ſawed leaf.
Seſſile folium, a leaf growing immediately to the ſtem, without any foot-ſtalk.
Setæ, briſtles.
Setacea folia, leaves ſhaped like briſtles.
Simplex caulis, a ſingle ſtem.
Sinuatum folium, a leaf whoſe ſides are ſcolloped.
Solidus caulis, a ſolid ſtalk.
Solitarius pedunculus, a ſolitary flower-ſtalk, *i. e.* when only one proceeds from the ſame part.
Solutæ ſtipulæ, looſe ſtraw.
Sparſus, ſcattered without order.
Spathaceous, like a ſheath.
Spatulatum folium, a leaf in the form of a ſpatula.
Spica, a ſpike, a ſpecies of inflorescence in graſſes, reſembling an ear of corn.
Spicula, a little ſpike.
Spinæ, thorns or rigid prickles.
Spineſcent, hard and pricking.
Spinoſus caulis, a ſtalk with ſtrong prickles, whoſe roots proceed from the wood of the ſtem, and from the ſurface of the bark.
Spirales cotyledones, ſeminal leaves twiſted ſpirally.
Spithama, a ſpan, or 7 Pariſian inches.
Spleadentia folia, ſhining leaves.
Squamoſa radix, a ſcaly root.
Squarroſum, rough, ſcaly, or ſcurfy.
Staminеus flos, flowers having ſtamina, but no corolla.
Statuminatæ, an order of plants in the former Fragmenta methodi naturalis of Linnæus.
Stellata folia, leaves ſurrounding a ſtem like the rays of a ſtar.
Stellatæ ſetæ, briſtles ariſing from a center in form of a ſtar.
Sterilis flos, a barren flower; maſculus of Linnæus.
Stigma, a mark, the apex of the piſtillum.
Stimuli, ſtings.
Stipitatus pappus, a kind of trunk that elevates the down and connects it with the ſeed.
Stipulares glandulæ, glands produced from ſtipulæ.
Stolo, a ſhoot, which running on the ſurface of the ground, ſtrikes root at every joint.
Striati caules, culmi, &c. channeled ſtreaks running lengthways in parallel lines.
Strictus caulis, a ſtraight ſtiff ſhoot.
Strigæ, ridges, or rows.
Stylus, the ſtyle, from *ſtylus*, a pillar.
Submerſum folium, the leaf of an aquatic plant, ſunk under the ſurface of the water.
Subramoſus caulis, a ſtalk having few branches.
Subrotundum folium, a leaf almoſt round.
Subulatum folium, an awl-ſhaped leaf.
Suffrutex, an under ſhrub.
Sulcatus caulis, or *culmus*, a ſtalk deeply furrowed lengthways.
Superus flos, a flower whoſe receptacle ſtands above the germen.
Supra-axillaris pedunculus, the foot-ſtalk of a flower, whoſe inſertion is above the angle formed by the branch.
Supra-decompoſita folia, compoſite leaves which have little leaves growing on a ſubdivided foot-ſtalk.
Supra-foliaceous pedunculus, the foot-ſtalk of a flower inſerted into the ſtem immediately above the leaf.
Surculus, a twig, the ſtalk of a moſs.
Swob, a legumen, or pod.
Syngeneſia, generating together.

T.

Tegumentum, a cover.
Teres caulis, a cylindrical ſtalk.
Tergeminum folium, a leaf 3 times double, when a dichotomus petiolus is ſubdivided, having two folioli on the extremity of each diviſion.
Ternata folia, leaves in whorls by threes.
Teſſellatum folium, a chequered leaf, whoſe ſquares are of different colours.
Tetradynamia, the ſuperiority of 4.
Tetragonus caulis, a ſquare ſtalk.
Tetrapetalous, conſiſting of 4 petals.
Tetraphyllous, conſiſting of 4 leaves.
Tetraſpermous, producing 4 ſeeds.
Thalamus, a bed, the receptacle.
Theca, a ſheath.
Tamentoſus, covered with a whitiſh down like wool.

Tomentum,

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Tomentum, a species of woolly or downy pubescence, covering the surface of some plants.
Torosum pericarpium, a brawny protuberance, like the swelling of the veins, when a pericarpium is bunched out by the inclosed seeds.
Torta corolla, a flower with the petals twisted.
Tortilis arista, a twisted awn.
Transversum dissepimentum, the dissepiment at right angles with the sides of the pericarpium.
Trapeziforme folium, a leaf having 4 prominent angles, whose sides are neither equal nor opposite.
Triangulare folium, a triangular leaf.
Tricocca capsula, a capsule with 3 cells, and a single seed in each.
Tricuspidated, three-pointed.
Trifidum folium, a leaf divided into 3 linear segments, having straight margins.
Triflorous, bearing 3 flowers.
Trigonus caulis, a three-sided stalk.
Tribilatum semen, a seed having 3 eyes.
Trijugum folium, a winged leaf, with 3 pairs of foliola.
Trilobum folium, a leaf having three lobes.
Trilocular, having the pericarpium divided into 3 loculaments.
Trinervum folium, a leaf having 3 strong nerves running from the base to the apex.
Triæcia, three houses.
Tripartitum folium, a leaf divided into 3 parts down to the base.
Tripetalous, consisting of 3 petals.
Tripetaloideæ, three-petalled.
Triphyllous, consisting of 3 leaves.
Tripinnatum folium compositum, a leaf having a triple series of pinnæ or wings.
Triplinerve folium, a leaf having 3 nerves running from the base to the apex.
Triquetrum folium, or *triquetra caulis*, a leaf, or stalk, having 3 plain sides.
Trispermous, three-seeded.
Triternatum folium compositum, a compound leaf, when the divisions of a triple petiolus are subdivided into threes.
Trivalve pericarpium, a pod consisting of 3 valves.
Truncatum folium, a leaf having its apex as it were cut off.
Truncus, the body or stem of a tree.
Tuberculatus, having pimples or tubercles.
Tuberculum, a little pimple.
Tuberosa radix, a knobbed root.
Tubulatum perianthium, a tubular flower.
Tubulosi flosculi, tubular florets nearly equal.
Tubus, a tube.
Tunicatus radix, a species of bulbous root, having coats lying one over another from the centre to the surface, as in the onion, &c.
Turbinatum pericarpium, a kind of pod shaped like a top, narrow at the base, and broad at the apex.
Turgida legumen, a swollen pod.
Turiones, the young buds of pines.

V U.

Vaginalis, sheathed.
Vaginans folium, a leaf like a sheath.
Valvula, a valve.
Venosum folium, a leaf whose whole surface is run over by veins.
Ventricosa spica, a spike narrowing at each extremity, and bellying out in the middle.
Ventriculosus calyx, a flower cup bellying out in the middle, but not in so great a degree as ventricosus.
Verrucosa capsula, a capsule having little knobs or warts on its surface.
Versatilis anthera, an anthera fixed by the middle on the point of the filament, and so poised as to turn like the needle of a compass.
Verticalia folia, leaves so situated that their base is perpendicular above the apex.
Verticillated branches, flowers, or leaves; such as surround the stem, like the rays of a wheel.
Vesicula, a little bladder.
Vesicularis scabrities, a kind of glandular roughness, resembling vesicules.
Vexillum, a standard, the upright petal of a papilionaceous flower.
Villosus, covered with soft hairs.
Virgatus caulis, a stalk shooting out.
Viscidum folium, a clammy leaf.
Viscositas, clammyness.
Uliginosa loca, boggy places.
Umbella, an umbel or umbrella.
Umbellatus flos, an umbellated flower.
Umbellula, a little umbel.
Umbilicatum folium, a leaf shaped like a navel.
Uncinatum stigma, a hooked stigma.
Undatum folium, a waved leaf, whose surface rises and falls in waves towards the margin.
Undulata corolla, a flower whose petals are waved.
Unguis, a nail or claw; that part of a petal that is joined to the receptacle.
Unicus flos, a single flower.
Unicus radix, a single root.
Uniflorus pedunculus, a foot-stalk with 1 flower.
Unilateralis, growing on one side.
Universalis umbella, an universal umbel.
Volubilis caulis, a twining stalk.
Urceolata corolla, a pitcher-shaped flower.
Urens caulis, or *folium*, a stalk or leaf, burning, or stinging, as nettles.
Utricula, a species of glandular, secretory vessels, on the surface of various plants.

W.

Waved, having the disk alternately bending up and down in obtuse plaits.
Wedge-shaped, growing narrower towards the base.
Whirl, or *Whorl*, } leaves, flowers, &c. surrounding a stalk or trunk at the joints in great numbers.

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[N. B.—*The* BOTANICAL TERMS, *not inserted here, are explained in the* GLOSSARY.]

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BOT

BOTANY BAY, a bay of New South Wales, situated on the E. coast of New Holland, so named by Capt. Cook, from the great variety of plants he found on the shore. It was originally fixed on for a colony of convicts from Britain: but afterwards Port Jackson, 15 miles farther N. was preferred. See HOLLAND, NEW.

(1.) * BOTARGO. *n. s.* [*botarga*, Span.] A relishing sort of food, made of the roes of the mullet fish; much used on the coasts of the Mediterranean, as an incentive to drink. *Chambers.*

(2.) BOTARGO is a kind of sausage. The best kind comes from Tunis in Barbary: It must be chosen dry and reddish. The inhabitants of the ci-devant province of Provence use a great deal of it. The common way of eating it is with olive oil and lemon juice. There is also a great consumption of it throughout the Levant.

BOTARY, an ancient parish of Aberdeenshire, now constituting part of CAIRNY.

BOTATRISSA, in ichthyology, a name given by Bellonius, Gesner, and other authors, to that species of the GADUS called by authors the *lota*, and *mustela fluviatilis*; by us, the eel-pout. It is distinguished from the other *gad*, by having two fins on the back, and the two jaws of equal length, with beards at the mouth.

BOTARUS, in ornithology, a name by which several authors have called the bittern.

* BOTCH. *n. s.* [*bozza*, pronounced *botza*, Ital.] 1. A swelling or eruptive discoloration of the skin.—

Time, which rots all, and makes *botches* pox,
And, plodding on, must make a calf an ox,
Hath made a lawyer. *Donne.*

Botches and blains must all his flesh emboss,
And all his people. *Milton.*

—It proves far more incommodious, which, if it were propelled in boils, *botches*, or ulcers, as in the scurvy, would rather conduce to health. *Harvey.* 2. A part in any work ill finished, so as to appear worse than the rest.—

With him
To leave no rules or *botches* in the work,
Fleance, his son, must embrace the fate. *Shakes.*

3. An adscititious, adventitious part clumsily added.—If both those words are not notorious *botches*, I am deceived, though the French translator thinks otherwise. *Dryden.*—

A comma ne'er could claim
A place in any British name;
Yet, making here a perfect *botch*,
Thrusts your poor vowel from his notch. *Swift.*

* *To* BOTCH. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To mend or patch clothes clumsily.—Their coats, from *botching* newly brought are torn. *Dryden.* 2. To mend any thing awkwardly.—

To *botch* up what th' had torn and rent,
Religion and government. *Hudibras.*

3. To put together unsuitably, or unskilfully; to make up of unsuitable pieces.—

Go with me to my house,
And hear thou there, how many fruitless pranks
This ruffian hath *botch'd* up, that thou thereby
May smile at this. *Shakes.*

Her speech is nothing,
Yet the unshaped use of it doth move
The hearers to collection; they aim at it,
And *botch* the words up fit to their own thoughts. *Shakes.*

For treason *botch'd* in rhime will be thy bane;
Rhime is the rock on which thou art to wreck. *Dryden.*

4. To mark with botches.—

Young Hylas, *botch'd* with stains too foul to name,
In cradle here renews his youthful frame. *Garth.*

* BOTCHER. *n. s.* [from *botch.*] A mender of old clothes; the same to a taylor as a cobler to a shoemaker.—He was a *botcher's* prentice in Paris, from

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from whence he was whipt for getting the ſheriff's fool with child. *Shakeſ.*—

Botchers left old cloaths in the lurch,
And fell to turn and patch the church. *Hudibras.*

BOTCHESTON, a village in Leiceſterſhire.

* BOTCHY. *adj.* [from *botch.*] Marked with botches.—

And thoſe boils did run—ſay ſo—Did not the general run?
Were not that a *botchy* core. *Shakeſ.*

(1.) * BOTE. *n. ſ.* [*bote*, Sax. a word now out of uſe.] 1. A compenſation or amends for a man ſlain, which is bound to another. *Cowel.* 2. It was uſed for any payment.

(2.) BOTE. See MAN-BOTE.

BOTELESS. *adj. obſ.* bootleſs; without remedy. In the charter of Hen. I. to Thomas, Abp. of York, it is ſaid, "that no judgment, or ſum of money, ſhall acquit him that commits ſacrilege; but he is in Engliſh called *boteleſs*, viz. without emendation."

BOTELLUS, or BUTELLUS, in writers of the middle age, a ſmall veſſel for wine. Hence our word BOTTLE.

BOTENALKAITOS, a ſtar in the conſtellation CETUS, called alſo BATENKETOS.

BOTEREIUS, Rodolophus, advocate in the Grand Council of Paris, was author of the Hiſtory of Henry IV, in Latin, from 1594 to 1610; in 3 volumes. Mr Bayle is at a loſs to determine whether his French name was *Boterays*, *Boterey*, or *Bouteroue*, &c.

BOTERO, or BOTERUS, John, a native of Bene in Piedmont, and tutor to the princes of Savoy, the ſons of D. Charles Emanuel, was author of ſeveral works in Italian, on Politics, Hiſtory and the Government and Forces of ſeveral ſtates of Europe. He died in 16c8.

BOTERON. See BOTRYS.

BOTESCARL. *n. ſ. obſ.* a boatſwain.

BOTESDALE, a village in Suffolk, near Redgrave, 15 miles from Bury.

BOTESTOCK. See BOSTOCK.

BOTETOURT, a large mountainous county in Virginia, bounded on the N. by the Fluvanna, which ſeparates it from Rock and Bath counties; on the NW. by Green-brier; on the E. by Bedford; S. by Franklin, and SW. by Montgomery. Fincaſtle is the chief town. It abounds with chalk. It is 44 miles long and 40 broad; and contains 9,267 free inhabitants, and 1,250 ſlaves.

(1.) * BOTH. *adj.* [*batu*, *batua*, Sax.] The two: as well the one as the other. *Et l' un & l' autre*, Fr.] It is uſed only of two.—And the next day, *both* morning and afternoon, he was kept by our party. *Sidney.*—Moſes and the prophets, Chriſt and his apoſtles, were in theſe times all preachers of God's truth; ſome by word, ſome by writing; ſome by *both*. *Hooker.*—

Which of them ſhall I take:
Both? one! or neither? neither can be enjoy'd,
If *both* remain alive. *Shakeſ.*

Two lovers cannot ſhare a ſingle bed;
As therefore *both* are equal in degree,
The lot of *both* he left to deſtiny. *Dryden.*

A Venus and a Helen have been ſeen,
Both perjur'd wives, the goddeſs and the queen.
Granville.

(2.) * BOTH. *conj.* [from the adjective.] As well; it has the conjunction *and* to correſpond with it.—A great multitude *both* of the Jews *and* alſo of the Greeks believed. *Acts.*—

Pow'r to judge *both* quick *and* dead. *Milton.*

Both the boy was worthy to be prais'd,
And Stimichon has often made me long,
To hear, like him, ſo ſweet a ſong. *Dryden.*

(3.) BOTH, Andrew, and } Flemiſh painters,
(4.) BOTH, John, } and both pupils of Bloemart. The union of theſe brothers was very ſingular: they were inſeparable in their ſtudies, travels and paintings. John painted landſcapes in the manner of Lorrain, and Andrew figures and animals in the ſtyle of Bamboche. They both died in 650. John's taſte is elegant; his compoſition beautiful; and his execution rich and maſterly, though his light is not always well diſtributed. His landſcapes are reckoned among the beſt extant.

BOTHA, in old records, a booth or tent.

BOTHAGIUM, boothage, cuſtomary dues to the lord of the market, for the liberty of pitching booths or tents.

BOTHALL, two villages, viz. 1. in Northumberland, near Morpeth: 2. in Staffordſhire, N. of Pagets Bromley.

BOTHEL, a village in Cumberland, between Cockermouth and Wigton.

BOTHEMSHALL, in the High Peak of Derby.

BOTHENA, BOTHNA, or BUTHNA, in the Scots law, a park or field wherein cattle are incloſed, and fed. It is alſo uſed for a lordſhip, or ſheriffdom.

BOTHENDEN, the ancient name of BOWDEN.

BOTHENWOOD, a village in Dorſetſhire, near Winborne Minſter.

(1.) BOTHER. *adj. obſ.* belonging to both. *Ch.*

(2.) BOTHER. *n. ſ.* an eruption; a puſtule.

BOTHERTON, a village in Cheſhire.

BOTHKENNAR, a pariſh of Scotland, in Stirlingſhire, a mile and a half long and equally broad, containing about 1248 acres all cultivated. It is interſected by the Carron, and waſhed on the E. by the Forth. The ſoil is fertile, and produces large crops of oats, wheat, graſs, &c. The population, in 1793, as ſtated by the rev. Mr Dickſon, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was about 600, and had on the whole increaſed 71 within the laſt 40 years, though it had ſuſtained a decreaſe of 130 within 10 years preceding. There are 12 orchards in the pariſh, which produce much fruit.

BOTHNA. See BOTHENA.

BOTHNIA, a province of Sweden, at the end of the gulph of Bothnia. It is divided into two parts, viz.

1. BOTHNIA, EAST, belonging to Finland: and

2. BOTHNIA, WEST, a mountainous country. It is ſandy, and yet, a ſcarcity of proviſions is ſeldom known. Cattle and game are common; ſalmon and herrings plentiful, and the trade of ſkins gainful; ſo that the inhabitants can command what they want from their neighbours. The principal towns are Tornea and Uma. The inhabitants of this province are Proteſtants; and are civil and well behaved.

BOTHRIAS, or } [*βοθρον*, 2. the ALVEOLUS
BOTHRION, } or ſocket of a tooth. 2. A ſmall

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small, narrow, but deepish ulcer of the cornea of the eye, resembling a round puncture.

BOTHUMSAL, a village in Nottinghamshire, NW. of Tuxford.

(1.) BOTHWELL, an ancient barony and parish of Scotland, in Lanarkshire, extending from the Clyde to West Lothian, about 8½ m. in length, and 4 in breadth. It is of an oval form, lies at a medium about 309 feet above the level of the sea, and is all arable, there being neither moss, moor, nor morass in its whole extent. The soil in general is good, though clayey, and the climate healthy. It is watered by the Clyde and the S. and N. Calders. Wheat, oats, barley, grass, and potatoes are the chief produce. Coals and freestone are the only minerals. The population, in 1794, as stated by the rev. Mr M'Culloch to Sir J. Sinclair, was 2707; and had increased 1146, within the last 40 years. There are 4 villages, 5 bridges, 6 corn and 2 lint mills, and a bleachfield in the parish. The church is a very ancient structure, and before the reformation was a provostry, with very great endowments. A particular account of its provosts and clergy, is given in the *Stat. Acc. Vol.* XVI. *p.* 322. The parish is ornamented with much wood.

(2.) BOTHWELL, a village in the above parish, (N° 1.) containing with its out farms, &c. 425 inhabitants, in 1794. It is seated on a hill, which commands one of the most beautiful inland prospects in Scotland.

(3.) BOTHWELL BRIDGE, an ancient bridge of 4 arches over the Clyde, in the above parish, (N. 1.) memorable for an engagement fought on the S. side of it, in 1679, between the royalists under Monmouth, and the Whigs: wherein the latter, being deceived by the hopes of pacific measures, were defeated, with the loss of 400 slain, and 1200 taken prisoners.

(4.) BOTHWELL CASTLE, a very ancient and magnificent structure now in ruins, adjacent to the village, (N° 2.) originally built of polished stones of a red colour. The ruins still occupy a space of 234 feet by 99; but much of it was taken down by the E. of Forfar to build a modern house. The stair of one of its highest towers is still almost entire. This tower is an immense height above the Clyde. Bothwell castle once made a figure in Scottish history.

(5.) BOTHWELL HAUGH, a district in the above parish, (N° 1.) about a mile above the bridge, (N° 3.) memorable for having been the property of James Hamilton, who shot the E. of Murray, then regent, at Linlithgow, in 1570.

(1.) BOTIA, or BOTUS, among chemists, a glass vessel with a round belly and long narrow neck, otherwise called CUCURBITA, and URINALE.

(2.) BOTIA, in medicine, the same with STRUMÆ, and SCROPHULÆ.

BOTIN, or BUTINE, among alchemists, turpentine gathered under the proper influence.

BOTLEY, the name of 4 English villages: viz. 1. in Berkshire, W. of Oxfordshire: 2. in Chesham, Bucks: 3. in Hampshire, 4 miles S. of Bush-Waltham; and 4. in Surry, near Fangrove.

BOTOLPH, ST, in Lincolnshire, N. of Boston.

BOTOLPH'S BRIDGE in Huntingdonshire.

BOTONES, } in middle age writers,
BOTONTINI, or } mounts or hillocks, raised
BOTONTONE, } to serve as land marks or boundaries of grounds.

BOTOTOE, in natural history, a name given by the people of the Philippine islands to a very beautiful bird of the parrot kind. It is somewhat smaller than the common parrot, and all over of a fine deep blue colour.

BOTRIPHNIE, a parish of Scotland, in Banffshire, 24 miles from Banff, extending about 3½ m. from N. to S. and 3 from E. to W. It is a level country situated between 2 hills, and watered by the river Isla. The soil is chiefly a black loam. Barley, oats and flax are the principal produce. Black cattle and oat meal are exported to the Frith of Forth. The population in 1793, as stated by the rev. Mr Angus, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 620; and had decreased 333, since 1755, owing to the enlargement of farms. Servitudes are not yet abolished, which, with short leases, greatly retard improvements.

BOTLITES. See BOTRYITES, N° 2.

BOTRUS. See BOTRYS.

(1.) BOTRYITES, in natural history, the GRAND-STONE, [from *βοτρυς*, a grape,] a stone of the gem kind, resembling a branch of young grapes.

(2.) BOTRYITES, or BOTRITES, a sort of burnt CADMIA, found somewhat in the form of a bunch of grapes adhering to the upper parts of furnaces, where the mineral is calcined. It differs from the PLACITES, which is gathered on the lower part of the furnace; though Schroeder gives a different distinction, viz. into *botrites*, found in the middle of the furnace, *placites* in the upper, and OSTRACITES in the lowest part.

* BOTRYOID. *adj.* [*βοτρυοειδης.*] Having the form of a bunch of grapes.—The outside is thick set with *botryoid* efflorescencies, or small knobs, yellow, bluish, and purple; all of a shining metallick hue. *Woodward.*

BOTRYS, BOTRUS, or *Botra*, a town of Phœnicia, on the Mediterranean, built by Saturn, 12 miles N. of Byblus, and 20 S. of Tripolis. It is now almost in ruins, and called BOTERON, or BOTURN. Lon. 37. 30. E. Lat. 34. 6. N.

BOTRYTIS, in botany. See BYSSUS.

(1.) * BOTS. *n. f.* [*without a singular.*] A species of small worms in the entrails of horses; answering, perhaps, to the *ascarides* in human bodies.—Pease and beans are as dank here as a dog, and that is the next way to give poor jades the *bots*. *Shakespeare.*

(2.) BOTS. See BOTTS.

BOTSBOROUGH, a town in Cornwall.

BOTSEY, a village in Huntingdonshire.

BOTSFIELD, in Salop, 5 m. from Shrewsbury.

BOTSFORD, two villages in Leicestershire; viz. 1. in Belvoir vale: 2. near Normanton.

BOTSHAM HALL, 7 miles from Cambridge.

(1.) BOTT, among bone-lace weavers, a round cushion of light matter placed on the knee, whereon they weave their lace with bobbins, &c.

(2.) BOTT, Thomas, a learned divine, born at Derby, in 1688. His grandfather was a major during the republic, and Thomas was educated among

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among the diſſenters; but he took orders in the church of England in 1725; and was ſucceſſively preſented to the rectories of Reymerſton, Spixworth and Edgefield, in Norfolkſhire. He died at Norwich, in 1754, aged 66. He wrote, 1. *The Peace and Happineſs of this World the immediate deſign of Chriſtianity:* 2. A Defence of this: 3. A refutation of *The Religion of Nature delineated:* 4. An anſwer to Vol. I. of Warburton's *Divine Legation of Moſes:* and ſeveral ſermons.

BOTTERIDGE, a village in Dorſetſhire.

BOTTESDALE. See BUDDESDALE.

BOTTESLOW, a village in Staffordſhire.

BOTTICELLI, Alexander, was born at Florence in 1437, and learned the rudiments of painting under Philip Lippi. He executed ſeveral pictures for Pope Sixtus IV. and the city of Florence: for which he got large ſums of money; yet died at laſt in great diſtreſs, aged 78. He was a man of letters. The famous edition of Dante's Poem of Hell, printed at Florence by Magna, A. D. 1481, and to which Botticelli undertook to write notes, was evidently intended to have been ornamented with prints, one for each canto; a few of which were deſigned, if not engraved, by Botticelli. The two firſt plates only were printed upon the leaves of the book, and for want of a blank ſpace at the head of the firſt canto, the plate belonging to it is placed at the bottom of the page. Blank ſpaces are left for all the reſt; that as many of them as were finiſhed might be paſted on. Mr Wilbraham poſſeſſes the fineſt copy of this book extant in any private library; and the number of prints in it amounts to 19. The two firſt, as uſual, are printed on the leaves; and the other 17, which follow regularly, are paſted on the blank ſpaces. Theſe ſeem to have been all that Botticelli ever executed. About 1465, he engraved a ſet of plates, repreſenting the *Prophets and Sibyls*.

(1.) * BOTTLE. *n. ſ.* [*bouteille*, Fr.] 1. A ſmall veſſel of glaſs, or other matter, with a narrow mouth, to put liquor in.—

The ſhepherd's homely curds,
His cold thin drink out of his leather *bottle*,
Is far beyond a prince's delicates. *Shakeſpeare.*

—Many have a manner, after other men's ſpeech, to ſhake their heads. A great officer would ſay, it was as men ſhake a *bottle*, to ſee if there is any wit in their heads or no. *Bacon.*—

Then if thy ale in glaſs thou wouldſt confine,
Let thy clean *bottle* be entirely dry. *King.*

—He threw into the enemy's ſhips earthen *bottles* filled with ſerpents, which put the crew in diſorder. *Arbuthnot on Coins.* 2. A quantity of wine uſually put into a bottle; a quart.—Sir, you ſhall ſtay and take t'other *bottle*. *Spectat.* 3. A quantity of hay or graſs bundled up.—Methinks I have a great deſire to a *bottle* of hay; good hay, ſweet hay, hath no fellow. *Shakeſpeare.*—

But I ſhould wither in one day, and paſs
To a lock of hay, that am a *bottle* of graſs.
Donne.

(2.) * BOTTLE is often compounded with other words; as, *bottle-friend*,† a drinking friend; *bottle-companion* †—Sam, who is a very good *bottle-companion*, has been the diverſion of his friends. *Addiſon.*

(3.) BOTTLES, among the ancient Jews, were cags made of goats or other wild beaſts ſkins, with the hair on the inſide, well ſewed and pitched together; an aperture in one of the animal's paws ſerving for the mouth of the veſſel.

(4.) BOTTLES are now chiefly made of thick coarſe glaſs: though there are likewiſe bottles of boiled leather made and ſold by the cafe-makers. Fine glaſs bottles covered with ſtraw or wicker, are called *flaſks* or *bettees*. The quality of the glaſs has been found to affect the liquor in the bottle. Glaſs bottles are better for cyder than thoſe of ſtone. Foul glaſs bottles are cleanſed by ſand or ſmall ſhot; muſty bottles, by boiling them. See GLASS. Dr Percival cautions againſt the practice of cleaning wine bottles with leaden ſhot. It frequently happens, (he thinks,) through inattention, that ſome of the little pellets are left behind; and when wine or beer is again poured into the bottles, this mineral poiſon diſſolves, and impregnates thoſe liquors with its deleterious qualities. The ſweetneſs which is ſometimes perceived in red port wine may ariſe from this cauſe, when ſuch an adulteration is neither deſigned nor ſuſpected. Potaſh is recommended for cleanſing bottles: a ſmall quantity in the water will clean two groſs.

* *To* BOTTLE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To incloſe in bottles.—You may have it a moſt excellent cyder royal, to drink or to *bottle*. *Mortimer.*—When wine is to be *bottled* off, waſh your bottles immediately before you begin; but be ſure not to drain them. *Swift.*

(1.) * BOTTLE-FLOWER. *n. ſ.* [*cyanus*, Lat.] A plant.

(2.) BOTTLE-FLOWER. See CENTAUREA.

BOTTLE-HEAD, a ſpecies of whale. See BALÆNE.

BOTTLE-NOSE, a ſpecies of ANAS.

* BOTTLE-SCREW. *n. ſ.* [from *bottle* and *ſcrew*.] A ſcrew to pull out the cork.—A good butler always breaks off the point of his *bottle-ſcrew* in two days, by trying which is hardeſt, the point of the ſcrew, or the neck of the bottle. *Swift.*

BOTTLING, the operation of putting up liquors in bottles corked, to keep, ripen, and improve. The writers on œconomy give rules concerning the bottling of beer, cyder, and the like. The virtues of Spaw, Pyrmount, Scarborough, and other waters, depend on their being well bottled and corked, otherwiſe they loſe both their taſte and ſmell. To preſerve them, it is neceſſary that the bottles be filled up to the mouth, to exclude the air, which is the great enemy of bottled liquors. The cork is alſo further ſecured by a cement. Some improve their bottled beer, by putting cryſtals of tartar and wine, or malt ſpirits; and others, by putting ſugar boiled up with the eſſence of ſome herb, and cloves, into each bottle. Cyder requires ſpecial precautions in the bottling; being more apt to fly, and burſt the bottle, than other liquors. The beſt way is, to have the liquor thoroughly

†† BOTTLE, *in theſe ſenſes, is very properly filled by* Dr ASH, *an adjective, and ſpelt without the hyphen.* Dr JOHNSON *might with equal propriety have made* good friend *or* bad companion *compounds. See our Note on* BOSOM, § 2.

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thoroughly fine before it be bottled. For want of this ſome leave the bottles open a while, or open them after two or three days bottling to give them vent. If one bottle break, through fermentation, it is beſt to give them all vent, and cork them up again. Mean cyder is apter to break the bottles than rich. Some ſoak the corks in ſcalding water, to render them more pliant and ſerviceable. Another particular to be obſerved is, to lay the bottles ſo as that liquor may always keep the cork wet and ſwelled. Something alſo depends on the place where the bottles are ſet, which ought to be ſuch as expoſes them as little as poſſible to the alterations and impreſſions of the air: the ground is better for this purpoſe than a frame; ſand better than the bare ground, and a running water, or a ſpring often changed, beſt of all. To haſten the ripening of bottled liquors, they are ſometimes ſet in a warm place, or even expoſed to the ſun, when a few days will bring them to maturity.

* BOTTOM. *n. ſ.* [*botm*, Sax. *bodem*, Germ.] 1. The loweſt part of any thing. 2. The ground under the water.—

Shallow brooks that flow ſo clear,
The *bottom* did the top appear. *Dryden.*

3. The foundation; the ground-work.—On this ſuppoſition my reaſonings proceed, and cannot be affected by objections which are far from being built on the ſame *bottom*. *Atterbury.* 4. A dale; a valley; a low ground.—

In the purlieus ſtands a ſheep-cote,
Weſt of this place; down in the neighbour *bottom*. *Shakeſpeare.*

—On both the ſhores of that fruitful *bottom*, are ſtill to be ſeen the marks of ancient edifices. *Addiſon on Italy.*—Equal convexity could never be ſeen: the inhabitants of ſuch an earth could have only the proſpect of a little circular plain, which would appear to have an acclivity on all ſides; ſo that every man would fancy himſelf the loweſt, and that he always dwelt and moved in a *bottom*. *Bentley.* 5. The part moſt remote from the view; the deepeſt part.—His propoſals and arguments ſhould with freedom be examined to the *bottom*, that, if there be any miſtake in them, no body may be miſled by his reputation. *Locke.* 6. Bound; limit.—

But there's no *bottom*, none,
In my voluptuouſneſs. *Shakeſpeare.*

7. The utmoſt extent or profundity of any man's capacity, whether deep or ſhallow.—I will ſetch off theſe juſtices: I do ſee the *bottom* of Juſtice Shallow: how ſubject we old men are to lying! *Shakeſpeare.* 8. The laſt reſort; the remoteſt cauſe; firſt motion.—He wrote many things which are not publiſhed in his name; and was at the *bottom* of many excellent counſels, in which he did not appear. *Addiſon.* 9. A ſhip; a veſſel for navigation.—

A bawbling veſſel was he captain of,
With which, ſuch ſcathful grapple did he make
With the moſt noble *bottom* of our fleet. *Shak.*

My ventures are not in one *bottom* truſted;
Nor to one place. *Shakeſpeare.*

—We have memory, not of one ſhip that ever returned, and but of thirteen perſons only, at ſeveral times, that choſe to return in our *bottoms*. *Bacon.*—

He's a fooliſh ſeaman,
That, when his ſhip is ſinking, will not
Unlade his hopes into another *bottom*. *Denh.*

—He puts to ſea upon his own *bottom*; holds the ſtern himſelf; and now, if ever, we may expect new diſcoveries. *Norris.*—

He ſpends his canvas, with his pole he ſteers,
The freights of flitting ghoſts in his thin *bottom* bears. *Dryden.*

10. A chance; an adventure; ſtate of hazard.—He began to ſay, that himſelf and the prince were too much to venture in one *bottom*. *Clarendon.*—We are embarked with them on the ſame *bottom*, and muſt be partakers of their happineſs or miſery. *Spectator.* 11. A ball of thread wound up together.—This whole argument will be like *bottoms* of thread cloſe wound up. *Bacon.*—Silkworms finiſh their *bottoms* in about fifteen days. *Mort.*—

Each Chriſtmas they accounts did clear,
And wound their *bottom* round the year. *Prior.*

12. BOTTOM *of a lane*. The loweſt end. 13. BOTTOM *of beer*. The grounds, or dregs.

(1.) * *To* BOTTOM. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To build upon; to fix upon as a ſupport: with *on*.—They may have ſomething of obſcurity, as being *bottom'd upon*, and fetch'd from the true nature of the things. *Hale.*—Pride has a very ſtrong foundation in the mind; it is *bottomed upon* ſelf-love. *Collier.*—The grounds *upon* which we *bottom* our reaſoning, are but a part; ſomething is left out, which ſhould go into the reckoning. *Locke.*—Action is ſuppoſed to be *bottomed upon* principle. *Atterbury.* 2. To wind upon ſomething; to twiſt thread round ſomething.—

Therefore, as you unwind your love for him,
Leſt it ſhould ravel, and be good to none,
You muſt provide to *bottom* it on me. *Shakeſp.*

(2.) * *To* BOTTOM. *v. n.* To reſt upon as its ſupport.—Find out upon what foundation any propoſition advanced, *bottoms*; and obſerve the intermediate ideas, by which it is joined to that foundation upon which it is erected. *Locke.*

* BOTTOMED. *adj.* [from *bottom*.] Having a bottom; it is uſually compounded.—There being prepared a number of *flat-bottomed* boats, to tranſport the land forces, under the wing and protection of the great navy. *Bacon.*

* BOTTOMLESS. *adj.* [from *bottom*.] Without a bottom; fathomleſs.—Wickedneſs may well be compared to a *bottomleſs* pit, into which it is eaſier to keep one's ſelf from falling, than being fallen, to give one's ſelf any ſtay from falling infinitely. *Sidney.*—

Is not my ſorrow deep, having no bottom?
Then be my paſſions *bottomleſs* with them.
Shakeſpeare.

Him the Almighty pow'r
Hurl'd headlong, flaming from th' etherial ſky,
To *bottomleſs* perdition. *Milton.*

(1.) * BOTTOMRY *n. ſ.* [in navigation and commerce.] The act of borrowing money on a ſhip's bottom; that is, by engaging the veſſel for the repayment of it, ſo as that, if the ſhip miſcarry, the lender loſes the money advanced; but if it arrives ſafe at the end of the voyage, he is to repay

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repay the money lent, with a certain premium or intereſt agreed on; and this on pain of forfeiting the ſhip. *Harris.*

(2.) BOTTOMRY is allowed to be a valid contract in all trading nations, for the benefit of commerce, and by reaſon of the extraordinary hazard run by the lender. The ſhip and tackle, if brought home, are anſwerable, as well as the perſon of the borrower, for the money lent. But if the loan is not upon the veſſel, but upon the goods and merchandize, which muſt neceſſarily be ſold or exchanged in the courſe of the voyage, then only the borrower, perſonally, is bound to anſwer the contract; who, therefore, in this caſe, is ſaid to take up the money at *reſpondentia*. Theſe terms are alſo applied to contracts for the repayment of money borrowed, not on the ſhip and goods only, but on the mere hazard of the voyage itſelf; when a man lends a merchant 1000 *l.* to be employed in a beneficial trade, with condition to be repaid with extraordinary intereſt, in caſe ſuch a voyage be ſafely performed; which kind of agreement, is ſometimes called *fœnus nauticum*, and ſometimes *uſuria maritima*. But as this gave an opening for uſurious and gaming contracts, eſpecially upon long voyages, it was enacted by the ſtatute 19 Geo. II. c. 37. that all monies lent on bottomry, or at *reſpondentia*, on veſſels bound to or from the Eaſt Indies, ſhall be expreſsly lent only upon the ſhip; or upon the merchandize; that the lender ſhall have the benefit of ſalvage; and that if the borrower has not on board effects to the value of the ſum borrowed, he ſhall be reſponſible to the lender for ſo much of the principal as hath not been laid out, with legal intereſt and all other charges, though the ſhip and merchandize be totally loſt.

BOTTONY. A croſs bottony, in heraldry, terminates at each end in 3 buds, knots, or buttons, reſembling, in ſome meaſure, the three-leaved graſs; on which account Segoin, in his *Treſor Heraldique*, terms it *croix treffle*. It is the badge of the order of St Maurice. See HERALDRY, *Plates*.

BOTTRIGARO, Herculus, a perſon eminently ſkilled in muſic, though not a muſician, was a man of rank in Bologna, and had the title of *Count*. He publiſhed ſeveral controverſial pieces on muſic. He entertained ſtrong prejudices in favour of the ancient muſic; and attempted to introduce the chromatic genus into practice, but with no better ſucceſs than Vincentius and others had done. He corrected Gogavino's Latin verſion of Ptolemy in numberleſs inſtances, to ſo good purpoſe, that Dr Wallis has in general conformed to him, in his tranſlation of it. He alſo tranſlated into Italian *Boetius de Muſica*, with as much of Plutarch and Macrobius as relates to muſic; and made annotations upon Ariſtoxenus, Franchinus, Spataro, Vicentino, Zarlino, Galilei, and almoſt every muſical treatiſe he could lay his hands on; as appears by the copies which were once his, and are now repoſited in many libraries in Italy. His works contain greater proofs of his learning and ſkill in muſic, than of his abilities as a writer, his ſtyle being remarkably inelegant: nevertheleſs, he affected the character of a poet; and there is extant a collection of poems by him, in 8vo, printed in 1557. Walther repreſents him as an able mathematician, and a collector of rarities; and ſays that he was poſſeſſed of a cabinet, which the emperor Ferdinand II. had a great deſire to purchaſe. He died in 1609.

BOTTRYS, a ſpecies of CHENOPODIUM.

BOTTS, or BOTS, in zoology, a ſpecies of ſhort worms, produced and nouriſhed only in the inteſtines of a horſe; where alone they can enjoy the proper temperature of heat, and receive the nouriſhment neceſſary for them. See OESTRUS. All authors, ancient and modern, who have treated of the diſeaſes of horſes, have taken notice of theſe worms; but M. Valliſnieri is the firſt who has traced them to the laſt ſtage of their transformation, and has ſeen them change into a hairy kind of fly like the drone. The flies from which the botts are produced inhabit the country, and do not come near houſes, at leaſt not near thoſe of great towns, and therefore horſes are never liable to have them in their bodies, if they have been kept in the houſe, eſpecially in a town, during the ſummer and autumn. It is in ſummer chiefly that the females of theſe flies apply themſelves to the anus of horſes, and endeavour to gain admittance, in order there to depoſite their eggs, or perhaps their worms. The preciſe inſtant of their entrance will ſcarce admit of an eye-witneſs, but by the mereſt chance; yet M. Valliſnieri ſays, that Dr Gaſpari had attained this very uncommon ſight. The Doctor, he ſays, was one day looking at his mares in the field; and from being very quiet, he obſerved, that on a ſudden they became very reſtleſs, and ran about in great agitation, prancing, plunging, and kicking, with violent motions of their tails. He concluded, that theſe extraordinary effects were produced by ſome fly buzzing about them, and endeavouring to ſettle upon the anus of one of them; but the fly not being able to ſucceed, he obſerved it to go off with leſs noiſe than before, towards a mare that was feeding at a diſtance from the reſt; and now the fly taking a more effectual method to obtain its deſign, paſſed under the tail of the mare, and ſo made its way to the anus. Here at firſt it occaſioned only an itching, by which the inteſtine was protruded with an increaſing aperture of the anus; the fly taking the advantage of this, penetrated further, and ſecured itſelf in the fold of the inteſtine:—this effected, it was in a ſituation proper for laying its eggs. Soon after this, the mare became very violent, running about, prancing, and kicking, and throwing herſelf on the ground; in ſhort, was not quiet, nor returned to feeding, till after a quarter of an hour. Thus the fly depoſites its eggs, or perhaps its botts, in the fundament of the horſe; which once effected, it has done all that is neceſſary for them. If theſe botts worms are not hatched when firſt depoſited in the horſe, but are then only eggs, it will not be long before it happens, from the nutritive heat they there receive. Theſe botts ſoon make their way into the inteſtines of the horſe; they occupy ſuch parts as are to them moſt convenient; and ſometimes penetrate even to the ſtomach. All the hazard they appear to be expoſed to, is that of being carried away from the places they have fixed on by the excrement, which may ſeem likely to drive

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drive all before it. But they are able to maintain their ſituation, and to remain in the body of the horſe, as long as they pleaſe. For according to M. de Reaumur's obſervations, they have two unequal claws, by which they are enabled to remain in the inteſtines of the horſe in oppoſition to all his efforts by the excrement to force them out.—Theſe claws are a ſort of anchor, differently diſpoſed from thoſe of common anchors, but contrived to produce the ſame effect. The botts have alſo a great number of triangular ſpines or briſtles, to arm them againſt the coats of the inteſtines, and to reſiſt the force employed to drive them towards the anus, provided the head be directed towards the ſtomach of the horſe. The mares which afforded M. de Reaumur, for ſeveral years, thoſe botts on which he made his obſervations, did not appear to be leſs in health than thoſe which had none; but it may ſometimes happen, that they are in ſo great a quantity in the body of the horſe as to prove fatal to him. M. Vallinieri ſuppoſes theſe botts to have been the cauſes of an epidemical diſeaſe that deſtroyed a great many horſes about Verona and Mantua in 1713. The obſervations communicated to him by Dr Gaſpari ſufficiently confirm his ſuppoſition. This gentleman, upon diſſecting ſome horſes that died of this diſtemper, found in their ſtomachs a ſurpriſing quantity of ſhort worms; of which to give us ſome idea, he compares them to the kernels of a pomegranate opened: each of theſe, by gnawing on the coat of the ſtomach, had made to itſelf a kind of a cell therein, each of which would contain a grain of Indian wheat. It is eaſy to imagine by this means the ſtomach muſt be reduced to a wretched condition; the outer membranes were inflamed, and the inner ones ulcerated and corrupted; a very ſmall quantity of theſe worms were found in the ſmall inteſtines, and only a few in the larger, to which laſt they were found affixed, but had not corroded them. It is only perhaps when theſe botts are in great numbers, and thereby incommode each other in the inteſtines of the horſe, that they make their way towards the ſtomach; and indeed a very few flies muſt be ſufficient to overſtock the inſide of a horſe, provided they ſhould depoſite all their eggs, and ſuch ſhould all be animated, M. Vallinieri having counted above 700 in the body of one ſingle fly. When one of theſe botts has left the anus of the horſe, it falls on the ground; and immediately ſeeks for ſome place of ſafety, where it may retire, to prepare for the laſt ſtage of its transformation, by which it becomes a fly. And now by degrees the ſkin hardens and thickens; and at length forms a ſold ſhell, the form of which ſcarce differs from that of the worm. It is firſt of a pale red colour, which changes into cheſnut; and at length, by the addition of gradual and ſucceſſive ſhades of brown, the ſhell is rendered black. The worm or bott, before it paſſes into a nymph, is of the form of an oblong ball; it remains in this form much longer than worms of the fleſh-fly kind. M. de Reaumur met with worms that retained this figure five or ſix days; as yet, one can perceive no traces of the legs, wings, and head of the nymph. Hence he firſt learned, that thoſe botts do not become nymphs immediately upon their firſt change; but that, in order to become flies, they muſt undergo one change more than caterpillars ordinarily do to become butterflies.—For the cure of horſes troubled with botts, ſee FARRIERY.

BOTULPH, St, a village in Rutlandſhire.

BOTURN. See BOTRYS.

BOTWAR, a town of Germany, in the circle of Suabia, ſubject to the duke of Wirtemberg; 15 m. S. of Hailbron. Lon. 9. 15. E. Lat. 49. 2. N.

BOTZEN, town of Auſtria in Tirol, which was taken by the French under Gen. Buonaparte in March 1797, and retaken in April, by the Auſtrians under Gen. Lauden.

BOTZENBURG, a town of Germany, in the duchy of Mecklenburg. It had a caſtle, which was deſtroyed by the Danes in 1202. It is ſeated on the Elbe, and the veſſels that paſs by are obliged to pay a conſiderable toll. Lon. 10. 48. E. Lat. 63. 34. N.

BOVA, an epiſcopal town of Naples, ſeated near the Apennine mountains; 20 miles SE. of Reggio. Lon. 16. 15. E. Lat. 38. 20. N.

BOVATA TERRÆ, in ancient law writers, ſignifies an oxgate of land, or ſo much as may be ploughed in a year with one ox; by ſome reckoned at 25 acres, by others at 18 or 20; and valued at 13s to 20s yearly rent.

BOVAUGH BRIDGE, a village of Ireland, in county of Tyrone, Ulſter.

BOUCHAIN, a fortified town of France in the department of the North, and ci-devant province of Hainault. It is divided into two parts by the river Scheld. It was taken by the French in 1676: and by the allies under the duke of Marlborough in 1711, which was the laſt military atchievement of that great general; but the following year it was retaken by the French. It has had its ſhare, of ſuffering in the preſent war, being only 9 miles W. of Valenciennes. Lon. 3. 21. E. Lat. 50. 18. N.

BOUCHART, a town of France, in the department of Indre and Loire, ſituated in a ſmall iſland of the river Vienne, 15 miles from Tours.

(1.) BOUCHE, *n. ſ.* [from *bouche*, a mouth, Fr.] an allowance of proviſions.

(2.) BOUCHE OF COURT, the privilege of having meat and drink at court ſcot-free. The word is alſo written *bowge*, *bouge*, and *budge*. The French long uſed the phraſe, *Avoir bouche á la cour*; that is, *to have table or diet at court*. This privilege was ſometimes only extended to bread, beer, and wine: it was anciently uſed in the houſes of noblemen, as well as in the king's court. Thomas E. of Lancaſter retained Sir John de Ewre, to ſerve him with 10 men at arms in time of war, allowing them *bouge of court*, with livery of hay and oats, horſe ſhoes and nails.

BOUCHEFF, *n. ſ. obſ.* goodneſs. *Chaucer.*

(1.) BOUCHET, John, a French poet and hiſtorian who flouriſhed in the 16th century. The beſt of his writings are his Annals of Aquitaine, and his *Chapelet des Princes*.

(2.) BOUCHET. *n. ſ.* [French.] A ſort of pear.

BOUCOTT, a town near Burton, Nottingham.

* BOUD. *n. ſ.* An inſect which breeds in malt; called alſo a *weevil*.

(1.) BOUDRY, a chatellany of Switzerland, in the province of Neufchatel.

(2.) BOUDRY,

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(2.) BOUDRY the capital of the above chatellany, (N° 1.) Lon. 6. 40. E. Lat. 47. 1. N.

BOVERIA, or } *n. f.* in old records, an ox ſtall;
BOVERIUM, } a cow-houſe.

BOVERTON, a town of S. Wales in Glamorganſhire.

BOVETHUS, *n. f.* [old law Lat.] a young ox.

BOVEY COAL, an inflammable foſſile found in England, France, Italy, Swiſſerland, Germany, Ireland, &c. Its colour is brown or browniſh black, and of a laminar ſtructure. It is compoſed of wood, penetrated by bitumen; and frequently contains pyrites, alum, and vitriol.

BOUFFE, *n. f. obſ.* a belch. *Chauc.*

(1.) BOUFLERS, a town of France, in the department of Oiſe.

(2.) BOUFLERS, Lewis Francis, duke of Bouflers, a peer and marſhal of France, was born in 1644. He diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his valour and conduct in ſeveral ſieges and battles, and had the command of the right wing when the French were defeated at the bloody battle of Malplaquet. He died at Fountainbleau in 1711.

(3.) BOUFLERS, marſhal, the ſon of the Duke, (N° 2.) is famous for having been the deliverer of Genoa, where he died.

BOUGE. See BOUCHE, N° 2.

* *To* BOUGE. *v. n.* [from *bouge*, Fr.] To ſwell out.

BOUGEANT, William Hyacinth, a famous Jeſuit, who firſt taught humanity at Caen and Nevers, and afterwards ſettled at the college of Paris, where he employed himſelf in writing ſeveral works, particularly, 1. A collection of phyſical obſervations, extracted from the beſt authors. 2. An hiſtory of the wars and negociations which preceded the treaty of Weſtphalia. 3. The female doctor, a philoſophical amuſement on the language of beaſts, &c. He died in 1743.

BOUGE-RAVEL, in ichthyology, a ſpecies of BOOPS caught in the Mediterranean, and brought to ſome of the Italian markets. Its noſe is long and pointed; its back is of a reddiſh blue, its tail red, and its belly of a fine ſilvery white. Its whole body is ſhorter and broader than the common boops. *Willughby.*

(1.) * BOUGH. *n. f.* [*bog*, Sax. the *gh* is mute.] An arm or large ſhoot of a tree, bigger than a branch, yet not always diſtinguiſhed from it.—A vine-labourer, finding a *bough* broken, took a branch of the ſame *bough*, and tied it about the place broken. *Sidney.*—

Their lord and patron loud did him proclaim,
And at his feet their laurel-*boughs* did throw.
Fairy Queen.

From the *bough*
She gave him that fair enticing fruit. *Milton.*

As the dove's flight did guide Æneas, now
May thine conduct me to the golden *bough*.
Denham.

Under ſome fav'rite myrtle's ſhady *boughs*,
They ſpeak their paſſions in repeated vows.
Roſcommon.

See how, on every *bough*, the birds expreſs,
In their ſweet notes, their happineſs. *Dryden.*

'Twas all her joy the ripening fruits to tend,
And ſee the *boughs* with happy burdens bend.
Pope.

(2.) BOUGHS, GREEN, anciently made a part of the decoration of altars and temples, eſpecially on feſtival occaſions. Oaken boughs were offered to Jupiter; thoſe of laurel, to Apollo; of olive, to Minerva; myrtle, to Venus; ivy, to Bacchus; pine, to Pan; and cypreſs, to Pluto.

(1.) * BOUGHT. *n. f.* [from *To bow.*] 1. A twiſt; a link; a knot.—

His huge long tail wound up in hundred folds,
Whoſe wreathed *boughts* whenever he unfolds,
And thick entangled knots adown does flack.
Fairy Queen.

Immortal verſe,
Such as the meeting ſoul may pierce,
In notes, with many a winding *bought*
Of linked ſweetneſs, long drawn out. *Milton.*

2. A flexure.—The flexure of the joints is not the ſame in elephants as in other quadrupeds, but nearer unto thoſe of a man; the *bought* of the forelegs not directly backward, but laterally, and ſomewhat inward. *Brown's Vulgar Errours.*

(2.) * BOUGHT. *preter.* and *participle* of *To buy*; which ſee.—

The chief were theſe who not for empire fought,
But with their blood their country's ſafety *bought*. *Pope.*

BOUGHTON, 3 Engliſh villages, viz. 1. near Cheſter: 2. in Northamptonſhire, 2 miles from Kettering: and, 3. in Nottinghamſhire, 3 miles S W. of Tuxfield.

BOUGHTON-MUNCHELSEY, a town in Kent.

BOUGIE, [Fr. a wax candle,] a machine, which (as the wax candle formerly was) is introduced into the urethra for removing obſtructions. In 1551, Andreas Lacuna, of Caſtile, publiſhed at Rome in 12 pages, the method of knowing and extirpating caruncles in the neck of the bladder; which he owns he learned from one Philippus, a Portugueſe quack, whom he believed to be the inventor of the bougie ſo employed, and ſays, he had cured ſome people at Rome, by them. Sculletus, about the middle of the 17th century, uſed bougies in diſeaſes of the urethra, and M. Daran probably took the hint from him. Different compoſitions have been uſed, and generally mercury was a part of them. Riverius made a plaſter as follows: R. ol. oliv. *lb.* iv. ceræ citrin. *lb.* ii. minii & ceruſſ. ãã *lb.* iſs tereb. venet. & rez. alb. ãã *oz.* iii. m. The following is recommended by Mr Hunter:—R. olei olivæ lib. iij. Ceræ flavæ lib. j. Minii lib. iſs. Theſe are to be boiled together over a ſlow fire for ſix hours. Bougies made with this compoſition will be found much too ſoft for immediate uſe, but after keeping ſome months, will acquire ſufficient firmneſs. The plaſter may be made of a ſtiffer conſiſtence, by adding 2 or 3 ounces more wax, and the like quantity of minium, and continuing the boiling till the latter is diſſolved. A tolerable good compoſition for bougies may alſo be formed with litharge plaſter and yellow wax, to which may be added, a ſmall quantity of red ſulphurated quickſilver. The following formula is from Swediaur:—R. Ceræ flavæ lib. j. Spermatis ceti drach. iii. Ceruſſæ acetatæ drach. ij. ad. viij. Theſe are boiled together as in the former inſtance, and the proportion of acetated ceruſe regulated according as the bougies

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are designed to be of a firm or weaker consistence. When of a large size, they should always be of the latter description, that they may the more readily conform to the shape of the passage when introduced. Whether the bougies are made up of this or any other composition, they must be of different sizes, from the bigness of a knitting needle to that of a goose quill. They are made of linen rags, spread with a proper matter and then rolled up as follow:—Having spread any quantity of the linen rag with the composition that is chosen for the purpose, cut it into slips from six to ten inches long, and from half an inch to an inch broad; then roll them on a glazed tile or marble into the form of a wax candle; and as the end of the bougie that is to be entered first into the urethra should be somewhat smaller than the rest, cut the slips a little tapering. When the bougies are rolled up, that side must be outward on which the plaster is spread. Bougies are likewise formed of catgut, a substance well calculated to penetrate a strictured part in the first instance, as it admits of being made smaller than the plaster bougie, and yet possesses a sufficient degree of elasticity and strength to allow of being pushed forward with some force. Catgut bougies are also well calculated to pass through an aperture which takes a winding sort of direction, a case in which the common bougie very frequently fails. They do less however towards dilating the stricture than is generally supposed, as they soon become soft and slabby, and in that state, rather yield to the pressure of the stricture, than produce the effect of dilating it. Monsr. Daran, and others, attributed the action of the bougies to the composition they made use of in forming them. Mr Sharp apprehended, that as much of their efficacy was owing to the compression they made on the affected part, as to any other principle: and Dr Aitken very justly says, "As it is evident, that bougies of very different compositions succeed equally well, in curing the same disorders in the urethra, it is plain that they do not act by means of any peculiar qualities in their composition, but by means of some property common to them all. This must be their mechanical form and texture, therefore their mode of action must be simple compression. The efficacy of mere compression in many cases of constriction is well known, from the use of sponge tents for widening parts that are straitened by cicatrices; and admitting obstructions in the urethra to be from a constriction formed by cicatrized ulcers, or a projection of the spongy substance of the urethra into the canal, we may easily conceive, that a gentle continued elastic compression will in time overcome the disease. We may also readily account for the inferior efficacy of metallic and whalebone bougies, from their not having the property of swelling with moisture, and therefore not making so equal a compression." A late invention, in which catgut is involved in elastic gum, is perhaps one of the greatest improvements ever made in the composition of simple bougies. The gum defends the catgut from the moisture of the urethra, and renders the bougie pliant in all its parts, whilst a very suitable degree of firmness results from the intermixture of the catgut. Some injury however is done by the coat of varnish with which those bougies are sometimes covered, the urethra being very considerably irritated from this cause when the bougie is retained for any length of time. The practice of keeping the bougie in, as formerly directed by Mr Sharp and others, for several hours together, has been relinquished of late years on account of the injury supposed to be done by it to the functions of the musculi acceleratores. It is now the practice to wear a bougie only for a few minutes at a time; but there certainly are cases, where this treatment cannot but prove inefficacious.

(1.) BOUGUER, John, a good French mathematician and professor royal of hydrography, was author of A complete treatise on Navigation. He died in 1713.

(2.) BOUGUER, Peter, a celebrated French mathematician, born at Croisie, in 1698, was the son of the professor, (N° 1.) He learned mathematics from his father, from the time he was able to speak, and thus became a proficient in the science, while he was yet a child. Being sent early to the Jesuits college at Vannes, he instructed the regent in mathematics, at 11 years of age. At 13, he had a public contest with a professor of mathematics, upon an erroneous proposition he had advanced; and gained so complete a victory over him, that he left the country. At 15, upon his father's death, he was, after a public examination, appointed to succeed him in his professorship. In 1727, he obtained the prize given by the academy of sciences, for the best way of masting ships: in 1729, another for the best manner of observing at sea the height of the stars; and, in 1731, a 3d prize for the most advantageous way of observing the declination of the magnetic needle. In 1730, he was removed to Havre. In 1731, he was appointed geometrician to the academy, and in 1735, pensioner astronomer: when he was also sent along with MM. Godin, Condamine, and Jussieu, on the commission to S. America, to determine the measure of the degrees of the meridian and the figure of the earth. In this laborious business of 10 years duration, chiefly among the lofty Cordelier mountains, he determined several other new points, besides the main object; particularly respecting, 1. the expansion and contraction of metals, &c. by heat and cold; 2. the refraction of the atmosphere by the tops of the mountains; 3. the density of the air at different heights; 4. the effect of the mountains upon the plummet; 5. a method of rectifying the errors committed by navigators in determining their rout; and, 6. a new construction of the log for measuring a ship's way, &c. He died, 15th Aug. 1758, aged 60. His chief works are, 1. The Figure of the Earth, determined by the observations made in S. America: 1749, 4to.: 2. Treatise on Navigation and Pilotage; 1752, 4to. abridged by La Caille, in 1 vol. 8vo.; 1768: 3. Treatise on ships, 4to. 1756: and, 4. On the Gradation of Light; 1729 and 1760, 4to. He wrote also a vast number of important papers, inserted in the Memoirs of the Academy; of which Dr Hutton gives a complete list in his *Mathem. & Philos. Dict.* p. 219, 220.

BOUHOURS, Dominic, a celebrated French critic,

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critic, born at Paris 1628. He was entered into the ſociety of Jeſuits at the age of 16; and was appointed to read lectures upon polite literature in the college of Clermont at Paris, where he had ſtudied: but he was ſo inceſſantly attacked with the headach, that he could not purſue the deſtined taſk. He afterwards undertook the education of two ſons of the Duke of Longueville, which he diſcharged with great applauſe. The duke had ſuch a regard for Bouhours, that he wiſhed to die in his arms; and the *Account of the pious Chriſtian Death* of this great perſonage, was the firſt work which Bouhours gave to the public. He was ſent to Dunkirk to the Popiſh refugees from England; and in the midſt of his miſſionary occupations found means to compoſe and publiſh books. Among theſe were, *Entretiens d'Ariſte & d'Eugene*, Dialogues between Ariſtus and Eugenius; a critical work, concerning the French language. It was printed 5 times at Paris, twice at Grenoble, at Lyons, Bruſſels, Amſterdam, Leyden, &c. and embroiled him in quarrels with a great many cenſors; with Menage in particular, who, however, lived in friendſhip with him, before and after. This piece recommended Bouhours ſo effectually to the celebrated miniſter Colbert, that he truſted him with the education of his ſon the Marquis of Segnelai. He wrote afterwards ſeveral other works; the chief of which are, 1. Remarks and doubts upon the French language. 2. Dialogues upon the art of thinking well in works of genius. 3. The life of St Ignatius. 4. The art of pleaſing in converſation. 5. The life of St Francis Xavier, apoſtle of the Indies and of Japan. This laſt work was tranſlated from the French into Engliſh by Mr Dryden, and publiſhed at London in 1688, with a dedication prefixed to James II.'s queen.

(1.) BOUILLON, a town in France, in the ci-devant county of Luxemburgh; now included in one of the new departments lately annexed to the republic. The French took it ſo long ago as 1676. The caſtle is ſeated on a rock that is almoſt inacceſſible, on the river Semois, 12 m. NE. of Sedan. Lon. 5. 20. E. Lat. 49. 45. N.

(2.) * BOUILLON. *n. ſ.* [French.] Broth; ſoup; any thing made to be ſupped; a term uſed in cookery.

(3.) BOUILLON, in the menage, a lump or exceſcence of fleſh that grows either upon or juſt by the fruſh, inſomuch that the fruſh ſhoots out like a lump of fleſh, and makes the horſe halt; and this is called the *fleſh blowing upon the* FRUSH.

BOVIL's HALL, in Eſſex, near Clackton.

BOUIN, an iſle of France in the Bay of Biſcay, on the coaſt of the department of Vendée.

BOVINA AFFECTIO. See AFFECTIO.

BOVINES, a ſmall town of France, in the ci-devant Auſtrian Netherlands, ſeated on the Maeſe, 10 m. S. of Namur; now included in one of the new French departments. Lon. 4. 50. E. Lat. 50. 19. N.

BOVINGTON, 2 villages, viz. 1. in Dorſetſhire, near Affpiddle: 2. in Hertfordſhire, near Hempſtead.

BOVINO, an epiſcopal town of Naples, in the Capitanata, ſeated at the foot of the Apennine mountains. Lon. 16. 15. E. Lat. 41. 17. N.

BOVISTA, a name uſed by ancient botaniſts, for the LYCOPERDON, or puff-ball.

BOVIUM, in ancient geography, a town of the Silures, in Britain, 15 m. S. of Iſca Silurum, or Caer-leon, in Monmouthſhire: Now called COWBRIDGE; or, according to Baudrand, BANGOR in Caernarvonſhire.

BOULAINVILLIERS, Henry de, Lord of St Saiſe, and an eminent French writer, was deſcended from a very ancient and noble family, and born at St Saiſe, in 1658. His education was among the fathers of the oratory; where he diſcovered, from his infancy, thoſe uncommon abilities for which he was afterwards diſtinguiſhed. He applied himſelf principally to hiſtory; in which his performances are numerous and conſiderable. He was author of a hiſtory of the Arabians; Fourteen letters upon the ancient parliament of France; a Hiſtory of France to the reign of Charles VIII.; the State of France, with hiſtorical memoirs concerning the ancient government of that monarchy to the time of Hugh Capet; "written (ſays M. Monteſquieu) with a ſimplicity and honeſt freedom, worthy of that ancient family from which their author was deſcended." He died at Paris in 1722; and after his death, was publiſhed his Life of Mahomet.

(1.) BOULANGER, John, a French engraver, who flouriſhed towards the end of the 17th century. He adopted a manner, which, though not original, he greatly improved: He finiſhed the faces, hands, and all the naked parts of his figures, very neatly with dots inſtead of ſtrokes, or ſtrokes and dots. The effect is by no means unpleaſing; only, in ſome few inſtances, he has oppoſed the coarſe graving of his draperies, and back ground, ſo violently to the neater work of the fleſh, the the outline of the latter is rendered hard, and the general appearance flat. This ſtyle of engraving has been ſince carried to its greateſt perfection in England. His draperies are heavy, and the folds not well marked. However, his beſt prints poſſeſs much merit, and are deſervedly held in eſteem.

(2.) BOULANGER, Nicholas Anthony, a very ſingular Frenchman, was born at Paris in 1722, and died there in 1759, aged only 37. He is ſaid to have come out of the college of Beauvais, almoſt as ignorant as he had entered into it; but ſtruggling hard againſt his unaptneſs to learn, he at laſt overcame it. At 17 he began to ſtudy mathematics and architecture; and, in 3 or 4 years made ſuch progreſs as to be uſeful to the baron of Thiers, whom he accompanied to the army in quality of engineer. Afterwards he had the ſuperviſion of the highways and bridges; and he executed ſeveral public works in Champagne, Burgandy, and Lorrain. The author of his life, in the *Dictionnaire des Hommes celebres*, writes, that in this province a terrible ſpirit diſcovered itſelf in him, which he himſelf did not ſuſpect before, viz. the ſpirit of "thinking philoſophically." In cutting through mountains, directing and changing the courſe of rivers, and in the breaking up and turning over the ſtrata of the earth, he ſaw a multitude of different ſubſtances, which (he thought) evinced the great antiquity of it, and a long ſeries of revolutions which it muſt have undergone. From the revolutions in the globe, he paſſed to the

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the changes that muſt have happened in the manners of men in ſocieties, in government, in religion; and he formed many conjectures upon all theſe. To be farther ſatisfied, he wanted to know what, in the hiſtory of ages, had been ſaid upon theſe particulars; and, that he might be informed from the fountain head, he learned firſt Latin and then Greek. Not yet content, he plunged into Hebrew, Syriac, Chaldaic, and Arabic; and acquired ſuch erudition, that, if he had lived, he would have been one of the moſt learned men of Europe. His works are, 1. *Traite du Deſpotiſme Oriental*, 2 vols 12mo; a very bold work; but not ſo bold and licentious as, 2. *L'Antiquite devoilee*, 3 vols 12mo. This was poſthumous. 3. He furniſhed to the *Encyclopedie* the articles *Deluge*, *Corvée*, and *Societé*. 4. He left behind him in MS. a Dictionary which may be regarded as a concordance in ancient and modern language. He is ſaid to have been of a ſweet, calm, and engaging temper, which, however, it is very difficult to reconcile with the dark, impetuous, ardent ſpirit, that appears to have actuated him as a writer.

(1.) BOULAY, a town of France, in the department of the Moſelle. Lon. 6. 33. E. Lat. 49. 10. N.

(2.) BOULAY, or BULÆUS, Cæſar Egaſſe DU, was born at St Ellier in France, and became profeſſor of humanity at the college of Navarre, regiſter, rector, and hiſtoriographer of the univerſity of Paris. He died in 1768, after having publiſhed ſeveral works. The principal of them are, *A Hiſtory of the Univerſity of Paris*, in Latin, 6 vols folio; and the *Treaſure of Roman Antiquities*, in 1 vol. folio.

BOULCOLACA, or BOURKOLAKOS, [from βουρκος, mud, and γαλακος, a ditch,] among the modern Greeks, denotes the ſpectre of ſome wicked perſon, who died excommunicated by the patriarch, was reanimated by the devil, and cauſed great diſturbance among the people; of which many ſtrange ſtories are told.

BOULD, a hamlet of Oxfordſhire, in Idbury.

* BOULDER WALLS. [in architecture.] Walls built of round flints or peebles, laid in a ſtrong mortar; uſed where the ſea has a beach caſt up, or where there are plenty of flints. *Build. Dict.*

BOULETTE, in the manege, an epithet of a horſe, when the fetlock bends foreward out of its natural ſituation, through violent riding, or by being too ſhort jointed.

BOULGE, a village in Suffolk, 5 m. NW. of Woodbridge.

BOULIMY. See BULIMY.

BOULINIS, or BOULIGNIS, a copper coin, current at Bologna, equal to the BAIOCCO.

(1.) BOULLOGNE, Bon DE, a painter of eminence, born at Paris in 1649. From his father Lewis, (No. 3.) he learned the firſt principles of the art; but went to Rome to perfect himſelf from the works of the beſt maſters. He abode in Italy 5 years. He excelled in hiſtory and portrait. His talents for copying the pictures of the great Italian painters were ſo very extraordinary, that he frequently deceived the greateſt judges. He died at Paris in 1717, aged 68.

(2.) BOULLOGNE, Lewis DE, was born at Paris, in 1654, was the younger brother of Bon, (No. 1.) and like him, learned from his father the firſt principles of painting, and afterwards went to Rome to complete his ſtudies. His works, on his return, were ſo much eſteemed, that Louis XIV. made him knight of St Michael, appointed him his principal painter, allowed him ſeveral penſions, and raiſed him to the rank of nobility. He embelliſhed the church of the Invalids, the chapel of Verſailles, &c. He chiefly excelled in hiſtory and allegory. He died at Paris 1734, aged 80.

(3.) BOULLOGNE, or BOULLONNE, } Lewis DE, painter to the French king, and profeſſor of the academy of painting, diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his art; and died at Paris in 1674, aged 65. There are three of his pictures in the church of Notre Dame. He left two ſons. See No. 1. and 2.

BOULNEHERST, a village in Bedfordſhire, near Thurley.

BOULNESS, a village in Cumberland, on the Solway Frith, where, by croſſing the ſands between Scotland and England, at low water, paſſengers ſave a circuit of many miles. At this place was the ancient termination of the Picts Wall.

BOULOGNE. See BOLOGNE.

BOULOGNOIS. See BOLOGNOIS.

BOULSTON, a village in Herefordſhire, E. of Aconbury.

* *To* BOULT. *v. a.* See *To* BOLT.

BOULTER, Hugh, D. D. was born in or near London, of reputable and wealthy parents. Before the revolution, he was admitted a commoner of Chriſt church in Oxford. Some time after, he was choſen a demy of Magdalene college, at the ſame election with Mr Addiſon and Dr Wilcox. From the merit and learning of the perſons elected, this was commonly called by Dr Hough, preſident of the college, the *golden election*. He was invited to London by Sir Charles Hodges, principal ſecretary of ſtate, in 1700, who made him his chaplain, and recommended him to Dr Teniſon, archbiſhop of Canterbury. By the influence of the earl of Sunderland, he was promoted to the parſonage of St Olave in Southwark, and the archdeaconry of Surry; where he continued diſcharging faithfully his paſtoral office, till he was recommended to attend K. George I. as his chaplain, when he went to Hanover in 1719. He taught prince Frederick the Engliſh language, and by his conduct ſo won the king's favour, that he promoted him to be dean of Chriſt-church, and biſhop of Briſtol. Five years afterwards, he received a letter from the ſecretary of ſtate, acquainting him that the king had nominated him archbiſhop of Armagh and primate of Ireland. This honour he would gladly have declined; and deſired the ſecretary to uſe his good offices with his majeſty to excuſe him from accepting it. Ireland happened to be at this juncture in a great flame, occaſioned by Wood's ruinous project; and the miniſtry thought that the biſhop would greatly contribute to quench it by his judgment, moderation, and addreſs. The king therefore laid his abſolute commands upon him; to which he at laſt ſubmitted. When he had taken poſſeſſion of the primacy, he began to conſider that country, in which his lot was caſt for life, as his own; and to promote

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mote his true intereſt with the greateſt zeal and aſſiduity. Accordingly, in innumerable inſtances, he exerted himſelf in the nobleſt acts of beneficence and public ſpirit. In ſeaſons of the greateſt ſcarcity, he was more than once inſtrumental in preventing a famine. On one of theſe occaſions he diſtributed vaſt quantities of corn throughout the kingdom, for which the Houſe of Commons paſſed a vote of public thanks; and at another time 2500 perſons were fed at the poor houſe in Dublin, every morning, and as many every evening, for a conſiderable time together, moſtly at the primate's expence. When ſchemes were propoſed for the advantage of the country, he encouraged and promoted them not only with his counſel but his purſe. He had great compaſſion for the poor clergy of his dioceſe, who were diſabled from giving their children a proper education; and he maintained ſeveral of the children of ſuch in the univerſity. He erected 4 houſes at Drogheda for the reception of clergymen's widows, and purchaſed an eſtate for the endowment of them. His charities for augmenting ſmall livings and buying glebes amounted to upwards of 30,000 l. beſides what he deviſed by will for the like purpoſes in England. In ſhort, the inſtances he gave of his generoſity, benevolence, virtue, piety, and wiſdom, are almoſt innumerable; and the hiſtory of his life is his nobleſt panegyric. This excellent prelate died at London, on the 2d of June, 1742, and was interred in Weſtminſter-abbey, where a beautiful monument of finely poliſhed marble is erected to his memory.

BOULTERS. See BOLTERS, N° 2.

BOULTHAM, a village SW. of Lincoln.

BOULTINE, in architecture, a convex moulding, of one fourth of a circle; placed below the plinth in the Tuſcan and Doric capital.

BOULTING. See BOLTING, § 2 & 3.

BOULTON, Edmund. See BOLTON, N° 17.

BOULUKE, in the military orders of the Turks, a body of the janizaries, with an officer in the place of a colonel at their head, ſent upon ſome particular enterprize. They are ſelected out of the body, and as ſoon as the buſineſs is over, are received again into their former companies.

(1.) BOUM, in ancient geography, a town in Ethiopia beyond Egypt, on the W. ſide of the Nile.

(2.) BOUM SOLIS STABULA, in ancient geography, the territory of Mylæ, a peninſula on the E. coaſt of Sicily, N. of Syracuſe; remarkable for its fertility and rich paſtures: whence aroſe the fable of the oxen of the ſun feeding there. Pliny and Seneca ſay, that ſomething like dung is thrown out on the coaſt of Mylæ and Meſſana, which gave riſe to the fable of the oxen of the ſun being ſtalled there; and the inhabitants ſtill affirm the ſame thing.

(1.) BOUNCE, in ichthyology, the Engliſh name of a ſpecies of ſqualus. See SQUALUS.

(2.) * BOUNCE. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. A ſtrong ſudden blow.

The *bounce* burſt ope the door; the ſcornful fair
Relentleſs look'd. *Dryden.*

2. A ſudden crack or noiſe.—

What cannoneer begot this luſty blood?
He ſpeaks plain cannon fire, and ſmoke, and *bounce;*
He gives the baſtinado with his tongue. *Shakeſ.*

Two hazel nuts I threw into the flame,
And to each nut I gave a ſweetheart's name;
This with the loudeſt *bounce* me ſore amaz'd,
That in a flame of brighteſt colour blaz'd. *Gay.*

3. A boaſt; a threat: in low language.

* *To* BOUNCE. *v. n.* [a word formed, ſays *Skinner*, from the ſound.] 1. To fall or fly againſt any thing with great force, ſo as to rebound.—

The fright awaken'd Arcite with a ſtart,
Againſt his boſom *bounc'd* his heaving heart. *Dryden.*

2. To ſpring; to make a ſudden leap; a ſudden exploſion.—High nonſenſe is like beer in a bottle, which has, in reality, no ſtrength and ſpirit, but frets, and flies, and *bounces*, and imitates the paſſions of a much nobler liquour. *Addiſon.*—

They *bounce* from their neſt. *Swift.*
Out *bounc'd* the maſtiff of the triple head;
Away the hare with double ſwiftneſs fled. *Swift.*

3. To make a ſudden noiſe.—Juſt as I was putting out my light, another *bounces* as hard as he can knock. *Swift.* 4. To boaſt; to bully: a ſenſe only uſed in familiar ſpeech. 5. To be bold, or ſtrong.—

Forſooth the *bouncing* Amazon,
Your buſkin'd miſtreſs, and your warriour love,
To Theſeus muſt be wedded. *Shakeſpeare.*

* BOUNCER. *n. ſ.* [from *bounce.*] A boaſter; a bully; an empty threatener: in colloquial ſpeech.

(1.) * BOUND. *adj.* [a word of doubtful etymology.] Deſtined; intending to come to any place.

His be that care, whom moſt it doth concern,
Said he; but whither with ſuch haſty flight
Art thou now *bound?* for well might I diſcern
Great cauſe, that carries thee ſo ſwift and light. *Fairy Queen.*

—To be *bound* for a port one deſires extremely, and ſail to it, with a fair gale, is very pleaſant. *Temple.*—

Willing we ſought your ſhores, and hither *bound*,
The port ſo long deſir'd, at length we found. *Dryden.*

(2.) * BOUND. *n. ſ.* [from *bind*] 1. A limit; a boundary; that by which any thing is terminated.

Illimitable ocean! without *bound;*
Without dimenſion; where length, breadth, and height,
And time, and place, are loſt. *Milton.*

—Thoſe vaſt Scythian regions were ſeparated by the natural *bounds*, of rivers, lakes, mountains, woods, or marſhes. *Temple.*—

Indus and Ganges, our wide empire's *bounds*,
Swell their dy'd currents with their natives wounds. *Dryden.*

Through all th' infernal *bounds*,
Which flaming Phlegethon ſurrounds,
Sad Orpheus ſought his conſort loſt. *Pope.*

2. A limit by which any excurſion is reſtrained.—

Hath he ſet *bounds* between their love and me?
I am their mother, who ſhall bar me from them? *Shakeſpeare.*

Stronger and fiercer by reſtraint he roars,
And knows no *bound*, but makes his pow'r his ſhores. *Denham.*

—Any

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—Any *bounds* made with body, even adamantine walls, are far from putting a ſtop to the mind, in its progreſs in ſpace. *Locke.* 3. [from *To bound*, *v. n.*] A leap; a jump; a ſpring.—

Do but note a wild and wanton herd,
Or race of youthful and unhandled colts,
Fetching mad *bounds*, bellowing, and neighing loud. *Shakeſpeare.*

The horſes ſtarted with a ſudden *bound*,
And flung the reins and chariot to the ground. *Addiſon.*

Dextrous he 'ſcapes the coach with nimble *bounds*,
Whilſt ev'ry honeſt tongue Stop thief reſounds. *Gay.*

4. A rebound; the leap of ſomething flying back by the force of the blow.—Theſe inward diſguſts are but the firſt *bound* of this ball of contention. *Decay of Piety.*

(3.) BOUND, in dancing, a ſpring from one foot to the other; by which it differs from a hop, where the ſpring is from one foot to the ſame. It alſo differs from a half coupee, as in the latter the body always bears on the floor, either on one foot or the other; whereas, in the bound, it is thrown quite from the floor.

(4.) * BOUND. *preterite* and *part. paſſive* of *bind*. —Nay, ſaid Pamela, none ſhall take that office from myſelf, being ſo much *bound* as I am for my education. *Sidney.*—

This is Antonio,
To whom I am ſo infinitely *bound*.—
—You ſhould in all ſenſe be much *bound* to him;
For, as I hear, he was much *bound* for you. *Shakeſpeare.*

The gentleman is learn'd, a moſt rare ſpeaker,
To nature none more *bound*. *Shakeſpeare.*

—The biſhops of Hungary, being wonderfully rich, were *bound* to keep great numbers of horſemen, which they uſed to bring into the field. *Knolles.*—They ſummoned the governor to deliver it to them, or elſe they would not leave one ſtone upon another. To which the governor made no other reply, than that he was not *bound* to repair it; but, however, he would, by God's help, keep the ground afterwards. *Clarendon.*

(5.) BOUND BAILIFFS. See BAILIFFS, § 3.

(6.) BOUNDS OF LANDS. See ABBUTALS, and ABUTTAL.

(1.) * *To* BOUND. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To limit; to terminate.—

A lofty tow'r, and ſtrong on every ſide,
With treble walls, which Phlegethon ſurrounds,
Whoſe fiery flood the burning empire *bounds*. *Dryden.*

2. To reſtrain; to confine.—

Take but degree away,
The *bounded* waters
Would liſt their boſoms higher than the ſhores,
And make a ſop of all this ſolid globe. *Shakeſp.*

3. Sometimes with *in*.—

My mother's blood
Runs on the dexter cheek, and this ſiniſter
Bounds in my ſire's. *Shakeſpeare.*

(2.) * *To* BOUND. *v. a.* To make to bound.—If I might buffet for my love, or *bound* my horſe for her favours, I would lay on like a butcher, and ſit like a jackanapes, never off. *Shakeſp.*—

If love, ambitious, ſought a match of birth,
Whoſe veins *bound* richer blood than lady Blanch? *Shakeſpeare.*

(3.) * *To* BOUND. *v. n.* [*bondir*, Fr.] 1. To jump; to ſpring; to move forward by leaps.—

Torriſmond appear'd,
Gave me his hand, and led me lightly o'er,
Leaping and *bounding* on the billows head. *Dryd.*

Before his lord the ready ſpaniel *bounds*,
Panting with hope, he tries the furrow'd grounds. *Pope.*

When ſudden thro' the woods a *bounding* ſtag
Ruſh'd headlong down, and plung'd amidſt the river. *Rowe.*

Warbling to the vary'd ſtrain, advance
Two ſprightly youths, to form the *bounding* dance. *Pope.*

2. To rebound; to fly back by repercuſſion.—

Mark then a *bounding* valour in our Engliſh,
That being dead, like to the bullets grazing,
Breaks out into a ſecond courſe of miſchief. *Shakeſpeare.*

* BOUNDARY. *n. ſ.* [from *bound*] Limit; bound.—He ſuffers the confluence and clamours of the people to paſs all *boundaries* of laws, and reverence to his authority. *K. Charles.*—Senſation and reflection are the *boundaries* of our thoughts; beyond which the mind, whatever efforts it would make, is not able to advance. *Locke.*—Great part of our ſins conſiſt in the irregularities attending the ordinary purſuits of life; ſo that our reformation muſt appear, by purſuing them within the *boundaries* of duty. *Rogers.*

* BOUNDEN. *part. paſſive* of *bind*. Not now much in uſe.—

Hereafter, in a better world than this,
I ſhall deſire more love and knowledge of you.—
—I reſt muſt *bounden* to you: fare you well. *Shakeſpeare.*

—We alſo moſt humbly beſought him to accept of us as his true ſervants, by as juſt a right as ever men on earth were *bounden*. *Bacon.*—To be careful for a proviſion of all neceſſaries for ourſelves, and thoſe who depend on us, is a *bounden* duty. *Rogers.*

* BOUNDING-STONE. BOUND-STONE. *n. ſ.* A ſtone to play with.—

I am paſt a boy;
A ſceptre's but a play-thing, and a globe
A bigger *bounding-ſtone*. *Dryden.*

* BOUNDLESS. *adj.* [from *bound*.] Unlimited; unconfined; immeaſurable; illimitable.—

Beyond the infinite and *boundleſs* reach
Of mercy, if thou didſt this deed of death,
Art thou damn'd, Hubert. *Shakeſpeare.*

Heav'n has of right all victory deſign'd;
Whence *boundleſs* power dwells in a will confin'd. *Dryden.*

—Man ſeems as *boundleſs* in his deſires, as God is in his being; and therefore nothing but God himſelf can ſatisfy him. *South.*—Though we make duration *boundleſs* as it is, we cannot extend it beyond all being. God fills eternity, and it is hard to find a reaſon, why one ſhould doubt that he fills immenſity. *Locke.*—

Some guide the courſe of wand'ring orbs on high,
Or roll the planets thro' the *boundleſs* ſky. *Pope.*

* BOUND-

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* BOUNDLESSNESS. *n. f.* [from *boundleſs.*] Exemption from limits.—God has corrected the *boundleſſneſs* of his voluptuous deſires, by ſtinting his capacities. *South.*

* BOUND-STONE. See BOUNDING-STONE.

* BOUNTEOUS. *adj.* [from *bounty.*] Liberal; kind; generous; munificent; beneficent: a word uſed chiefly in poetry for *bountiful.*—

Every one,
According to the gift which *bounteous* nature
Hath in him clos'd. *Shakeſpeare.*

Her ſoul abhorring avarice,
Bounteous; but almoſt *bounteous* to a vice. *Dryd.*

* BOUNTEOUSLY. *adv.* [from *bounteous.*] Liberally; generouſly; largely.—

He *bounteouſly* beſtow'd unenvied good
On me. *Dryden.*

* BOUNTEOUSNESS. *n. f.* [from *bounteous.*] Munificence; liberality; kindneſs.—He filleth all things living with *bounteouſneſs. Pſalms.*

* BOUNTIFUL. *adj.* [from *bounty* and *full.*] 1. Liberal; generous; munificent —

As *bountiful* as mines of India. *Shakeſp.*

—If you will be rich, you muſt live frugal; if you will be popular, you muſt be *bountiful. Taylor.*—I am obliged to return my thanks to many, who, without conſidering the man, have been *bountiful* to the poet. *Dryden.*—God, the *bountiful* author of our being. *Locke.* 2. It has *of* before the thing given, and *to* before the perſon receiving.—Our king ſpares nothing to give them the ſhare of that felicity, *of* which he is ſo *bountiful to* his kingdom. *Dryden.*

* BOUNTIFULLY. *adv.* [from *bountiful.*] Liberally; in a bountiful manner; largely.—

And now thy alms is given,
And thy poor ſtarv'ling *bountifully* fed. *Donne.*

—It is affirm'd that it never raineth in Egypt; the river *bountifully* requiting it in its inundation. *Vulgar Errours.*

* BOUNTIFULNESS. *n. f.* [from *bountiful.*] The quality of being bountiful; generoſity.—Enriched to all *bountifulneſs.* 2 *Corinthians.*

* BOUNTIHEAD. } *n. f.* [from *bounty* and
* BOUNTIHEDE. } *head*, or *hood.* See HOOD.]
* BOUNTIHOOD. } Goodneſs; virtue. It is now wholly out of uſe.—

This goodly frame of temperance,
Formerly grounded, and faſt ſettled
On firm foundation of true *bountihead.*
Fairy Queen.

How ſhall frail pen, with fear diſparg'd,
Conceive ſuch ſovereign glory, and great *bountihood.* *Fairy Queen.*

(1.) * BOUNTY. *n. f.* [*bonté*, Fr.] 1. Generoſity; liberality; munificence.—We do not ſo far magnify her exceeding *bounty*, as to affirm, that ſhe bringeth into the world the ſons of men, adorned with gorgeous attire. *Hooker.*—

If you knew to whom you ſhew this honour,
I know you would be prouder of the work,
Than cuſtomary *bounty* can enforce you. *Shak.*

Such moderation with thy *bounty* join,
That thou may'ſt nothing give, that is not thine.
Denham.

Thoſe godlike men, to wanting virtue kind,
Bounty well plac'd preferr'd, and well deſign'd,
To all their titles. *Dryden.*

2. It ſeems diſtinguiſhed from charity, as a *preſent* from an *alms*; being uſed when perſons, not abſolutely neceſſitous, receive gifts; or when gifts are given by great perſons.—Tell a miſer of *bounty* to a friend or mercy to the poor, and he will not underſtand it. *South.*—Her majeſty did not ſee this aſſembly ſo proper to excite charity and compaſſion; though I queſtion not but her royal *bounty* will extend itſelf to them. *Addiſon.*

(2) BOUNTY, in commerce, a premium paid by government to the exporters of certain Britiſh commodities, as fail cloth, gold and ſilver lace, ſilk-ſtockings, fiſh, corn, &c. The happy influence which bounties have on trade and manufactures is well known; nor can there be a more convincing proof of the good intentions of the Britiſh government, than the great care that is taken to give all poſſible encouragement to thoſe who ſhall eſtabliſh or improve any hazardous branch of manufacture or commerce. All undertakings, in reſpect either to mercantile enterpriſes, or in the eſtabliſhment of manufactures, are weak and feeble in their beginnings; and if unſucceſsful, either ſink entirely, or at leaſt are ſeldom revived in the ſame age. Accidents of this nature are not only deſtructive to private perſons, but exceedingly detrimental to the public intereſt. On this principal, more eſpecially ſince trade has been cultivated, ſuch attempts have been thought deſerving, and have been favoured with public ſupport. This in former times uſually flowed from the crown, in the form of letters patent, charters, or other grants of privileges, which, however requiſite they might be, were notwithſtanding very frequently objects of cenſure. If ſuch as obtained them failed in their endeavours, they were reputed *projectors*; if on the other hand, they ſucceeded, they were conſidered as *monopolizers.* Corporations, which imply the uniting certain individuals into a body, that they may thereby become more uſeful to the *community*, were alſo created by the crown with this view. Many of theſe were formed for promoting trade; and, according to the old ſyſtem of our government, were thought neceſſary and uſeful. But they are now degenerated into ſo many ſyſtems of monopoly, and tend only to be of ſervice to the individuals that compoſe theſe ſmall bodies. On the ſame principle, privileges were granted to private perſons, thinking, that what was immediately of uſe to them would terminate in public utility. Theſe alſo did good in bringing in many arts and manufactures; though, in ſome caſes, tending to private intereſt more than public emolument, they were liable to legal correction. In later times, and in concerns of moment, a much better method has been adopted, as often as it hath been found practicable, by rejecting private or particular intereſt, and propoſing the deſigned advantages, to ſuch as ſhould perform the ſtipulations on which they are granted. Theſe bounties, as they are paid by the public, ſo they are ſolely calculated for the benefit of the public. They are ſometimes given to encourage induſtry and application in raiſing a neceſſary commodity; which was intended by the bounty on exporting corn. The intention of this bounty was to encourage agriculture; and the conſequence hath been, that

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we now grow more than twice as much as we did at the eſtabliſhment of the bounty; we even conſume twice as much bread as we then grew; yet in A. D. 1697, we exported a 15th part of what we grew, of late years a 29th part only. The bounty on this 29th part amounted to ſomewhat more than 50,000 l. and the produce to more than 400,000 l. It is evident that all this is ſo much clear gain to the nation. But this is far from being all that we have annually gained. For if our cultivation is doubled, as indeed it is, then the rent of lands, the ſubſiſtence of working hands, the profits of the tradeſmen ſupplying them with utenſils, clothes, the value of horſes employed, &c. muſt all be taken into the account. To theſe we muſt add the freight, amounting to half the bounty, to form a complete idea of the advantages gained. Bounties are alſo occaſionally given with a view to promote manufactures, as in the caſe of thoſe made of ſilk. Many laws are to be found in our ſtatute books in favour of the ſilk manufacture, made with great wiſdom and propriety, for the encouragement and ſupport of many thouſands of induſtrious perſons employed therein. By ſtatute 8 Geo. I. cap. 15. § 1. a bounty was given on the due exportation of ribbons and ſtuffs, of ſilk only, of 3 s. upon a pound weight; ſilks, and ribbons of ſilk, mixed with gold and ſilver, 4 s. a pound; on ſilk gloves, ſilk ſtockings, ſilk fringes, ſilk laces, and ſewing ſilk, 1 s. 3 d. a pound; on ſtuffs of ſilk and grogram yarn, 8 d. a pound; on ſilk mixed with incle or cotton, 1 s. a pound; on ſtuffs of ſilk mixed with worſted, 6 d. a pound, for 3 years: and, from experience of their utility, theſe were continued by ſubſequent acts. Sometimes bounties are given to ſupport a new manufacture againſt foreigners already in poſſeſſion of it, as in making linen and ſail-cloth. The promoting of the manufacture of Britiſh ſail-cloth was undoubtedly a very important national object, as the conſumption was very large, and of conſequence the purchaſe of it from foreigners an heavy expence on the public. Many methods were therefore deviſed, and countenanced by law, both here and in Ireland, for introducing and encouraging our own in preference to that of ſtrangers, more eſpecially in the royal navy. By ſtat. 12 Ann, cap. 16. § 2. a bounty was given of one penny per ell on all that was exported for a term, and continued by ſubſequent ſtatutes. By 4 Geo. II. cap. 27. § 4. an additional bounty of another penny an ell is granted. Theſe bounties were to be paid out of an additional duty on imported ſail-cloth. By the ſame ſtatute every ſhip built in Britain, or in the plantations, is under the penalty of 50 l. to be furniſhed with a complete ſuit of ſails of Britiſh manufacture. The amount of theſe bounties marks the progreſs of the manufacture, which is alſo aſſiſted by the fund on which the payment is aſſigned. Theſe bounties, however, are never beſtowed but on mature deliberation, in virtue of ſtrong proofs, and with a moral certainty of a national benefit. The great intention of bounties is to place the Britiſh trader on ſuch ground as to render his commerce beneficial to his country. In order to this, ſome profit muſt accrue to himſelf, otherwiſe he would not embark therein; but this, whatever it be, muſt prove inconſiderable in compariſon of what reſults to the public. For if, by the help of ſuch a bounty, one or many traders export to the value of 1000, 10,000, or 100,000 pounds worth of commodities or manufactures, whatever his or their profit or loſs (for the latter, through avidity and overloading the market, ſometimes happens,) may be, the nation gains the 1000, 10,000, or 100,000 pounds; which was the object of the legiſlature in granting the bounty. Upon this conſideration, that the entire produce of what is exported accrues to the nation, the legiſlature, when an alteration of circumſtances required it, have made no ſcruple of augmenting a bounty; as in the caſe of refined ſugar exported, from 3s. to 9 s. per hundred weight. In like manner, the original bounty of 1 l. per ton in favour of veſſels employed in the whale fiſhing hath been doubled, and many new regulations made, in order to render this fiſhery more advantageous to the public. As a bounty is given on malt when allowed to be exported, ſo an equivalent of 3 s. per ton hath been granted on all Britiſh made malt ſpirits when exported, which is a common benefit to land, manufacturers and commerce. It muſt be admitted indeed, that on whatever account, or to whatever amount, this reward is given, the public ſeem to pay, and private perſons ſeem to receive. But theſe private perſons receive it as the hire from the public, for performing a ſervice which otherwiſe they would not perform, the benefit of which accrues to the public, and who can therefore very well afford to pay that reward in reality, which, in fact, they only ſeem to do. For, the bounty is paid to individuals, who, as ſuch, make a part of the public. But the commodities or manufactures exported are ſold to foreigners; and the whole produce of them, be it what it will, comes into the purſe of the public. By attending to this ſelf-evident doctrine, every reaſonable and public ſpirited man will be eaſily reconciled to bounties; and the 3 following conſiderations will be ſufficient to obviate the moſt common objections that have been made to the practice of giving them. 1. That no bounty can be deſired but on the plea of national utility, which always deſerves notice, and cannot be miſtaken. It muſt likewiſe be alledged and proved, that this is the only means whereby the national benefit can be attained. 2. The ſums iſſued on this account not only ſhow the clear expence of the bounty, but alſo indicate the profit gained by the public; for as the one cannot exiſt without the other, that amount muſt be the inconteſtable index of both. 3. It muſt be remembered (and of this too ſome inſtances might be given), that if bounties ſhould be improperly beſtowed, they will of courſe prove ineffectual, and after a few fruitleſs trials will remain unclaimed, and conſequently produce no expence. There is indeed another objection which hath been made againſt the giving of bounties. This is grounded on the frauds to which they are ſuppoſed to be liable; and particularly the relanding of the goods on which the bounty hath been paid, and thereby deceiving and cheating the public. But whoever peruſes the laws made on this head, and attentively conſiders the numerous precautions taken to

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to fix every circumſtance relative to the obtaining of the bounty, the checks on the ſhipping of goods, the ſecurities taken for their due exportation, the certificates required to aſcertain their being actually delivered and ſold in a foreign market, muſt be convinced, that to diſcharge all thoſe ſecurities, in caſe of an intended fraud, is a thing very difficult, if not altogether impracticable. To theſe remarks we may add, that bounties are uſually granted only for a limited time; are always liable to be ſuſpended; and of courſe can never be the great cauſe of any great national loſs. There is no doubt that, excluſive of frauds, the immoderate thirſt of gain may tempt intereſted men to aim at converting what was calculated for public benefit to its detriment, for their own private advantage. Thus, on a proſpect of ſhort crops in other countries, men may take meaſures within the letter, but directly againſt the ſpirit, of the law, to ſend ſo much of our corn abroad, as to endanger a famine at home. For this the wiſdom of parliament provides, not barely by ſuſpending the bounty, but by prohibiting exportation and opening the ports for foreign ſupplies. We cannot with any ſhadow of juſtice aſcribe ſcarcity to the bounty on the exportation. If this was the caſe, ſuſpenſions would be frequent, whereas there have been but 5 in a courſe of 70 years. If the bounty had any ſhare, the larger the exportation the greater would be the ſcarcity. In A. D. 1750 we exported more than one fifth of our growth of wheat, which was notwithſtanding but at 4 ſhillings per buſhel; whereas a century before, A. D. 1650, when we had neither bounty nor exportation, wheat was at 9s and 6d per buſhel. The cauſes of ſcarcity are unkindly ſeaſons; which though human policy cannot prevent, yet their ſad effects have been evidently leſſened by our increaſed growth, ſince the bounty and exportation were allowed by law.

(3.) BOUNTY OF QUEEN ANNE, for augmenting poor livings under 50 l. *per annum*, conſiſts of the produce of the firſt fruits and tenths, after the charges and penſions payable out of the ſame are defrayed. A corporation for management of the ſame was ſettled, &c. in 1704. See AUGMENTATION, § 4.

(1.) BOURBON, Nicholas, a famous Latin poet in the 16th century, was a native of Vandeure near Langres, and the ſon of a wealthy ſmith. Margaret de Valois appointed him preceptor to her daughter Jane d'Albret of Navarre, the mother of king Henry IV. At length he retired to Conde, where he had a benefice, and died about 1550. He wrote 8 books of Epigrams; and a poem on the forge, entitled *Ferraria*. He had great knowledge of antiquity and of the Greek language. Eraſmus praiſes his epigrams.

(2.) BOURBON, Nicholas, a celebrated Greek and Latin poet, was nephew of the preceding. (N° 1.) He taught rhetoric in ſeveral colleges of Paris; and cardinal Perron got him appointed profeſſor of eloquence in the Royal College: he was alſo canon of Langres, and one of the 40 of the French academy. He died in 1644, aged 70. He is eſteemed one of the greateſt Latin poets France has produced. His poems were printed at Paris in 1630.

(3.) BOURBON, a ſmall county of the United States, in Kentucky, bounded on the SE. by Clarke county; on the SW. by Fayette; N. by Harriſon, and NW. by Scott county. Bourbontown is the chief town.

(4.) BOURBON, a river of N. America, in Labrador, which iſſues from Lake Chriſtianaux, paſſes through lake Aſſenipolis, and falls into Hudſon's Bay at York Factory.

(5.) BOURBON, or MASCARENHAS, an iſland in the Indian ocean, lying 300 m. E. of Madagaſcar. It is about 60 m. long and 45 broad. It is in ſome places inacceſſible, and has no port, but has many good roads for ſhipping, particularly on the W. and NE. It is for the moſt part mountainous, but in ſome places there are very beautiful and fertile plains. In the SE. part of the iſland there is a volcano, which has long thrown out vaſt quantities of bitumen, ſulphur, and other combuſtible materials; ſo that the country about it is uſeleſs, and is called by the inhabitants *pays brule*, that is, burnt land. The ſhore is high and rocky all around; and the form of the land is irregular. The air is equally pleaſant and wholeſome. The people live to a great age, without feeling either infirmities or diſeaſes. The hurricanes, of which they have one or two every year, purify the air, ſo as to render it highly ſalubrious. When theſe fail of making their annual viſits, as they ſometimes do, diſeaſes occur and cut off many of the inhabitants, who would otherwiſe ſoon overſtock the iſland. The climate is hot, but not to ſuch a degree as might be expected from its ſituation, the breezes from the mountains being conſtant and refreſhing. The tops of theſe mountains are in winter covered with ſnow; which, melting in ſummer, furniſhes abundance of rivulets, with which the country is plentifully watered: ſo that the ſoil, though not very deep, is wonderfully fruitful, producing Turkey corn and rice twice a-year; and the latter in great abundance. Moſt ſorts of cattle are found here, good in their kind, and very cheap; wild goats and wild hogs are found in the woods and on the tops of the mountains; alſo vaſt quantities of wild fowl of different kinds, fiſh, and land tortoiſes, affording at once the moſt delicate and wholeſome food. This iſland produces bananas, oranges, citrons, tamarinds, and other fruits; alſo ebony, cotton, white pepper, gum benzoin, aloes, and tobacco; all excellent in their kind. No venomous animals are to be found in it, and only two ſorts that are diſagreeable to the ſight, *viz.* ſpiders of the ſize of a pigeon's egg, which weave nets of a ſurpriſing ſtrength, reckoned by ſome capable of being treated ſo as to become as valuable as ſilk; and bats of a moſt enormous ſize, which are not only eaten, but eſteemed a very great delicacy. This iſland was diſcovered by the Portugueſe in 1545, as appears by a date inſcribed by them upon a pillar when they firſt landed; but when the French ſettled in Madagaſcar, this iſland was totally deſolate. Three Frenchmen being baniſhed thither, and left there for 3 years, made ſuch a report of it at their return as ſurpriſed their countrymen. They lived moſt of that time upon pork; and though they were in a manner naked, yet they affirmed that they never had the leaſt

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pain or ſickneſs whatever. This tempted one Anthony Taureau to go over in 1654, accompanied by 7 whites and 6 negroes, who carried with them the cattle from which the iſland has been ſtocked ever ſince. The firſt thing they did was to erect the arms of France, by order of Mr Falcourt who was governor of Madagaſcar, and to give the iſland the name of *Bourbon*. They then ſet up huts, and laid out gardens, in which they cultivated melons, different ſorts of roots, and tobacco; but juſt as the laſt became ripe, the whole plantation was deſtroyed by a hurricane. The French, however, went to work again; and having now ſome acquaintance with the climate, ſucceeded better, and added aloes to the reſt of their plantations: but receiving no ſuccour from Madagaſcar, and being tired of living by themſelves, they embraced the offer of an Engliſh captain, and in 1658 embarked for Madraſs. When the laſt great blow was given to the French at Madagaſcar by the natives, who ſurpriſed and cut them off in one night, there eſcaped as many men, as with their wives, who were natives, filled two canoes; and theſe being driven by the wind on the iſle of Bourbon, were the next ſet of people who inhabited it. This laſt colony, having no opportunity to remove, remained in this iſland and cultivated it. Soon after an additional ſtock of inhabitants arrived. A pirate who had been committing depredations in the Indies, returning to Europe, ran aſhore, and his ſhip being ſplit to pieces upon the rocks, the crew were glad to join the former inhabitants; and as they had a great many Indian women whom they had made priſoners, they lived with them, and in proceſs of time had a numerous poſterity. As Eaſt India ſhips touched frequently at this iſland, when too late to double the Cape, many of the ſailors, for the ſake of the women, deſerted, and ſtaying behind became planters in the iſle of Bourbon. As the place grew more populous, the people became more civilized, and deſirous of living in a more commodious manner; which induced them to build ſmall veſſels, that they might make a trip to Madagaſcar, and to purchaſe ſlaves, whom they employed in their plantations to cultivate aloes, tobacco, and other things, with which they drove a ſmall trade, when ſhips anchored in their roads for the ſake of refreſhments. In this ſituation they were, when the French Eaſt India company put in their claim; and aſſuming their property of the iſland, ſent thither five or ſix families and a governor. At firſt the inhabitants expected to reap ſome benefit from their new maſters; but finding very little, and thinking the governor took too much upon him, they revolted at the inſtigation of a prieſt, ſeized their governor and put him into a dungeon, where he died of hunger and grief. For this ſome of the ringleaders were puniſhed, a kind of fort was erected, ſome guns placed on it, and the French flag kept flying; but in other reſpects, ſo little care was taken, that, till within theſe 50 years, the iſland was in no ſtate of defence. The number of inhabitants, in 1717, was computed at 8000; viz. 900 free, and 7100 ſlaves. It is difficult to diſtinguiſh theſe by their complexions, for even the free are of different colours: and a French writer aſſures us, that he ſaw in a church one family, conſiſting of 6 generations, of all complexions. The eldeſt was a female, 108 years of age, of brown black, like the Indians of Madagaſcar; her daughter, a mulatto; her grand-daughter, a meſtizo; her great grand-daughter, of a duſky yellow; her daughter, again, of an olive colour; and the daughter of this laſt, as fair as any Engliſh girl of the ſame age. Theſe people are, generally ſpeaking, of a gentle quiet diſpoſition; very induſtrious; and ſubmiſſive enough to authority, provided it is exerciſed with a tolerable degree of equity and decency; for otherwiſe the whole of them are apt to riſe in rebellion at once; and the ſlaves have ſo little reaſon to complain of their maſters, that they are always on the ſame ſide. The iſland is divided into quarters. The firſt is that of St Paul, which is the largeſt and beſt peopled: their houſes are built at the foot of a ſteep mountain, on both ſides of a freſh water lake. The plantations are on the top of a mountain, which they aſcend by a very rough and troubleſome paſſage. On the ſummit there is a ſpacious plain, a great part of which is divided into plantations of rice, tobacco, corn, ſugar, and fruits. The quarter of St Dennis, where the governor reſides, lies 7 leagues E. from that of St Paul. It is not ſo well peopled as the former; but the country is more pleaſant, and the ſituation better. At two leagues diſtance, along the ſea coaſt, lies St Mary's, which is but thinly peopled. The laſt and moſt fertile quarter is that of St Suſannah, which is 4 leagues from St Dennis. When the India company became poſſeſſed of Bourbon, they began to improve it greatly; raiſing new forts and batteries, and importing coffee trees from Arabia, which have ſucceeded ſo well, that it is believed they produce a 6th part as much coffee as is raiſed in the kingdom of Yemen in Arabia, and it is likewiſe held next in goodneſs to that.—In 1763, the population amounted to 4627 white people, and 15140 blacks; the cattle conſiſted of 8702 beeves, 4084 ſheep, 7405 goats, and 7619 hogs. Upon an extent of 125,909 acres of cultivated land, they gathered as much caſſava as would feed their ſlaves, 1,135,000 pounds weight of corn, 844,100 pounds of rice, 2,879,100 pounds of maize, and 2,535,100 pounds of coffee; which laſt the company bought up at about 3d. per pound. In 1748, Admiral Boſcawen appeared before this iſland with a Britiſh fleet; but found it ſo well fortified both by nature and art, that he was obliged, after ſome cannonading to very little purpoſe, to purſue his voyage. Lon. 55. 30. E. Lat. 20. 52. N.

(6) BOURBON, HOUSE OF, before the eſtabliſhment of the republican conſtitution, was the royal family of France. Henry IV. in 1589, though of the 10th generation, was the neareſt heir to the crown, on the death of Henry III. (the laſt of the Valois race,) whoſe brother Francis II. married Mary Queen of Scots; both theſe kings having died without iſſue. Louis XVI. who was dethroned and beheaded, was the 5th king of the Bourbon houſe in ſucceſſion. This family alſo mounted the throne of Spain in 1700, by the acceſſion of Philip V. grandſon to Louis XIV. which was the occaſion of the long and bloody war, that ended in the peace of Utrecht. A branch of the Spaniſh

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Spaniſh family likewiſe aſcended the throne of the Two Sicilies in 1734. Theſe three branches entered into a treaty offenſive and defenſive in 1761, which went by the name of the *family compact*, but which the new order of things in Europe has nearly annihilated.

(7.) BOURBON LANCI, a town of France, in the department of Saone and Loire, and late province of Burgundy. It is remarkable for its caſtle and hot mineral waters; and has a large marble pavement, called the Great Bath, which is a work of the Romans. It is 15 miles SW. of Autun. Lon. 4. 6. E. Lat. 46. 47. N.

(8.) BOURBON L'ARCHAMBAUD, a ſmall town of France, in the department of Allier, and late province of Bourbonnois. It is ſituated in a bottom, near the river Allier, and is remarkable for its hot baths, and for giving name to the family of the late unfortunate king of France. It is 15 miles W. of Moulins, and 362 S. of Paris. Lon. 3. 5. E. Lat. 46. 35. N.

(9.) BOURBON, P. D. of Orleans. See EGALITE.

BOURBONNE-LE-BAINS, a town of France, in the department of Upper Marne and late province of Champagne, famous for its hot baths. It is 17 miles E. of Langres. Lon. 5. 45. E. Lat. 47. 54. N.

BOURBONNOIS, a ci-devant province of France, bounded on the N. by Nivernois and Berry; on the W. by Berry and part of Marche; on the S. by Auvergne, and on the E. by Burgundy and Forez. It is watered by the Loire, the Allier and the Chur; and abounds in corn, fruit, paſture, wood, game, and wine. It now forms the department of Allier.

BOURBONTOWN, a poſt town of Kentucky, and capital of the county of BOURBON, (N. 3.) ſeated on the W. ſide of the river Stony-fork. It is a flouriſhing town, and contains above 60 houſes, a baptiſt church, a court-houſe, and jail; and has ſeveral variable mills adjacent to it. It lies 20 miles NE. of Lexington, 69 E. of Frankfort, and 754 from Philadelphia. Lon. 9. 42. W. Lat. 38. 15. N.

BOURBOURG, a town of France, in the department of the North, ſeated off a canal that goes to Dunkirk. Lon. 2. 15. E. Lat. 50. 55. N.

BOURCHIER, John, lord Bemars, grandſon and heir of a lord of the ſame name, was created a knight of the Bath, at the marriage of the duke of York ſecond ſon of Edward IV. and was firſt known by quelling an inſurrection in Cornwall and Devonſhire, raiſed by Michael Joſeph, a blackſmith, in 1495, which recommended him to the favour of Henry VII. He was captain of the pioneers at the ſiege of Therounne, under Henry VIII. by whom he was made chancellor of the exchequer for life, lieutenant of Calais and Marches, appointed to conduct the lady Mary the king's ſiſter into France on her marriage with Louis XII and had the extraordinary good fortune to continue in favour with that fickle tyrant for 18 years. He died at Calais in 1532, aged 63. He tranſlated Froiſſart's Chronicle; printed in 1513, by Richard Piſon, the 5th on the liſt of Engliſh printers. His other works were a whimſical medley of tranſlations, from French, Spaniſh, and Italian novels; viz. The life of Sir Arthur, an Armorican knight; The famous exploits of Sir Hugh Bourdeaux; Marcus Aurelius; and, The caſtle of love. He wrote alſo a book of the duties of the inhabitants of Calais; and a comedy entitled *Ite in Vineam*, which is mentioned in none of our catalogues of Engliſh plays. Wood ſays it was uſually acted at Calais after Veſpers.

BOURDALOUE, Louis, a celebrated preacher among the Jeſuits, and one of the greateſt orators France has produced, was born at Bourges, on the 20th of Auguſt 1632. After having preached at Provence, he, in 1699, went to Paris; and there met with ſuch applauſe, that the king reſolved to hear him; on which he was ſent for to court, and frequently preached before Louis XIV. He aſſiſted the ſick, viſited the priſoners and hoſpitals, and was liberal in giving alms. He died at Paris on the 13th of May 1704. The beſt edition of his ſermons is in 8vo.

BOURDEAUX, an ancient, large, and rich town of France, in the department of Gironde, and ci-devant province of Guienne. It has an univerſity and an academy of arts and ſciences.—It is built in the form of a bow, of which the Garonne is the ſtring. This river is bordered by a large quay, and the water riſes 4 yards at full tide, for which reaſon the largeſt veſſels can come up to it very readily. The caſtle called the *Trumpet* is ſeated at the entrance of the quay, and the river runs round its walls. Moſt of the great ſtreets lead to the quay. The town has 12 gates; and near another caſtle are fine walks under ſeveral rows of trees. Though conſiderable in point of ſize, it was anciently ill built, badly paved, dangerous, without police, or any of thoſe municipal regulations indiſpenſably requiſite to render a city ſplendid or elegant. It has entirely changed its appearance within the laſt 40 years.—The public edifices are very noble, and all the ſtreets newly built are regular and handſome. The quays are 4 miles in length, and the river is conſiderably broader than the Thames at London bridge. On the oppoſite, a range of hills, covered with woods, vineyards, churches, and villas, extends beyond the view. Almoſt in the centre of the town was a fine equeſtrian ſtatue in bronze erected to Lewis XV. in 1743; which has probably fallen a ſacrifice to the popular rage againſt royalty. The beauty of the Garonne, and the fertility of the adjoining country, were probably the cauſes which induced the Romans to lay the foundation of this city. The ruins of a very large amphitheatre yet remain, conſtructed under the emperor Gallienus; it is of brick, as are moſt of the edifices of that period, when the empire was verging to its fall, and the arts began rapidly to decline. During the irruptions of the barbarous nations, and particularly in thoſe which the Normans repeatedly made, Bourdeaux was ravaged, burnt, and almoſt entirely deſtroyed. It only began to recover again under Henry II. of England, who having united it to the crown by his marriage with Eleanor of Aquitaine, rebuilt it, and made it a principal object of his policy, to reſtore the city again to its ancient luſtre. Edward, the Black Priuce, received all Guienne, Gaſcony, and many inferior provinces, in full ſovereignty from his father Edward III. He brought his royal captive

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tive, John king of France, to this city, after the battle of Poiters in 1356; and held his court and reſidence here during 11 years. His exalted character, his uninterrupted ſeries of good fortune, his victories, his modeſty, his affability, and his munificence, drew ſtrangers to Bourdeaux from every part of Europe. His ſon Richard II. was born in it. In 1453, Charles VII. king of France, re-entered the city, and ſubjected the whole province of Guienne, which had been near 3 centuries under the Engliſh government. Conſcious of the importance of ſuch a conqueſt, he ordered the *Chateau Trompette* to be built to defend the paſſage of the river; and Lewis XIV. afterwards employed the celebrated Vauban to erect a new fortreſs in the modern ſtyle of military architecture, on the ſame ſpot. Bourdeaux contains upwards of 100,000 inhabitants, and is one of the firſt cities in France for magnitude, riches, and beauty. The cathedral, and the churches belonging to the late religious orders, the Dominicans and Chartreaux, are much admired. The ſpire of St Michael was a beautiful Gothic piece till 1768, when more than 100 feet of it was thrown down by a hurricane. Bourdeaux has a conſiderable trade; and every year 100,000 tons of wine and brandy are exported from it. It is 87 miles S. of Rochelle, and 325 SW. of Paris. Lon. 0. 30. W. Lat. 44. 50. N.

(1.) BOURDELOT, John, a learned French critic, who lived at the cloſe of the 16th and beginning of the 17th centuries. He diſtinguiſhed himſelf by writing notes on Lucian, Petronius, and Heliodorus; by an Univerſal Hiſtory; Commentaries on Juvenal; a Treatiſe on the Etymology of French words; and ſome other works never publiſhed.

(2.) BOURDELOT, Peter, fiſter's ſon to John, (No. 1.) changed his name from Michon to oblige his uncle. He had the title of Abbe, and was a celebrated phyſician at Paris, and gained great reputation by a *Treatiſe on the Viper*, and other works. He died in 1685.

BOURDFIELD, a village E. of Lenham, Kent,

BOURDIN, a name given by Bellonius to a genus of univalve ſhell-fiſh, commonly known among authors by the name of AURIS MARINA.

BOURDINES, a town of France, in the ci-devant Auſtrian Netherlands, now included in one of the new French departments. It is 10 m. NE. of Namur. Lon. 5. 0. E. Lat. 50. 35. N.

(1.) BOURDON, Sebaſtian, a famous painter, born at Montpelier in 1619. He ſtudied 7 years at Rome, and acquired ſuch reputation, that at his return to France he was made rector of the academy of painting at Paris. He ſucceeded better in landſcapes than in hiſtory painting. His pieces are ſeldom finiſhed; and thoſe that are ſo, are not always the fineſt. He once laid a wager with a friend, that he ſhould paint 12 heads after the life, and as big as the life, in one day. He won it; and theſe are ſaid not to be the worſt things he ever did. The moſt eſteemed of all his performances is, The martyrdom of St Peter, drawn for the church of Notre Dame: It is kept as one of the choiceſt rarities of that cathedral.—Bourdon, though a Calviniſt, was much reſpected, becauſe his life and manners were good. We have alſo a great number of his etchings, which are executed in a bold maſterly ſtyle, and are juſtly held in the higheſt eſtimation by the generality of collectors. He died in 1673, aged 64.

(2.) BOURDON, *n. ſ.* a bagpipe drone. *Chauc.*

BOURDONE'E, in heraldry, the ſame with POMEE.

BOURE, *n. ſ. obſ.* a houſe or chamber. *Chauc.*

(1.) BOURG, a ſea-port town of France, in the department of the Gironde and ci-devant province of Guienne, with a good harbour on the river Dordogne, near the point of land formed by the confluence of that river with the Garonne, which is called the Bec-d'Ambez, and is thought a dangerous paſſage. It is 15 miles N. of Bourdeaux. Lon. 0. 30. W. Lat. 45. 5. N.

(2.) BOURG, a town of France, in the department of Ain, and ci-devant province of Breſſe. Near this place is the magnificent church and monaſtery of the late Auguſtines, in which is the mauſoleum of Margaret of Auſtria, aunt of Charles V. and other fine pieces of ſculpture. Bourg is ſeated on the river Reſſouſſe, 20 miles SE. of Maçon, and 233 SE. of Paris. Lon. 1. 35. E. Lat. 46. 11. N.

(3.) BOURG, the capital of Cayenne, in South America. Lon. 52. 50. W. Lat. 5. 2. N.

BOURGANEUF, a ſmall well built town of France, in the department of Creuſe and ci-devant province of Marche. It is remarkable for a very large and lofty tower, faced with ſtones cut diamond ways. It was erected, towards the end of the 15th century, by Ziſim, brother of Bajazet II. emperor of the Turks, when he was obliged to exile himſelf, after the loſs of a deciſive battle. It is ſeated on the river Taurion, 20 miles NE. of Limoges, and 200 S. of Paris. Lon. 5. 19. E. Lat. 45. 59. N.

BOURGEOISE, *adv.* in the city faſhion.

* *To* BOURGEON. *v. n.* [*bourgeonner*, Fr.] To ſprout; to ſhoot into branches; to put forth buds.—Long may the dew of heaven diſtil upon them, to make them *bourgeon* and propagate among themſelves. *Howel.*—

O that I had the fruitful heads of Hydra,
That one might *bourgeon* whether another fell!
Still would I give thee work! *Dryden.*

BOURGES, an ancient town of France, in the department of Cher and late province of Berry. It has a univerſity. Although in extent it is one of the largeſt cities in France, the inhabitants hardly amount to 25,000, and their trade is inconſiderable. See BERRY, (No. 1.) This city was the birth place of Lewis XI. the Nero of France, and the celebrated preacher Bourdaloue. It is ſeated on the rivers Auron and Yevre, 25 miles NW. of Nevers, and 125 S. of Paris. Lon. 2. 28. E. Lat. 47. 5. N.

(1.) BOURGET, a lake of France, in the department of Mount Blanc, the ci-devant duchy of Savoy.

(2.) BOURGET, a town of France, 6 miles N. of Chamberry, ſeated on the lake (N° 1.) Lon. 5. 50. E. Lat. 45. 41. N.

(3.) BOURGET, Dominic John, an ingenious French antiquary, was born at the village of Beaumains, near Falaiſe, in the dioceſe of Seez, in 1724. He was educated at Caen, and purſued his ſtudies with

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with great diligence and ſucceſs till 1745, when he became a Benedictine monk of the abbey of St Martin de Seez. Some time after, he was appointed prior, and went through ſeveral ſucceſſive promotions till at laſt he was removed to the abbey of Bec, where he reſided till 1764. He was elected an honorary member of the Society of Antiquaries of London, Jan. 10, 1765; in which year he returned to the abbey of St Stephen at Caen, where he continued to the time of his death.—Theſe honourable offices, to which he was promoted on account of his great abilities, enabled him not only to purſue his favourite ſtudy of the hiſtory and antiquities of ſome of the principal Benedictine abbeys in Normandy, but likewiſe gave him acceſs to all their charters, deeds, regiſters, books, &c. &c. Theſe he examined with great care, and left behind him in MS. large and accurate accounts of the abbeys of St Peter de Jumieges, St Stephen, and the Holy Trinity at Caen (founded by William the Conqueror and his queen Matilda,) and a very particular hiſtory of the abbey of Bec. Theſe were all written in French. The *Hiſtory of the Royal Abbey of Bec*, which he preſented to Dr Ducarel in 1764, is only an abſtract of his larger work. This ancient abbey (which hath produced ſeveral archbiſhops of Canterbury and other illuſtrious prelates of this kingdom) is frequently mentioned by our old hiſtorians. He died 1ſt Jan. 1776, much regretted.

BOURGOGNE, or BURGUNDY, a ci-devant province of France, bounded on the E. by Franche Comte, on the W. by Bourbonnois and Nivernois, on the S. by Lyonnois, and on the N. by Champagne. It is fertile in corn, fruits, and excellent wines. It is 112 miles in length, and 75 in breadth; and is now formed into the 3 departments of Cote d'Or, Saone and Loire, and Yonne. It is watered by the rivers Seine, Dehune, Brebince, Armancon, Ouche, Souzon, Tille and Saone. Dijon was the capital.

BOURG-SUR-MER. See BOURG, N° 1.

BOURGUIGNONS, or BURGUNDIANS, one of the northern nations who over-ran the Roman empire, and ſettled in Gaul. They were of a great ſtature, and very warlike; for which reaſon the emperor Valentinian the Great engaged them in his ſervice againſt the Germans. They lived in tents cloſe to each other, that they might the more readily unite on any unforeſeen attack. Theſe conjunctions of tents they called *burghs*; and they ſerved them for towns. Sidonius Apollinaris tells us, that they wore long hair, took great pleaſure in finging, and were fond of praiſe for their vocal talents. He adds, that they ate great quantities; and anointed their hair with butter, deeming that unction very ornamental. Their crown was at firſt elective, and the authority of their kings depended on their ſucceſs. They were not only accountable for their own miſconduct, but likewiſe for the calamities of nature and fortune. They were depoſed if they loſt a battle; if they ſucceeded ill in any enterpriſe; or if, in ſhort, any great event had not correſponded with the hopes of the people. They were not more favourably treated in caſe of a bad harveſt or vintage, or if any epidemical diſtemper ravaged the ſtate. At firſt they were governed by many kings, and HENDIN was the title of the royal dignity. But in later times they were ſubjected to one ſovereign; and on the introduction of Chriſtianity, they grew humane and civilized. Before that epocha, their religion was much the ſame with that of the other northern nations. They had many prieſts, the chief of whom was entitled SINISTRUS. He was perpetual, and they paid him great reſpect.

BOURGUIGNOTTE, a defenſive weapon wherewith to cover the head; being a kind of caſk, open before, and proof againſt either pike or muſket: its name aroſe from the Bourguignons, who firſt introduced it.

BOURIGNON, Antonietta, a famous enthuſiaſtic preacher and pretended propheteſs, born at Liſle, in 1616. At her birth ſhe was ſo deformed, that it was debated ſome days in the family whether it was not proper to ſtifle her as a monſter; but her deformity diminiſhed, and ſhe was ſpared; and afterwards obtained ſuch a degree of beauty, that ſhe had her admirers. From her childhood to her old age, ſhe had an extraordinary turn of mind. She ſet up for a reformer, and publiſhed a great number of books filled with very ſingular notions; the principal of which are entiled, *The light of the World; The Teſtimony of Truth;* and, *The Renovation of the Goſpel Spirit*. She was an enemy to reaſon, which ſhe maintained ought to give place to the illumination of divine faith; and aſſerted, that whenever any one was born again by embracing her doctrine, ſhe felt the pains and throes of a woman in labour. Of her pretended viſions and revelations, we have already given a ſpecimen. See ADAM, § 3. With regard to the jarring doctrines of *predeſtination* and *free will*, which philoſophers, divines, and metaphyſicians, in all ages, have puzzled themſelves in vain to reconcile, ſhe cut the Gordian knot at once; by aſſerting, that although God *can* foreſee every future event, yet his *power* being equal to his *wiſdom*, he *withholds from himſelf* the foreknowledge of the actions of thoſe to whom he has given free-will, and thus leaves them entirely free to act as they pleaſe; without which, ſhe affirms, he could not be juſt in puniſhing their ſins. Beſides all her extravagances, ſhe had other forbidding qualities: her temper was moroſe and peeviſh, and ſhe was extremely avaricious and greedy of amaſſing riches. She dreſſed like a hermit, and travelled to France, Holland, England, and Scotland. In the laſt ſhe made a ſtrong party, and ſome thouſand converts. She died at Franeker in Friſe, Oct. 30, 1680. Her works have been printed in 18 vols 8vo. An apology for her life and her opinions were written by Profeſſor Garden, of Aberdeen.

BOURIGNONISTS, a name given the followers of Antonietta Bourignon, who ſet up a kind of QUIETISM, pretending to be guided by an immediate revelation.

(1.) * BOURN. *n. ſ.* [*borne*, Fr.] 1. A bound; a limit.—

Bourn, bound of land, tilth, vineyard, none.
Shakeſpeare.

That undiſcover'd country, from whoſe *bourn*
No traveller returns. *Shakeſpeare.*

Falſe,

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Falſe,
As dice are to be wiſh'd, by one that fixes
No *bourn* 'twixt his and mine. *Shakeſpeare.*

I know each lane, and every alley green,
And every boſky *bourn* from ſide to ſide. *Milt.*

[From *burn*, Saxon.] A brook; a torrent; whence many towns, ſeated near brooks, have names ending in *bourn*. It is now uſed in either ſenſe; though the ſecond continues in the Scottiſh dialect.—

Ne ſwelling Neptune, ne loud thund'ring Jove,
Can change my cheer, or make me ever mourn:
My little boat can ſafely paſs this perilous *bourn*.
Spenſer.

(2.) BOURN, a large town in Lincolnſhire, ſeated on a rivulet that runs through it. It is very ancient, and had a caſtle, of which no traces now remain, but the ditch that ſurrounded it. K. Edmund was crowned in it. It has a good corn market, and 3 fairs, March 7, May 6, and Oct. 29. It is 17 miles N. of Peterborough, 35 S. of Lincoln, and 97 N. of London. Lon. 0. 20. W. Lat. 52. 42. N.

(3.) BOURN, a river in Worceſterſhire.

(4.) BOURN, a village in Yorkſhire.

BOURNE, *n. ſ.* See BOURN, N° 1.

BOURN-HALL, a village in Cambridgeſhire, 8 miles NW. of Shengay.

BOURNS, a river in Warwickſhire.

BOURO, an iſland in the Eaſt Indian ocean, between the Moluccas and Celebes. It is well cultivated; and is ſubject to the Dutch, who have built a fortreſs in it. Some of its mountains are exceedingly high, and the ſea on each ſide is uncommonly deep. It produces nutmegs, cloves, ebony, cocoa, and banana trees; beſides many vegetables introduced by the Dutch. It is ſubject to earthquakes, and infeſted with crocodiles; and is about 50 miles in circumference. Lon. 124. 5. E. Lat. 3. 30. S.

BOURREE. See BOREE.

BOURTHER-HALL, a village in Eſſex.

BOURTIE, a pariſh of Scotland, in Aberdeenſhire, about 4 miles long and 2 broad, containing about 4000 acres, of which 600 are incloſed. The ſoil is ſtony but pretty fertile; and produces barley, oats, potatoes, turnips, and ſown graſs. The population in 1792, as ſtated in the rev. Mr Shepherd's report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 460, which was a decreaſe of 75, within 40 years; but within the laſt 20 years, it had decreaſed 110, owing to the monopoly of farms; one farmer poſſeſſing now what formerly ſerved 4. There are about 130 horſes, 500 ſheep, and 600 black cattle in the pariſh.

BOURTON, 3 Engliſh villages, viz. 1. in Dorſetſhire, near Gillingham: 2. *on the hill*, in Glouceſterſhire, 5 miles from Stow and Campden: and, 3. *on the water*, in ditto, about a mile from the other. It has ſeveral good houſes and ſome trade.

* *To* BOUSE. *v. n.* [*buyſen*, Dutch.] To drink laviſhly; to tope.—

As he rode, he ſomewhat ſtill did eat,
And in hand did bear a *bouſing* can,
Of which he ſipt. *Fairy Queen.*

BOUSSAC, a town of France, in the department of Creuſe, ſeated on a rock, 25 miles N. of Gueret.

BOUSTROPHEDON, in literature, an ancient method of writing among the Greeks, wherein the lines were continued forwards and backwards, like the furrows in ploughing. See BOOKS, § 9. Pauſanias mentions ſeveral ancient inſcriptions written in this manner: the laws of Solon are alſo ſaid to have been thus written; which, as Pauſanias explains it, is when the 2d line is turned on the contrary ſide, beginning at the end of the former, thus:

ΕΚ ΔΙΟΣ ΑΡ-
ΧΟΜΕΘΑ

* BOUSY. *adj.* [from *bouſe*.] Drunken.—

With a long legend of romantic things,
Which in his cups the *bouſy* poet ſings. *Dryden.*

The gueſts upon the day appointed came,
Each *bouſy* farmer with his ſimp'ring dame.
King.

* BOUT. *n. ſ.* [*botta*, Ital.] A turn; as much of an action as is performed at one time, without interruption; a ſingle part of any action carried on by ſucceſſive intervals.—

The play began: Pas durſt not Coſma chace;
But did intend next *bout* with her to meet.
Sidney.

Ladies that have your feet
Unplagu'd with corns, we'll have a *bout*.
Shakeſpeare.

When in your motion you are hot,
As make your *bouts* more violent to that end,
He calls for drink. *Shakeſpeare.*

If he chance to 'ſcape this diſmal *bout*,
The former legatees are blotted out. *Dryden.*

—A weaſel ſeized a bat; the bat begged for life: ſays the weaſel, I give no quarters to birds: ſays the bat, I am a mouſe; look on my body: ſo ſhe got off for that *bout*. *L'Eſtrange.*—

We'll ſee when its enough,
Or if it want the nice concluding *bout*. *King.*

BOUTADE, in muſic, an irregular flight or movement, without art or ſtudy.

BOUTAEL, in ichthyology, the name of an Eaſt Indian fiſh, of the lamprey kind, called alſo *neegen oogen*, and by Mr Ray, *lampetra Indica*. It is caught in lakes, ponds, and other ſtanding waters, and is a very wholeſome and well taſted fiſh. From its general deſcription, it ſeems to be rather of the *muſtela* than the *lamprey* kind; but if, as its name expreſſes, it has ſeveral apertures for the gills, (its Dutch name ſignifying 9 eyes,) it is abſolutely a new genus.

(1.) BOUTANT, or ARCH-BOUTANT, in architecture, an arch, or part of an arch, abutting againſt the reins of a vault to prevent its giving way.

(2.) BOUTANT, PILLAR, a large chain or pile of ſtone, made to ſupport a wall, terrace, or vault.

BOUTE, in the manege, an epithet for a horſe, when his legs are in a ſtraight line from the knee to the coronet: ſhort jointed horſes are apt to boute, but not long jointed ones.

* BOUTEFEU. *n. ſ.* [French.] An incendiary: one who kindles feuds and diſcontents. Now diſuſed.—Animated by a baſe fellow, called John à Chamber, a very *bouteſeu*, who bore much ſway among

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among the vulgar, they entered into open rebellion. *Bacon.*—Nor could ever any order be obtained impartially to punish the known *boutefeus*, and open incendiaries. *King Charles.*—

Besides the herd of *boutefeus*,
We set on work within the house. *Hudibras.*

BOUTH, a village in Lancashire, 4 miles N. of Cartmel.

BOUTHAM, a village near York.

BOUTHES, in Cheshire, S. of Knutsford.

* BOUTISALE. *n. f.* [I suppose from *bouty* or *booty*, and *sale*.] A sale at a cheap rate, as booty or plunder is commonly sold.—To speak nothing of the great *boutesale* of colleges and chantries. *Sir J. Hayward.*

BOUTON, an island in the East Indian ocean, about 12 miles from the SE. part of Celebes. The inhabitants are small, but well shaped, and of a dark olive complexion. They speak the Malayan language, and are Mahometans. The principal town is Callasujung. The houses are not built upon the ground, but on posts. Lon. 123. 30. E. Lat. 5. 0. S.

BOUTONNE, a river of France, in the department of Lower Charente, which rises in the ci-devant province of Poitou, becomes navigable at St Jean D'Angely and falls into the Charente.

(1.) * BOUTS RIMES. [Fr.] The last words or rhimes of a number of verses given to be filled up.

(2.) BOUTS RIMES are given to the poet, with a subject, to be filled up with verses ending in the same words, and the same order. The invention of the bouts rimes is ascribed to one Du Lot, a French poet, in 1649. In fixing the bouts it is usual to choose such as seem the remotest, and have the least connection. Some authors fancy that these rhymes assist the invention, and furnish the newest thoughts. Sarratin has a poem on the defeat of the bouts rimes. The academy of Lanternists at Thoulouse contributed towards keeping in countenance the bouts rimes, by proposing each year a set of 14 to be filled up on the glories of the grand monarque: the victorious sonnet to be rewarded with a fine medal.—An instance is given in the following, filled up by P. Commire.

Tout est grand dans le roi; aspect seul de son buste
Rend nos fiers ennemis plus froids que des glaçons.
Et Guillaume n' attend que le tems des moissons,
Pour se voir joccomber sous un bras si robuste.
Qu'on ne nous vante plus les miracles d' Auguste;
Louis de bien regner lui feroit des leçons:
Horace en vain l'egale aux dieux dans ses chansons:
Moins que mon heros il etoit sage et juste, &c.

BOUVENEY, a village in Berkshire, near Windsor.

BOUVERIDGE, in Dorsetshire, near Cranborn.

BOUVIERA, in ichthyology, a name given by some to the BUCULCA.

BOUVILLON, a city of France in the ci-devant province of Luxemburg, now included in one of the new departments lately annexed to the republic. Lon. 5. 0. E. Lat. 49. 55. N.

BOVY-TRACEY, a village in Devonshire, near Chudleigh, 5 miles from Ashburnham. It has fairs on Holy Thursday, and July 7.

BOUZONVILLE, a town of France in the department of the Moselle. Lon. 6. 40. E. Lat. 49. 20. N.

(1.) * BOW. *n. f.* [from the verb. It is pronounced, like the verb, as *now*, *how*.] An act of reverence or submission, by bending the body.—

Some clergy too she wou'd allow,
Nor quarrel'd at their awkward *bow*. *Swift.*

(2.) * Bow. *n. f.* [pronounced as *grow*, *no*, *lo*, without any regard to the *w*.] 1. An instrument of war, made by holding wood or metal bent with a string, which, by its spring, shoots arrows with great force.—Take, I pray thee, thy weapons, thy quiver and thy *bow*, and go out to the field, and take me some venison. *Genesis.*—

The white faith of hist'ry cannot show,
That e'er the musket yet could beat the *bow*.
Alleyne's Henry VII.

2. A rainbow.—I do set my *bow* in the cloud, and it shall be for a token of a covenant between me and the earth. *Gen.* ix. 13. 3. The instrument with which string-instruments are struck.—

Their instruments were various in their kind;
Some for the *bow*, and some for breathing wind:
The sawtry, pipe, and hautboy's noisy band,
And the soft lute trembling beneath the touching hand. *Dryden's Fables.*

4. The doubling of a string in a slip-knot. This is perhaps corruptly used for *bought*.—Make a knot, and let the second knot be with a *bow*. *Wisem.* 5. A yoke.—As the ox hath his *bow*, sir, the horse his curb, and the falcon his bells, so man hath his desire. *Shakesp.* 6. Bow *of a saddle*. The *bows of a saddle* are two pieces of wood laid archwise, to receive the upper part of a horse's back, to give the saddle its due form, and to keep it tight. *Farrier's Dict.* 7. Bow *of a ship*. That part of her which begins at the loof, and compassing ends of the stern, and ends at the sternmost parts of the forecastle. If a ship hath a broad bow, they call it a *bold bow*; if a narrow thin bow, they say she hath a *lean bow*. The piece of ordnance that lies in this place, is called the *bow piece*; and the anchors that hang here, are called her *great* and *little bowers*. 8. *Bow* is also a mathematical instrument, made of wood, formerly used by seamen in taking the sun's altitude. 9. *Bow* is likewise a beam of wood or brass, with three long screws, that direct a lath of wood or steel to any arch; used commonly to draw draughts of ships, projections of the sphere, or whatever it is requisite to draw long arches. *Harris.*

(3.) Bow, (as above defined, § 2. *def.* 1.) is also called the LONG BOW, by way of distinction from the CROSS-BOW: (§ 10.) The bow is the most ancient, and the most universal of all weapons. It has been found to obtain among the most barbarous people, who had the least communication with the rest of mankind. Barbarous nations often excel in the fabric of the particular things which they have the greatest necessity for in the common offices of life. The Laplanders, who support themselves almost entirely by hunting, have an art of making bows, which we, in these improved parts of the world, have never arrived at. Their bow is made of two pieces of tough and strong wood, shaved down to the same size, and flatted on each side; the two flat sides of the

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pieces are brought closely and evenly together, and then joined by means of a glue made of the skins of pearch, which they have in great plenty, and of which they make a glue superior in strength to any which we have. The two pieces, when once united in this manner, will never separate, and the bow is of much more force to expel the arrow, than it could possibly have been under the same dimensions if made of only one piece. Among the ancients, the bow-string, called τειχωσις, was made of horses hair, and hence also called νευρον; though we find Homer's bow-strings frequently made of hides cut into small thongs; whence σκυτα βοων. The uppermost part of the bow, to which the string was fastened, was called κερων, being commonly made of gold, and the last thing towards finishing the bow. The Grecian bows were frequently beautified with gold or silver; whence we have mention of *aurei arcus*; and Apollo is called Αργυροτοξος. But the matter of which they were ordinarily composed, seems to have been wood; though they were anciently, Scythian-like, made of horn, as appears from that of Pandarus in *Homer's Iliad*. δ. v. 105. The invention of the bow is usually ascribed to Apollo, by whom it was communicated to the primitive inhabitants of Crete, who are said to have been the first people who understood the use of bows and arrows. And hence, even in later ages, the Cretan bows were famous, and preferred by the Greeks to all others. Some, however, rather choose to honour Perses, the son of Perseus, with the invention of the bow; while others ascribe it to Scythes, son of Jupiter, and progenitor of the Scythians, who were excellent at this art, and by many reputed the first masters of it. From them it was derived to the Grecians, some of whose ancient nobility were instructed by the Scythians in the use of the bow, which in those days passed for a most princely education. It was first introduced into the Roman army in the second Punic war. The Scythian bow was famous for its incurvation, which distinguished it from the bows of Greece and other nations; being so great as to form a half moon or semicircle: whence the shepherd in Athenæus, in describing the letters in Theseus's name, and expressing each of them by some apposite resemblance, compares the 3d to the Scythian bow; meaning not the more modern character Σ, but the ancient C, which is semicircular, and has the 3d and 6th place in ΘΗCΕΥC. The Indians still retain the bow. In the repository of the Royal Society there is a West Indian bow two yards long. The use of the bows and arrows was first abolished in France under Louis XI. in 1481, and in their place was introduced the Swiss arms; viz. the halberd, pike, and broad sword. The long bow was formerly in great vogue in England; most of our victories in France were acquired by it; and many laws were made to regulate and encourage its use. See ARCHERY, § 3—5. The parliament under Henry VIII. complain "of the disuse of the long bow, heretofore the safe-guard and defence of this kingdom, and the dread and terror of its enemies." (33 Hen. VIII. cap. 6.) The art of using bows is called ARCHERY, and those practised therein, ARCHERS, or BOWMEN. The strength of a bow may be calculated on this principle, that its spring *i. e.* the power whereby it restores itself to its natural position, is always proportionate to the distance of space it is removed therefrom.

(4.) Bow, for taking the sun's altitude, (§ 2. *def.* 8.) consisted of a large arch of 90° graduated, a skank or staff, a side vane, a sight vane, and an horizon vane. It is now out of use.

(5.) Bow, in geography, is the name of,

1. Bow, a river in Shropshire, which runs into the Warren.

2. Bow, or Bowe, a town of Devonshire, near Crediton, 188 miles W. from London. It has a weekly market, and two fairs; in Whitsun week, and Nov. 22. The court of the duchy of Lancaster is commonly held in it. It is 14 miles NW. of Exeter. And,

3. Bow, or STRATFORD LE BOW, a village in Middlesex, near Stratford in Essex, 2 miles NE. by E. of London. It is memorable for having the first stone bridge ever erected in England; from the *bows* or arches of which over the Lea, it had its name. It is noted for dyeing scarlet, and has several mills, manufactories and distilleries on the Lea. It has a fair on Whit Thursday.

(6.) Bow, in music, a small machine, which, being drawn over the strings of a musical instrument, makes it resound. It is composed of a small stick, to which are fastened 80 or 100 horse-hairs, and a screw which serves to give these hairs a proper tension. In order that the bow may touch the strings briskly, it is usual to rub the hairs with rosin. The ancients do not appear to have been acquainted with bows of hair; in lieu hereof they touch their instruments with a PLECTRUM; over which our bows have great advantage, for giving long and short sounds, and other modifications which a plectrum cannot produce.

(7.) Bow, in navigation, an arch of the horizon comprehended between some distant object and that point of the compass which is right a-head, or to which the ship's stern is directed. The phrase *on the bow* is equally applicable when the object is beheld from the ship, or discovered by trigonomical calculation; As, we saw a fleet at day-break bearing 3 points *on the starboard-bow*; that is, 3 points from that part of the horizon which is right a-head, towards the right-hand. See BEARING, § 4.

(8.) Bow, in ship-building, [*Epaule*,] the rounding part of a ship's side forward, beginning at the place where the planks arch inwards; and terminating where they close, at the stem or prow. (See § 2. *def.* 7.) It is proved by a variety of experiments, that a ship with a narrow bow is much better calculated for sailing swiftly, than one with a broad bow; but is not so well fitted for a high sea, into which she always *pitches* or plunges her fore-part very deep, for want of sufficient breadth to repel the volume of water which she so easily divides in her fall. The former of these is called by seamen a *lean*, and the other a *bluff*, bow. "The bow which meets with the least resistance in a direct course, not only meets with least resistance in oblique courses, but also has the additional property of driving the lean to leeward; which is a double advantage gained by forming the bow so as to give it that figure which will be least resisted in

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in moving through any medium." *Bouguer Traite de Navire.*

(9.) Bow, or DRILL-BOW, among artificers, an inſtrument ſo called from its figure; uſed by goldſmiths, gunſmiths, locksmiths, watchmakers, &c. for making a drill go. Among turners it is the name of a pole fixed to the ceiling, to which they faſten the cord that whirls round the piece to be turned.

(10.) Bow, CROSS, or ARBALEST, conſiſts of a ſteel bow, ſet in a ſhaft of wood, furniſhed with a ſtring and a trigger; and is bent with a piece of iron fitted for that purpoſe. It ſerves to throw bullets, large arrows, darts, &c. The ancients had large machines for throwing many arrows at once, called *baliſtæ*. See BALLISTA, N° 1. and *Plate* XXXV, *fig.* 7.

(11.) Bow, LONG. See § 3.

(12.) BOW OF A SADDLE. (See § 2. *def.* 6.) The fore bow which ſuſtains the pommel, is compoſed of the withers, the breaſts, the points or toes, and the corking. The hind bow bears the troſequin or quilted roll. The bows are covered with ſinews to make them ſtrong, and ſtrengthened with bands of iron to keep them tight: and on the lower ſide are nailed the ſaddle ſtraps, with which they make faſt the girths.

(13.) Bow OF THE GILLS, a term uſed by ſome ichthyologiſts, to expreſs the convex part of each gill of a fiſh, each being a long ſemicircle, terminated by many *laminæ*, which form what is called the *leaf*.

(1.) * *To* Bow, *v. a.* [*bugen*, Sax.] 1. To bend, or inflect. It ſounds as *now*, or *bow*.—

A threepence *bow'd* would hire me,
Old as I am, to queen it. *Shakeſpeare.*
Orpheus, with his lute, made trees,
And the mountain tops, that freeze,
Bow themſelves when he did ſing. *Shak.*
Some *bow* the vines, which bury'd in the plain,
Their tops in diſtant arches riſe again. *Dryden.*

—The mind has not been made obedient to diſcipline, when at firſt it was moſt tender and moſt eaſy to be *bowed*. *Locke.* 2. To bend the body in token of reſpect or ſubmiſſion.—They came to meet him, and *bowed* themſelves to the ground before him. 2 *Kings*—Is it to *bow* down his head as a bulruſh, and to ſpread ſackcloth and aſhes under him? wilt thou call this a faſt, and an acceptable day to the Lord? *Iſaiah.* 3. To bend, or incline, in condeſcenſion.—Let it not grieve thee to *bow* down thine ear to the poor, and give him a friendly anſwer. *Eccluſ.* 4. To depreſs; to cruſh.—

Are you ſo goſpell'd,
To pray for this good man, and for his iſſue,
Whoſe heavy hand hath *bow'd* you to the grave,
And beggar'd yours for ever? *Shakeſpeare.*
Now waſting years my former ſtrength confound,
And added woes may *bow* me to the ground.
Pope.

(2.) * *To* Bow. *v. n.* 1. To bend; to ſuffer flexure. 2. To make a reverence.—

Rather let my head
Stoop to the block, than theſe knees *bow* to any
Save to the God of heav'n, and to my king. *Shak.*

—This is the great idol to which the world *bows*; to this we pay our devouteſt homage. *Decay of Piety.*—

Admir'd, ador'd by all the circling crowd,
For whereſoe'er ſhe turn'd her face, they *bow'd*.
Dryden.

3. To ſtoop.—The people *bowed* down upon their knees, to drink. *Judges.* 4. To ſink under preſſure.—They ſtoop, they *bow* down together; they could not deliver the burden. *Iſaiah*, xlvi. 2.

BOWAN's HILLOCK, an ancient fort in Aberdeenſhire, 3 miles W. of Peterhead. The moat, parapet, baſtions, &c. are very conſpicuous.

BOWBARD. See BOOBY, N° 1.

(1.) * BOW-BEARER. *n. ſ.* [from *bow* and *bear*.] An under-officer of the foreſt. *Cowel.*

(2.) BOW-BEARER. The bow-bearer is ſworn to make inquiſition of all treſpaſſes againſt vert or veniſon, and to attach offenders.

BOWBEN, a river in Northumberland, which runs into the Till.

* BOW-BENT. *adj.* [from *bow* and *bent*.] Crooked.—

A ſibyl old, *bow-bent* with crooked age,
That far events full wiſely could preſage. *Milt.*

BOWCOMB, a village in Dorſetſhire, near Buckland Abbas.

BOW-COMPASS, an inſtrument for drawing arches of very large circles, for which the common compaſſes are too ſmall. It conſiſts of a beam of wood or braſs, with 3 long ſcrews, that govern or bend a lath of wood or ſteel, to any arch.

(1.) BOWDEN, anciently called BOTHENDEN, a pariſh of Scotland, in Roxburghſhire, containing about 6700 acres, 6 miles long and 4½ broad. About ¾ are arable and ¼ moſs or wood. The ſurface is hilly and the ſoil moſtly a white clay, beſt ſuited for paſture. It produces annually, however, as much barley, oats, wheat, peaſe, &c. as, after maintaining the inhabitants, admits an export to the value of above 1200 l. beſides feeding 160 horſes, 540 black cattle, 2300 ſheep, and 80 ſwine. The population, in Jan. 1794, as ſtated by Mr Blaikie, was 860; and had increaſed 188, ſince 1755.

(2—9.) BOWDEN, the name of eight Engliſh villages: 1. in Cheſhire, near Altringham: 2. in Devonſhire, near Ilfracomb: 3. in ditto, near Ivybridge: 4. EAST, in Durham, near Sunderland: 5. NORTH, and 6. WEST, in ditto, on the road to Shields, NW. of Sunderland: 7. MAGNA, in Leiceſterſhire, on the N. ſide of the Welland; and, 8. PARVA, in Northamptonſhire, on the S. ſide of that river.

BOWDEN-EDGE, BOWDEN-HALL, } two villages in the High Peak of Derby.

BOWDITCH, in Dorſetſhire, near Chardſtock.

BOWDOIN, and BOWDOINHAM, } two towns in the United States, in Lincoln County, in the diſtrict of Maine.

BOWDON, a town in Wilts, near Lacock.

BOWDON-HEATH, in Berkſhire, between Pangborn and Reading.

BOW DYE, a kind of ſcarlet red, ſuperior to madder; but inferior to the true ſcarlet grain for fixedneſs and duration. It was brought into England, and firſt practiſed at the village of Bow, near London, by Kephler, a Dutchman, in 1643.

BOWE. See Bow, § 5. N° 2.

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* *To* BOWEL. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To pierce the bowels. *Thomson.*—[This article is omitted in Dr Johnson's last folio edition.]

(1.) * BOWELS. *n. f.* [*boyaux*, Fr.] 1. Inteſtines; the veſſels and organs within the body.—He ſmote him therewith under the fifth rib, and ſhed out his *bowels*. 2 *Sam.* xx. 10. 2. The inner parts of any thing.—

Had we no quarrel elſe to Rome, but that
Thou art thence baniſh'd, we would muſter all
From twelve to ſeventy; and pouring war
Into the *bowels* of ungrateful Rome,
Like a bold flood appear. *Shakeſpeare.*

His ſoldiers ſpying his undaunted ſpirit,
A Talbot! Talbot! cried out amain,
And ruſh'd into the *bowels* of the battle. *Shak.*

—As he ſaw drops of water diſtilling from the rock, by following the veins, he has made himſelf two or three fountains in the *bowels* of the mountain. *Addiſon.* 3 The ſeat of pity, or kindneſs.—His *bowels* did yearn upon him. *Geneſis.* 4. Tenderneſs; compaſſion.—He had no other conſideration of money, than for the ſupport of his luſtre; and whilſt he could do that, he cared not for money; having no *bowels* in the point of running in debt, or borrowing all he could. *Clarendon.* 5. This word ſeldom has a *ſingular*, except in writers of anatomy.

(2.) BOWELS. See ANATOMY, § 286—296.

(1.) BOWER, [*i. e.* a valley, Dan.] a pariſh of Scotland, in the county of Caithneſs, 7 miles long from E. to W. and 3 broad, from N. to S. The cultivated ground is a long extended vale. The ſoil is various. The principal produce is oats and barley. About 2000 bolls of oats are annually ſold by the proprietors alone; but the produce might be much increaſed if the commons were cultivated. A gradual abolition of ſervitudes is taking place. The population, in 1791, as ſtated by the rev. Mr Smith in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 1592, and had increaſed 305 within 36 years.

(2.) * BOWER. *n. f.* [from *bow* or *branch*, or from the verb *To bow* or *bend*.] 1. An arbour; a ſheltered place covered with green trees, twined and bent.—

But, O ſad virgin, that thy power
Might raiſe Muſæus from his *bower*. *Milton.*

To gods appealing, when I reach their *bow'rs*
With loud complaints, they anſwer me in ſhow'rs
Waller.

Refreſh'd, they wait them to the *bow'r* of ſtate,
Where, circl'd with his peers, Atrides ſat. *Pope.*

2. It ſeems to ſignify, in *Spenſer*, a blow; a ſtroke; *bourrer*, Fr. to fall upon.—

His rawbone arms, whoſe mighty brawned *bowers*
Were wont to rive ſteel plates, and helmets hew,
Were clean conſum'd, and all his vital powers
Decay'd. *Spenſer.*

(3.) * BOWER. *n. f.* [from the *bow* of a ſhip.] Anchors ſo called. See BOW.

(4.) BOWER, in gardening, a place under covert of trees, differing only from an arbour, as being round or ſquare, and made with a kind of dome or ceiling at top; whereas the arbour is always built long and arched.

(5.) BOWERS, in the ſea-language, are generally two, called *firſt* and *ſecond*, *great* and *little*, or *beſt* and *ſmall* bowers. See ANCHOR, § 1—7.

* *To* BOWER. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To embower; to incloſe.—

Thou didſt *bower* the ſpirit
In mortal paradiſe of ſuch ſweet fleſh. *Shakeſ.*

BOWER-LAND, a town near Moldaſh, Kent.

BOWERS, in Staffordſhire, N. of Standon.

* BOWERY. *adj.* [from *bower*.] Full of bowers.—

Landſkips how pay the *bow'ry* grotto yields,
Which thought creates, and laviſh fancy builds.
Tickell.

Snatch'd through the verdant maze, the hurried eye
Diſtracted wanders: now the *bow'ry* walk
Of covert cloſe, where ſcarce a ſpeck of day
Falls on the lengthen'd gloom, protracted ſweeps. *Thomſon.*

BOWES, two Engliſh villages: 1. in Suſſex, E. of New Shoreham: and 2. in Yorkſhire, 2 m. from Barnard's caſtle.

BOWESDEN, a village in Northumberland, between Holyland and the Tweed.

BOWESS, or } in falconry; a young hawk,
BOWET, } when ſhe draws any thing out of her neſt, and covets to clamber on the boughs.

* *To* BOWGE. See *To* BOUGE.

BOW-GRACE, in the ſea language, a frame or compoſition of old ropes or junks of cables, uſed to be laid out at the bows, ſtems, and ſides of ſhips, to preſerve them from great flakes of ice, chiefly when they fall in high N. or S. latitudes.

* BOW-HAND. *n. f.* [from *bow* and *hand*.] The hand that draws the bow.—Surely he ſhoots wide on the *bow-hand*, and very far from the mark. *Spenſer.*

(1.) * BOWL. *n. f.* [*buelin*, Welch; which ſignifies, according to *Junius*, any thing made of horn, as drinking cups anciently were. It is pronounced *bole*.] 1. A veſſel to hold liquids, rather wide than deep; diſtinguiſhed from a cup, which is rather deep than wide.—

Give me a *bowl* of wine;
I have not that alacrity of ſpirit,
Nor cheer of mind, that I was wont to have.
Shakeſpeare.

—If a piece of iron be faſtened on the ſide of a *bowl* of water, a loadſtone, in a boat of cork, will make unto it. *Brown.*—

The ſacred prieſts, with ready knives, bereave
The beaſts of life, and in full *bowls* receive
The ſtreaming blood. *Dryden.*

While the bright Scin, t'exalt the ſoul,
With ſparkling plenty crowns the *bowl*,
And wit and ſocial mirth inſpires.
Fenton to Lord Gower.

2. The hollow part of any thing.—If you are allowed a large ſilver ſpoon for the kitchen, let half the *bowl* of it be worn out with continual ſcraping. *Swift.* 3. A baſin, or fountain.—But the main matter is ſo to convey the water, as it never ſtay either in the *bowl* or in the ciſtern. *Bacon.*

(2.) * BOWL. *n. f.* [*boule*, Fr. It is pronounced as *cow*, *bowl*.] A round maſs, which may be rolled along the ground.—

Like

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Like to a *bowl* upon a ſubtile ground,
I've tumbl'd paſt the throw. *Shakeſpeare.*

How finely doſt thou times and ſeaſons ſpin!
And make a twiſt checker'd with night and day!
Which as it lengthens, winds, and winds us in,
As *bowls* go on, but turning all the way. *Herbert.*

—Like him, who would lodge a *bowl* upon a precipice, either my praiſe falls back, or ſtays not on the top, but rowls over. *Drydrn.*—Men may make a game at *bowls* in the ſummer, and a game at whiſk in the winter. *Dennis's Letters.*—Though that piece of wood, which is now a *bowl*, may be made ſquare, yet, if roundneſs be taken away, it is no longer a *bowl*. *Watt's Logick.*

* *To* BOWL. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To roll as a bowl. 2. To pelt with any thing rolled.—

Alas! I had rather be ſet quick i' th' earth,
And *bowl'd* to death with turnips.
Merry Wives of Windſor.

BOWLAND FOREST, in Yorkſh. near Lancaſh.

BOWLDER-STONES. *n. ſ.* Lumps or fragments of ſtones or marble, broke from the adjacent cliffs, rounded by being tumbled to and again by the water; whence their name. *Woodward.*

(1.) * BOW-LEGGED. *adj.* [from *bow* and *leg.*] Having crooked legs.

(2.) BOW-LEGGED, or BANDY-LEGGED. Some children are bow-legged from their birth; others become ſo from ſetting them on their feet too early. The tibia of ſome is crooked; the knees of others are diſtorted; from a fault in the ankle, the feet of ſome are turned inwards. Theſe are called *vari*; and in others, who are called *valgi*, they are turned outwards. The beſt method of preventing theſe diſorders in weakly children is to exerciſe them duly, but not violently, by toſſing them about in one's arms; and not ſetting them much upon their feet, at leaſt not without properly ſupporting them; if the diſorder attends at the birth, or increaſes after it is begun, apply emollients, then boots of ſtrong leather, wood, &c. ſo as gradually to diſpoſe the crooked legs to a proper form. Other inſtruments may be uſed inſtead of boots, which, when not too coſtly, are uſually to be preferred. Slighter inſtances of theſe diſorders yield to careful nurſing, without inſtruments. The cold bath has been recommended, and may often be of ſervice; but if the child be very weak, it will do more hurt than good. A ſtrengthening diet will always be of ſervice.

* BOWLER. *n. ſ.* [from *bowl.*] He that plays at bowls.

BOWLEY, a village near Pagham, Suſſex.

(1.) * BOWLINE. BOWLING. *n. ſ.* [ſea term.] A rope faſtened to the middle part of the outſide of a ſail; it is faſtened in three or four parts of the ſail, called the *bowling bridle*. The uſe of the *bowling* is to make the ſails ſtand ſharp or cloſe to a wind. *Harris.*

(2.) BOW-LINES are only uſed when the wind is ſo unfavourable that the ſails muſt be all braced ſide-ways, or cloſe hauled to the wind. In this ſituation the bow-lines are employed to keep the weather or windward edges of the principal ſails tight, forward, and ſteady, without which they would always be ſhivering, and rendered incapable of ſervice. To *check* the bow-line is to ſlacken it, when the force of the wind requires it.

(1.) BOWLING, the art of playing at bowls.—This game is practiſed either in open places, as bares and bowling-greens, or in cloſe bowling-alleys. The ſkill of bowling depends much on a knowledge of the ground, and the right choice of a bowl ſuitable to it: for cloſe alleys, the flat bowl; for green ſwards plain and level, the bowl as round as a ball is preferred. The terms uſed in bowling are, to *bowl wide*, which is when the bias does not hold, or is not ſtrong enough: *narrow*, when it is too ſtrong, or holds too much; *finely bowled*, is when the ground is well choſen, and the bowl paſſes near the block, even though it goes much beyond it: *bowling through* or a *yard over*, is done in order to move the block; an *over bowl*, that which goes beyond it; a *bowl laid at hand*, is that put done within the gameſter's reach, to be in the way of the next bowler, and hinder his having the advantage of the beſt ground, *bowling at length*, neither bowling through nor ſhort: *a dead length*, a juſt or exact one; *throwing or flinging*, is diſcharging a bowl with a ſtrength purpoſely too great for a length, in order to carry off either the block or ſome near bowl; *bowl-room*, or *miſſing wood*, is when a bowl has free paſſage, without ſtriking on any other; *get off*, is when a bowl being narrow, is wanted to be wider; *bowl beſt at block*, that neareſt the block: *drawing a caſt or bowl*, is to win it by bowling nearer, without ſtirring either the bowl or block: a bowl is ſaid to *rub*, when it meets with ſome obſtacle in the ground, which retards its motion, and weakens its force; *it is gone*, when far beyond the block. *Block* ſignifies a little bowl laid for a mark, alſo called a *jack*. *Mark*, is a proper bowling diſtance, not under a certain number of yards; and at leaſt a yard and a half from the edge of the green. *Ground*, a bag or handkerchief laid down to mark where a bowl is to go. *Lead*, the advantage of throwing the block, and bowling firſt. *Caſt*, is one beſt bowl at an end. *End*, a hit, or when all the bowls are out. The *game*, or *up*, is five caſts or beſt bowls.

(2.) BOWLING, in geography, a village in Yorkſhire, a mile from Bradford.

(3.) * BOWLING. See BOW-LINE, § 1.

BOWLING BAY, a place in the country of Dumbarton, at which the chairman of the committee on the FORTH and CLYDE navigation, after deſcending the laſt lock of the great canal into the Clyde with the aſſiſtance of Mr Whitworth, performed the ceremony of joining the eaſtern and weſtern ſeas together, by the ſymbol of launching a hogſhead of the water of the Forth into the Clyde, on the 26th July, 1790.

BOWLING BRIDLES, the ropes by which the bow-line is faſtened to the leech of the ſail.

(1.) * BOWLING-GREEN. *n. ſ.* [from *bowl* and *green.*] A level piece of ground, kept ſmooth for bowlers.—A bowl equally poiſed, and thrown upon a plain *bowling-green*, will run neceſſarily in a direct line. *Bentley.*

(2.) BOWLING-GREEN, in gardening, a kind of parterre in a grove, laid with fine turf, requiring to be frequently mowed, laid out in compartments of divers figures, with dwarf trees and other decorations. Bowling-greens are of Engliſh origin, but have been adopted by the French and Italians

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Italians, who have them only for ornament; being unacquainted with, or not fancying the exercise, on account of which they were first made in England.

(3.) BOWLING-GREEN, THE D. OF ARGYLL'S, a name ironically given to the western range of the Grampian mountains in Argyllshire, on account of their uncommonly rugged and craggy appearance. *Stat. Acc. Vol.* V. *p.* 558.

BOWLTON, a village in Derbyshire, W. of Alveston.

BOW-MAKER. See BOWYER, § 2.

* BOWMAN. *n. f.* [from *bow* and *man*.] An archer; he that shoots with a bow.—The whole city shall flee, for the noise of the horsemen and *bowmen*. *Jerm.* iv. 29.

BOWMERE a village in Northumberland, N. of Aylmouth.

(1.) BOWMORE, a thriving village of Argyllshire, in the isle of Islay. It was only begun in 1763, but being laid out on a regular plan, and an elegant church and steeple built in it, (which cost L. 1000,) fronting the quay, it is already become very populous. In 1791, it contained 500 people, and 110 houses; of which 50 were covered with blue slates and 20 with tiles.

(2.) BOWMORE. See KILLARROW.

BOWNESS, a village of Westmoreland, pleasantly seated on the lake Winandermere.

BOW-NET, or BOW WHEEL, an engine for catching fish, chiefly lobsters and craw-fish, made of two round wicker baskets, pointed at the end, one of which is thrust into the other; at the mouth is a little rim, 4 or 5 inches broad, somewhat bent inwards. It is also used for catching sparrows.

BOWOOD, a village in Dorsetshire, 2 miles W. of Netherby.

BOW-PIECES, pieces of ordnance at the bow of a ship.

BOWSDEN, a village in Hertfordshire, 3 miles SW. of Buntingford.

To BOWSE, *v. n.* in the sea language, to *hale* or *pull*. Thus *bowsing upon a tack*, is hailing upon a tack; *Bowse away*, Pull away all together.

BOW'S-FARM, a village in Middlesex, near Hornsey.

* BOW-SHOT. *n. f.* [from *bow* and *shot*.] The space which an arrow may pass in its flight from the bow.—Though he were not then a *bow-shot* off, and made haste: yet, by that time he was come, the thing was no longer to be seen. *Boyle.*

(1.) * BOWSPRIT. *n. f.* [from the *bow* of a ship.] This word is generally spelt BOLTSPRIT; which see.

(2.) BOWSPRIT carries the sprit-sail, sprit-top-sail, and jack-staff; and its length is usually the same with that of the fore-mast.

* *To* BOWSSEN. *v. a.* [probably of the same original with *bouse*, but found in no other passage.] To drench; to soak.—The water fell into a close walled plot; up this wall was the frantick person set, and from thence tumbled headlong into the pond; where a strong fellow tossed him up and down, until the patient, by foregoing his strength, had somewhat forgot his fury: but if there appeared small amendment, he was *bowssened* again and again, while there remained in him any hope of life, for recovery. *Carew's Survey of Cornwall.*

BOWSTEAD, a village in Cumberland, near Burgh-Marsh.

BOWSTERTON, in Yorkshire, 9 miles NW. of Barnsley.

* BOWSTRING. *n. f.* [from *bow* and *string*.] The string by which the bow is kept bent.—He had twice or thrice cut Cupid's *bowstring*, and the little hangman dare not shoot at him. *Shakes.*—Sound will be conveyed to the ear, by striking upon a *bowstring*, if the horn of the bow be held to the ear. *Bacon.*

BOWTELL, a village in Cumberland, SE. of Seaton.

BOWTHORP, 2 villages: viz. 1. in Gloucester, N. of Fairford: 2. in Norfolk, W. of Norwich.

BOWTON, 2 villages: 1. in Norfolk, SE. of W. Dereham: 2. in Northumberland, 3 miles W. of Alnwick.

BOW-WHEEL. See BOW-NET.

(1.) * BOWYER. *n. f.* [from *bow*.] An archer; one that uses the bow.—

Call for vengeance from the *bowyer* king. *Dryd.*

2. One whose trade is to make bows.

(2.) *A* BOWYER, or BOW-MAKER, was anciently a distinct business from a FLETCHER, or arrow-maker. The company of Bowyers was incorporated so late as 1620, and consists of a master, 2 wardens, 12 assistants, and 30 on the livery.

(3.) BOWYER, William, the most learned printer of his age, was born at White Friars, in London, Dec. 17, 1699. His father, whose name also was William, had been eminent in the same profession; and his maternal grandfather, Icabod Dawks, was employed in printing Bp. Walton's celebrated Polyglott bible. Having acquired a grammatical education under Mr Ambrose Bonwicke, he made great advances in literature, and a firm attachment commenced betwixt him and his master. On the 30th Jan. 1713, his father's whole property being destroyed by fire, Mr Bonwicke generously undertook the education of his pupil for another year. In 1716, young Bowyer was admitted a sizar at St John's college, Cambridge, where he continued under Dr Newcombe till June, 1722. Soon after this he had an opportunity of repaying Mr Bonwicke's kindness, by officiating some time after his death, as a schoolmaster for the benefit of his family. He next entered into the printing business along with his father. One of the first books which received the benefit of his correction was the complete edition of Selden in 3 vols fol. by Dr David Wilkins. It was begun in 1722, and finished in 1726; and Mr Bowyer's great attention to it appeared in his drawing up an epitome of Selden *de Synedriis*, as he read the proof-sheets. In 1727, he drew up an excellent sketch of W. Baxter's Glossary of the Roman Antiquities; called "A view of a book intitled *Reliquiæ Baxterianæ*: in a letter to a friend;" 1 sheet 8vo. By this first public proof of his abilities, Dr Wotton and Mr Clarke were highly pleased; but as it was never published, and very few copies printed, it is very seldom found with the glossary. In Oct. 1728, he married Miss Ann Prudom, his cousin, a very accomplished lady, by whom he had two sons; of whom, William survived him. In 1729, he published a curious treatise, entitled, "A Pattern for young Students in the University; set

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et forth in the life of Ambroſe Bonwicke, ſome time Scholar of St John's College, Cambridge;" which was generally aſcribed to Mr Bowyer, though it was in reality wrote by Mr Bonwicke the elder. About this time Mr Bowyer had written a pamphlet againſt the Separatiſts, though neither the title nor the occaſion of it are now remembered. The ſame year, through the friendſhip of the R. H. Arthur Onſlow, he was appointed printer of the Votes of the Houſe of Commons; which office he held, for near 50 years. In 1731, he publiſhed, and, it is believed, *tranſlated* Voltaire's Life of Charles XII. This year alſo his wife dying, he remained a widower till 1747, when he married a worthy woman, Mrs Elizabeth Bill, by whom he had no children. In 1733, he publiſhed in two ſheets 4to, "The Beau and the Academic;" being a tranſlation from a Latin poem recited that year at the Sheldonian theatre; and in 1736, he was admitted into the Society of Antiquarians, where he became an uſeful member. In 1742, he publiſhed a tranſlation of Trapp's Latin Lectures on Poetry, in which he was aſſiſted by Mr Clarke. In 1750, he annexed a prefatory critical diſſertation and ſome notes to Kuiter's Treatiſe *De uſu verborum mediorum*; a new edition of which, with farther improvements, appeared in 1773. He wrote likewiſe about the ſame time a Latin preface to Leedes's *Veteres poetæ citati*, &c.—Being ſoon after employed to print an edition of Col. Bladen's tranſlation of Cæſar's Commentaries, that work received conſiderable improvements from Mr Bowyer's hands, with the addition of ſuch notes in it as are ſigned TYPOGR. In the ſubſequent editions of this work, though printed by another perſon during the author's lifetime, the ſame ſignature, though contrary to juſtice, was ſtill retained. In 1751, he wrote a long preface to Monteſquieu's "Reflections on the riſe and fall of the Roman Empire;" tranſlated the dialogue between Sylla and Socrates; made ſeveral corrections to the work from the Baron's "Spirit of Laws;" and improved it with his own notes. A new edition, with many new notes, was printed in 1759. In 1751, he alſo publiſhed the firſt tranſlation that ever was made of Rouſſeau's paradoxical oration, which gained the prize at the academy of Dijon in 1750; and which firſt announced that ſingular genius to the attention and admiration of Europe. On the publication of the 3d edition of Lord Orrery's Remarks on the Life and Writings of Dr Swift, in 1752, Mr Bowyer wrote and printed, but never publiſhed, "Two letters from Dr Bentley in the Shades below, to Lord Orrery in a Land of thick darkneſs." The notes ſigned B, in the 9th 4to vol. of Swift's works are extracted from theſe Letters. In 1753, he endeavoured to allay the ferment occaſioned by the Jew bill; with which view he publiſhed, in 4to, "Remarks on the ſpeech made in common council, on the bill for permitting perſons profeſſing the Jewiſh religion to be naturalized, ſo far as prophecies are ſuppoſed to be affected by it." This little tract was written with ſpirit, and well received by all who were ſuperior to narrow prejudices. Its deſign was to ſhow, that Chriſtianity was in no danger of being prejudiced by the intended protection promiſed to the Jews. The ſame year ſome of Mr Bowyer's notes were annexed to Biſhop Claton's tranſlation of "A journal from Grand Cairo to mount Sinai and back again." In 1761, Mr Bowyer was appointed printer to the Royal Society, through the intereſt of the E. of Macclesfield; and enjoyed that office till his death. In 1763, Mr Bowyer publiſhed an excellent edition of the Greek Teſtament, in two vols 12mo, which ſold with great rapidity: the Conjectural Emendations were well received by the learned, and are thought valuable. The preſident and fellows of Havard college in Cambridge expreſſed their approbation of this edition in very high terms; and reckoned it, "of more value than many large volumes of the commentators." A ſecond edition of the Conjectures on the New Teſtament, with enlargements, was publiſhed, in one vol. 8vo, in 1772. Dr Warburton's Divine Legation received very conſiderable advantage from Mr Bowyer's corrections; and this even in an edition which was neceſſarily given to another preſs. In 1761 he printed his Doctrine of Grace. In 1765, at the requeſt of Thomas Hollis, Eſq; Mr Bowyer wrote a ſhort Latin preface to Dr Wallis's *Grammatica Linguæ Anglicanæ*. He wrote alſo a large Engliſh preface for it, which, however, ſtill remains unprinted. In 1766 he wrote an excellent Latin preface to *Joannis Harduini Jeſuitæ, ad Cenſuram Scriptorum veterum Prolegomena. Juxta Autographum.* In 1767 he was appointed to print the Journals of the Houſe of Lords, and the Rolls of Parliament. This year he printed Mr Clarke's learned work on "The Connection of the Roman, Saxon, and Engliſh Coins;" and wrote ſome notes upon it, which are interſperſed with thoſe of the author. Part of the Diſſertation on the Roman ſeſterce was likewiſe Mr Bowyer's production; and the index, which is an uncommonly good one, was drawn up by him entirely. In 1771, he printed a ſmall pamphlet, intitled, "Remarks, occaſioned by a late Diſſertation on the Greek and Roman money." In 1773, he publiſhed 3 little tracts entitled, "Select Diſcourſes. 1. Of the correſpondence of the Hebrew months with the Julian, from the Latin of Profeſſor Michaelis. 2. Of the Sabbatical years, from the ſame. Of the years of jubilee, from an anonymous writer in Maſſon's Hiſtoire Critique de la Republique des Lettres." In 1774 he corrected a new edition of Schrevelius's Greek Lexicon; to which he has added a number of words, diſtinguiſhed by an aſteriſk, which he had collected in the courſe of his ſtudies. Conſiderable additions, ſtill in M. S. were made by him to the lexicons of Hederic and Buxtorf, the Latin ones of Faber and Littleton, and the Engliſh Dictionary of Bailey; and he left behind him many other proofs of his critical ſkill in the learned languages. In 1774 was publiſhed, "The Origin of printing, in two eſſays. 1. The ſubſtance of Dr Middleton's Diſſertation on the Origin of Printing in England. 2. Mr Meerman's Account of the Invention of the Art at Haarlem, and its progreſs to Mentz, with occaſional Remarks, and an Appendix." The original idea of this valuable tract was Mr Bowyer's, but it was completed by Mr Nicholas. During the laſt ten years of his life, he was afflicted with the palſy and ſtone; yet he not

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only preſerved a remarkable cheerfulneſs of temper, but was enabled to ſupport the labour of almoſt inceſſant reading; and he regularly corrected the learned works, eſpecially the Greek books, which came from his preſs. This he continued to do till near his death, which happened in Nov. 1777, in his 78th year. For more than half a century Mr Bowyer was unrivalled as a learned printer; and many of the moſt maſterly productions of this kingdom have come from his preſs. To his literary and profeſſional abilities he added an excellent moral character; and he was particularly diſtinguiſhed by his inflexible probity, and an uncommon alacrity in relieving the neceſſitous.

(1.) * BOX. *n. ſ.* [*bock*, a cheek, Welch.] A blow on the head given with the hand.—For the *box* o' th' ear that the prince gave you, he gave it like a rude prince. *Shakeſpeare.*—If one ſhould take my hand perforce, and give another a *box* on the ear with it, the law puniſheth the other. *Bramhall.*—There may happen concuſſions of the brain from a *box* on the ear. *Wiſeman's Surgery.*—Olphis, the fiſherman, received a *box* on the ear from Theſtylis. *Addiſon's Spectator.*

(2.) * Box. *n. ſ.* [*box*, Sax. *buſte*, Germ.] 1. A caſe made of wood, or other matter, to hold any thing. It is diſtinguiſhed from *cheſt*, as the *leſt* from the *greater*. It is ſuppoſed to have its name from the *box* wood.—A magnet, though but in an ivory *box*, will, through the *box*, ſend forth his embracing virtue to a beloved needle. *Sidney.*—

About his ſhelves
A beggarly account of empty *boxes*. *Shakeſp.*

—The lion's head is open to a moſt wide voracious mouth, which ſhall take in letters and papers. There will be under it a *box*, of which the key will be kept in my cuſtody, to receive ſuch papers as are dropped into it. *Steele.*—

This caſket India's glowing gems unlocks,
And all Arabia breathes from yonder *box*. *Pope.*

2. The caſe of the mariners compaſs. 3. The cheſt into which money is put.—

So many more, ſo every one was uſed,
That to give largely to the *box* refuſed. *Spenſer.*

4. The ſeats in the playhouſe where the ladies are placed.

'Tis left to you, the *boxes* and the pit
Are ſovereign judges of this ſort of wit. *Dryd.*
She glares in balls, front *boxes*, and the ring,
A vain, unquiet, glittering, wretched thing. *Pope.*

(3.) Box is alſo uſed for an uncertain quantity or meaſure; thus a box of quickſilver contains from 100 to 200 lb.; a box of prunellas only 14 lb.; a box of rings for keys, two groſs, &c. See alſo DICE BOX, and ſimilar compounds of BOX, in their order.

(4.) * Box. *n. ſ.* [*box*, Sax. *buxus*, Lat.] A tree.—The leaves are pinnated and evergreen; it hath male flowers, that are produced at remote diſtances from the fruit, on the ſame tree; the fruit is ſhaped like a porridge-pot, inverted, and is divided into three cells, containing two ſeeds in each, which, when ripe, are caſt forth by the elaſticity of the veſſels. The wood is very uſeful for engravers, and mathematical inſtrument-makers; being ſo hard, cloſe, and ponderous, as to ſink in water. *Miller.*—*Box*, there are two ſorts of it; the dwarf *box*, and a taller ſort. The dwarf *box* is very good for borders, and is eaſily kept in order, with one clipping in the year. It will increaſe by ſlips ſet in March, or about Bartholomew tide, and will proſper on the declivity of cold, dry, barren, chalky hills, where nothing elſe will grow.

(5.) Box, in botany. See BUXUS.

(6.) Box, in geography, a village in Wiltſhire, between Bath and Chippenham.

(7.) Box, in ichthyology, a name given by ſome zoologiſts to the BOOPS.

(8.) BOX AND NEEDLE, the ſmall compaſs of a theodolite, circumferentor, or plain table.

(9.) Box, AFRICAN. See MYRSINE.

(10.) Box, Low. See POLYGALA.

(1.) * *To* Box. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To incloſe in a box.—

Box'd in a chair, the beau impatient ſits,
While ſpouts run clatt'ring o'er the roof by fits. *Swift.*

(2.) * *To* Box. *v. a.* To ſtrike with the fiſt.

(3.) * *To* Box. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To fight with the fiſt.—The aſs very fairly looked on, till they had *boxed* themſelves a-weary, and then left them fairly in the lurch. *L'Eſtrange.* A leopard is like a cat; he *boxes* with his forefeet, as a cat doth her kittens. *Grew.*—The fighting with man's ſhadow conſiſts in brandiſhing two ſticks, loaden with plugs of lead; this gives a man all the pleaſure of *boxing*, without the blows. *Spectator.*—He hath had ſix duels, and four and twenty *boxing* matches, in defence of his majeſty's title. *Spectator.*

* BOXEN. *n. ſ.* [from *box*.] 1. Made of box.—The young gentlemen learned, before all other things, to deſign upon tablets of *boxen* wood. *Dryden.*—

As lads and laſſes ſtood around,
To hear my *boxen* hautboy ſound. *Gay.*

2. Reſembling box.—

Her faded cheeks are chang'd to *boxen* hue,
And in her eyes the tears are ever new. *Dryden.*

(1.) * BOXER. *n. ſ.* [from *box*.] A man who fights with his fiſt.

(2.) BOXERS, among the Romans, were called PUGILES. The ancient boxers battled with great force and fury, inſomuch as to daſh out each others teeth, break bones, and often kill each other. The ſtrange diſfigurements theſe boxers underwent were ſuch that they frequently could not be known, and rendered them the ſubject of many railleries. In the Greek anthology there are 4 epigrams of Lucilius, and one of Lucian, wherein their diſfigurements are pleaſantly enough expoſed. See BOXING, § 1.

BOXFORD, 1. a town in Eſſex, 4 m. SW. from Hadley: 2. a village in Berkſhire, near Winterborn.

BOXGROVE, a town in Suſſex, near Chicheſter, NE. of Stour; 4 m. SW. of Hadley, 8 N. of Colcheſter, 12 SW. of Ipſwich. It has fairs on Eaſter Monday and St Thomas's day.

BOX-HAULING, in ſea language, a particular method of veering a ſhip, when the ſwell renders tacking impracticable.

BOX-HILL, a town in Surrey, near Darking.

BOXHORNIUS, Marc Zuerius, a learned critic, born at Bergen-op-Zoom, in 1611, was profeſſor of eloquence at Leyden, and at length of politics

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politics and history in the room of Heiafius. He published, 1. *Theatrum urbium Hollandiæ.* 2. *Scriptores historiæ Augustæ, cum notis.* 3. *Poetæ satyrici minores, cum comment.* 4. Notes on Justin, Tacitus; and a great number of other works. He died in 1653, aged 41.

(1.) BOXING, the exercise of fighting with the fists, either naked or with a stone or leaden ball grasped in them. It coincides with the *pugillatus* of the Romans, and what on our amphitheatres is sometimes called trial of manhood. When the champions had σφαῖραι, or balls, whether of lead or stone, it was properly denominated SPHÆROMACHIA. The ancient boxing differed from the *pugna cæstum*, in which the combatants had leathern thongs in their hands, and balls to hurt their antagonists; though this distinction is frequently overlooked, and fighting with the *cæstus* ranked as a part of the business of *pugiles*. There were 3 species of boxing, viz. 1. where both the head and hands were naked; 2. where the hands were armed, and the head naked; and, 3. where the head was covered with a kind of cap called *amphotides*, and the hands also furnished with the *cæstus*. Boxing is an ancient exercise, having been in use in the heroic ages. Those who prepared themselves for it, used all the means that could be contrived to render themselves fat and fleshy, that they might be better able to endure blows: whence corpulent men or women were usually called *pugiles*. In modern times this art has been in a manner appropriated by the English. Above half a century ago, it formed as regular an exhibition as we now see at any of the places of public amusement, the theatres alone excepted. It was encouraged by the first ranks of the nobility, patronised by the first subject in the realm, and tolerated by the magistrates. Before the establishment of Broughton's amphitheatre, a booth was erected at Tottenham Court, in which the proprietor Mr George Taylor, invited the professors of the art to display their skill, and the public to be present at its exhibition. The bruisers then had the reward due to their prowess, in a division of the entrance-money, which was sometimes L. 100 or L. 150. The general mode of sharing was for two-thirds to go to the winning champion, while the remaining third was the right of the loser; though sometimes by an express agreement of the parties, the conqueror and the vanquished shared alike. The nobility and gentry having complained of the inconveniences sustained at Taylor's Booth, prevailed on Mr Broughton, who was then rising into note as the first bruiser in London, to build a place better adapted for such exhibitions. This was accordingly done in 1742, principally by subscription, behind Oxford road. The building was called Broughton's New Amphitheatre; and, besides the stage for the combatants, had seats corresponding to the boxes, pit, and galleries. After a course of years, however, these exhibitions became gradually less patronised and frequented, owing probably to the refinement of our manners. Lately, indeed, they seemed to be revived, and for some time considerably engaged the attention of the public; but a fatal issue which attended one of them, brought the practice again into disrepute. One of the combatants was killed on the spot. The Prince of Wales was present and declared he would have some settlement made on the nearest relation of the deceased, but that on account of the dreadful example he had then witnessed, he would never more either see or patronise another stage fight.

(2.) BOXING, among sailors, is used to denote the rehearsing the several points of the compass in their proper order.

(3.) BOXING is also used for the tapping of a tree to make it yield its juice. The boxing of mapple is performed by making a hole with an ax or chissel into the side of the tree about a foot from the ground; out of it flows a liquor of which sugar is made.

BOXLEY, a village near Maidstone, Kent.

BOXLEYS, in Surry, near Chertsey.

BOXTED, in Essex, W. of Dedham, near Maningtree. It has a fair Whitsun. Tues.

BOXTED-CUM-HARTEST, in Suffolk, 5 miles W. of Lavenham.

BOXTEHUDE, a town of Germany, in the duchy of Bremen, and circle of Lower Saxony, subject to the Danes. It is seated on the rivulet Esse. Lon. 9. 35. E. Lat. 53. 40. N.

BOXTEL, a town in Dutch Brabant, with sluices, seated on the river Bommel; 8 m. S. o. Bois-leduc. Lon. 5. 15. E. Lat. 51. 30. N.

BOXTHUDE. See BOXTEHUDE.

BOXWELL, a village in Gloucestershire, 6 miles from Tetbury.

BOXUS, a name given by some to the Misletoe.

BOXWORTH, a town 7 m. W. of Cambridge.

* BOY. *n. s.* [*buy*, Germ. The etymology is not agreed on.] 1. A male child; not a girl.—The streets of the city shall be full of *boys* and *girls* playing. *Zech.* 2. One in the state of adolescence; older than an infant, yet not arrived at puberty or manhood.—

Speak thou, *boy*:
Perhaps thy childishness will move him more
Than can our reasons. *Shakesp. Coriolanus.*

Sometimes forgotten things, long cast behind,
Rush forward in the brain, and come to mind:
The nurse's legends are for truths receiv'd,
And the man dreams but what the *boy* believ'd.
Dryden.

3. A word of contempt for young men, as noting their immaturity.—Men of worth and parts will easily admit the familiarity of *boys*, who yet need the care of a tutor. *Locke.*—

The pale *boy* senator yet tingling stands,
And holds his breeches close with both his hands.
Pope.

* *To* BOY. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To treat as a boy.—

Anthony
Shall be brought drunken forth, and I shall see
Some squeaking Cleopatra *boy* my greatness,
I' th' posture of a whore. *Shakespeare.*

BOYAR, a grandee of Russia and Transylvania. Beeman says, that the Boyars are the upper nobility; and have precedence of the WAYWODES.

BOYAU, in fortification, a ditch covered with a parapet, which serves as a communication between two trenches. It runs parallel to the works of the body of the place; and serves as a line of contravallation, not only to hinder the sallies of the

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the beſieged, but alſo to ſecure the mines. But when it is a particular cut that runs from the trenches to cover ſome ſpot of ground, it is drawn ſo as not to be enfiladed or ſcoured by the ſhot from the town.

BOYCOT, a village in Shropſhire, 3 miles SE. of Weſtbury.

(1.) BOYD, Mark Alexander, an extraordinary genius, was ſon of Robert Boyd, and grandſon of Adam Boyd of Pinkhill, brother to Lord Boyd. He was born in Galloway in 1562, and came into the world with teeth. He learned the rudiments of the Latin and Greek langnages at Glaſgow under two grammarians; but was of ſo high and untractable a ſpirit, that they deſpaired of ever making him a ſcholar. Having quarrelled with his maſters, he beat them both, burnt his books, and forſwore learning. While yet a youth, he followed the court, and did his utmoſt to puſh his intereſt there; but the fervour of his temper ſoon precipitated him into quarrels, from which he came off with honour and ſafety, though frequently at the hazard of his life. He went to ſerve in the French army, and carried his little patrimony with him, which he ſoon diſſipated at play. He was ſhortly after roufed by that emulation which is natural to great minds, and applied himſelf to letters with unremitted ardour, till he became one of the moſt conſummate ſcholars of his age. He is ſaid to have tranſlated Cæſar's Commentaries into Greek in the ſtyle of Herodotus, and to have written many Latin poems, little inferior to the firſt productions of the Auguſtan age. He alſo left ſeveral MSS. on philological, political, and hiſtorical ſubjects, in the Latin and French, languages as familiar to him as his native tongue. He could with facility dictate to three amanuenſes at the ſame time, in different languages, and on different ſubjects. He was alſo one of the beſt Scottiſh poets of the age. And his perſonal beauty and accompliſhments were equal to his mental ſuperiority. He died at Pinkhill, in 1601. The following works, which are all that have been printed, were publiſhed in *Delicia Poetarum Scotorum;* Amſtel. 1637, 12mo. 1. *Epigrammata*, lib. ii. 2. *Heroidem Epiſtolæ* XIV. lib. i. 3. *Hymni* XIV.

(2.) BOYD, Zachary, a clergyman of the church of Scotland, who flouriſhed in the 16th century, about the time of the reformation. We have looked in vain for an account of him in the *Biographia Britannica*, the different *Encyclopædiæ*, *Bayle's Dictionary*, and ſimilar works. He is not even mentioned in *Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc.* of the Univerſity of Glaſgow, which is the more ſurpriſing that he was a liberal Donor to it, as an evidence of which his ſtatue is erected on the front of it. It is a current tradition, that he was very learned and pious, but that his piety led him to the very excentric length of turning the whole bible into rhyme, in the vulgar dialect of the country, to be publiſhed for the benefit (as he intended) of the lower ranks; and that he left a large ſum of money to build the college on the expreſs condition of having his metrical verſion printed; but that his executors were of ſo very different an opinion, from the reverend author, of the tendency of his work, that it has been ever ſince kept carefully locked up under ſeveral keys, held by the different profeſſors, and only ſhown as a curioſity to particular friends. Indeed if the work be of a piece with ſome verſes, which we have heard retailed as quotations from this extraordinary MS. the executors and their ſucceſſors have certainly acted very wiſely in keeping it from the public eye; as the veſification is ſo homely and often ſo indelicate, that the publication would be a complete burleſque on ſacred ſcripture.

BOYDON, a village in Eſſex, 4 miles from Epping and Waltham.

(1.) BOYER, Abel, an eminent gloſſographer and hiſtoriographer, born at Caſtres in France, in 1664. On the revocation of the edict of Nantz, he went firſt to Geneva, then to Franeker, and finally to England, where he applied himſelf ſo cloſely to the ſtudy of the Engliſh language, and made ſo great a proficiency therein, that he became an author of conſiderable note in it, being employed in ſeveral periodical and political works. He, for many years, had the principal management of a newſpaper, called the *Poſt-boy*. He likewiſe publiſhed a monthly work, intitled, the *Political ſtate of Great Britain*. He wrote a life of queen Anne in folio, which is eſteemed a very good chronicle of that period of the Engliſh hiſtory.—But he is moſt famed for his excellent Dictionary and Grammar of the French language, which have been long eſteemed the beſt of their kind. He alſo wrote, or rather tranſlated from the French of M. de Racine, the tragedy of Iphigenia, which he publiſhed under the title of *The Victim*. It was performed with ſucceſs at the theatre of Drury Lane, and affords a ſtrong proof of the abilities of its author. Writing with any degree of correctneſs, even in proſe, in a foreign language, is an excellence not often attained; but to attain ſuch perfection, as to be even ſufferable in poetry, and eſpecially in the Drama, in which the diction and manner of expreſſion require a peculiar dignity and force, and in a language ſo difficult to attain the perfect command of, as the Engliſh, is what has been very ſeldom accompliſhed. He died in 1729.

(2.) BOYER, in navigation, a kind of Flemiſh ſloop, or ſmall veſſel of burden, having a boltſprit, a caſtle at each end, and a tall maſt: chiefly fit for the navigation of rivers, and in many of its parts reſembling a ſmak.

BOYES, idolatrous prieſts among the ſavages of Florida. Every boye attends a particular idol, and the natives addreſs themſelves to the prieſt of that idol to which they intended to pay their devotion. The idol is invoked in hymns, and his uſual offering is the ſmoke of tobacco.

BOYEUPECANGA, in zoology, a large and remarkably thick ſerpent, mentioned by Ray, diſtinguiſhed by prominences on its back. Its poiſon is fatal.

* BOYHOOD. *n. ſ.* [from *boy.*] 1. Belonging to a boy; the part of life in which we are boys. This is perhaps an arbitrary word: If you ſhould look at him, in his *boyhood*, through the magnifying end of a perſpective, and, in his manhood, through the other, it would be impoſſible to ſpy any difference; the ſame air, the ſame ſtrut. *Swift.*

* BOYISH-

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* BOYISH. *adj.* [from *boy*.] 1. Belonging to a boy.—

I ran it through, e'en from my *boyish* days,
To th' very moment that he bade me tell it.
Shakespeare.

2. Childish; trifling.—

This unhair'd saucineſs, and *boyiſh* troops,
The king doth ſmile at, and is well prepar'd
To whip this dwarfiſh war, theſe pigmy arms.
Shakeſpeare.

—Young men take up ſome Engliſh poet for their model, and imitate him, without knowing wherein he is defective, where he is *boyiſh* and trifling. *Dryden.*

* BOYISHLY. *adv.* [from *boyiſh*.] Childiſhly; triflingly.

* BOYISHNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *boyiſh*.] Childiſhneſs; trifling manner.

* BOYISM. *n. ſ.* [from *boy*.] Puerility; childiſhneſs.—He had complained he was farther off, by being ſo near, and a thouſand ſuch *boyiſms*, which Chaucer rejected as below the ſubject. *Dryden.*

(1.) BOYLE, Charles, earl of Orrery, and baron Maſton, the 2d ſon of earl Roger, (N° 6.) was born in Auguſt, 1679. He was educated at Chriſt-church in Oxford, and ſoon diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his learning and abilities. He was an author, a ſoldier, and a ſtateſman. He tranſlated the life of Lyſander from the Greek of Plutarch; and publiſhed a new edition of the epiſtles of Phalaris, which engaged him in a literary diſpute, in which he defended the genuineneſs of theſe epiſtles againſt Dr Bentley. (See BENTLEY, N° 1. § i.) He was 3 times member for Huntingdon; but his elder brother, Lionel earl of Orrery, dying on the 23d of Aug. 1703, without iſſue, he ſucceeded to that title; and, entering into the Queen's ſervice, had a regiment given him, when he behaved with ſuch bravery, that in 1709, he was raiſed to the rank of major-general, and ſworn one of her majeſty's privy council. At the famous battle of the wood, he gave the ſtrongeſt proofs of his intrepid courage, remaining at the head of his regiment in the warmeſt part of the action, till the victory was complete, which, as it was one of the moſt glorious, ſo it was the deareſt bought, of any of that war. He was appointed the Queen's envoy to Brabant and Flanders; and having honourably diſcharged the truſt, was created a Britiſh Peer, by the titles of Lord Boyle, and baron Maſton. He enjoyed ſeveral other additional honours in the reign of K. George I.; but falling under the ſuſpicion of the government, he was committed to the tower: but nothing being found that could be eſteemed a ſufficient ground for a proſecution, he was diſcharged. He died Aug. 22, 1731. To his tutor, Mr Atterbury, he probably owed a good part of that fine reliſh he had for the writings of the ancients. He made theſe his conſtant ſtudy, and expreſſed a high contempt for the greater part of our modern wits and authors. He was delighted with the company of two ſorts of perſons; either ſuch as were really geniuſes of the firſt rank, who had fine underſtandings, ſtrong judgments, and true taſtes; or ſuch as had a few foibles, and an eye of ridicule in them, which ſerved to make him laugh. He would rally theſe in ſo agreeable, and yet in ſo tender a manner, that, though it diverted himſelf and others, it was never offenſive to the perſon rallied. The inſtrument which was invented by him, and bears his name, repreſenting the ſolar ſyſtem according to the ſentiments of the new aſtronomers, is an undeniable proof of his mechanic genius. He had alſo a turn for medicine; which led him not only to read whatever was publiſhed on that ſubject, but alſo to employ his friends to ſend him accounts of herbs and drugs in foreign countries.

(2.) BOYLE, John, earl of Cork and Orrery, a nobleman diſtinguiſhed by his learning and genius, was the only ſon of earl Charles, (N° 1.) and was born on the 2d January, 1707. He was educated at Chriſt-church college in Oxford; but, as he himſelf declares, early diſappointments, indifferent health, and many untoward accidents, rendered him fond of retirement, and of improving his talents for polite literature and poetry; of which laſt art he gave ſeveral excellent ſpecimens. He alſo wrote a Tranſlation of Pliny the Younger's letter, with various notes, for the ſervice of his eldeſt ſon the Lord Boyle, in two volumes, 4to. This was firſt publiſhed in 1751. The year following, he publiſhed the Life of Dean Swift, in ſeveral letters, addreſſed to his ſecond ſon Hamilton Boyle; and afterwards printed Memoirs of Robert Cary earl of Monmouth, a manuſcript preſented to him by a relation, with explanatory notes. He died in 1762.

(3.) BOYLE, Richard, one of the greateſt ſtateſmen of the 17th century, and generally ſtyled the *Great earl of Corke*, was the youngeſt ſon of Mr Roger Boyle, of Herefordſhire, and was born at Canterbury, Oct. 3, 1566. He ſtudied at Bennet college, Cambridge; afterwards became a ſtudent in the Middle Temple. Having loſt his parents, and being unable to ſupport himſelf in the proſecution of his ſtudies, he became clerk to Sir Richard Manhood, chief baron of the exchequer; but finding that by his employment he could not raiſe his fortune, he went to Ireland in 1588, with fewer pounds in his pocket, than he afterwards acquired thouſands a-year. He was then about 22, had a graceful perſon, and many accompliſhments. He ſoon became uſeful to ſeveral perſons employed in the government, by drawing up memorials, caſes, and anſwers. In 1595, he married Joan the daughter of William Anſley, of Pulborough, Eſq; who had fallen in love with him; and ſhe dying in labour of her firſt child, who was born dead, in 1599, left him an eſtate of 500l. a-year in land. Some time after he was accuſed by Sir H. Wallop and others who envied him, of being a ſpy in the pay of the king of Spain; whereupon he was taken up and his papers ſearched; but having fully vindicated himſelf in preſence of Q. Elizabeth, and laid open the villainy of Wallop, ſhe not only liberated him, but appointed him clerk of the council of Munſter, and recommended him to Sir G. Carew, the preſident. After this, by his various ſervices, and the great abilities he diſplayed, he gradually roſe to the higheſt offices, and at laſt to the peerage of Ireland; to which he was raiſed by James I. in 1616, by the title of *baron Youghall*; in 1620, by thoſe of

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viſcount Dungarvan and earl of Cork; and in 1631, was made lord treaſurer of Ireland, an office, that was made hereditary to his family. In 1603, he married Mrs Catharine Fenton, daughter of Sir George Fenton, then Secretary of State. He afterwards diſtinguiſhed himſelf by the noble ſtand he made, when the fatal rebellion broke out in that kingdom, under Charles I; and in his old age acted with as much bravery and military ſkill, as if he had been trained from his infancy to arms. He turned the caſtle of Liſmore, his capital ſeat, into a fortreſs; armed and diſciplined his ſervants and proteſtant tenants; and by their aſſiſtance, and a ſmall army raiſed and maintained at his own expence, which he put under the command of his four ſons, defended the province of Munſter, and in the ſpace of a year took ſeveral ſtrong caſtles, and killed upwards of 3000 of the enemy: during which time he paid his forces regularly; and when all his money was gone, like a true patriot, converted his plate into coin. This great man died in 1644, aged 78.

(4.) Boyle, Richard, earl of Burlington and Cork, ſon to the former, (N° 3.) was a nobleman of unblemiſhed loyalty and untainted integrity, in times of rebellion and general corruption. He was born at Youghall in 1612. He diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his loyalty to king Charles I. He not only commanded troops, but raiſed and for a long time paid them, and continued to ſtand up for the king, as long as any one place held out for him in England; till at laſt he was forced to compound for his eſtate. He contributed all in his power to the Reſtoration; on which Charles II. raiſed him to the dignity of earl Burlington, in 1663. He died Jan. 15, 1697-8, aged 86.

(5.) Boyle, Robert, one of the greateſt philoſophers, as well as beſt men, that any nation has produced, was the 7th ſon and the 14th child of Richard earl of Cork, (N° 3.) and born at Liſmore, Jan. 25, 1626-7. Before he went to ſchool he was taught to write a very fair hand, and to ſpeak French and Latin, by one of the earl's chaplains, and a Frenchman that he kept in the houſe. In 1635, his father ſent him over to England, in order to be educated at Eaton ſchool, under Sir Henry Wotton, who was the earl of Cork's old friend and acquaintance. Here he ſoon diſcovered a force of underſtanding which promiſed great things, and a diſpoſition to cultivate and improve it to the utmoſt. While he remained at Eaton, ſeveral extraordinary accidents befel him, three of which were very near proving fatal to him. The firſt was, the ſudden fall of the chamber where he was lodged, while he was in bed; when, beſides the danger he run of being cruſhed to pieces, he had certainly been choaked with the duſt during the time he lay under the rubbiſh, if he had not had preſence of mind enough to have wrapped his head up in the ſheet, which gave him an opportunity of breathing without hazard. A little after this, he had been cruſhed to pieces by a ſtarting horſe that roſe up ſuddenly, and threw himſelf backwards, if he had not happily diſengaged his feet from the ſtirrups, and caſt himſelf from his back before he fell. The 3d accident proceeded from the careleſſneſs of an apothecary's ſervant, who, by miſtaking the phials, brought him a ſtrong vomit inſtead of a cooling julep. In 1638, he attended his father to London; and remained with him at the Savoy, till his brother Mr Francis Boyle eſpouſed Mrs Eliſabeth Killigrew; and then, towards the end of October, within four days after the marriage, the two brothers, Francis and Robert, were ſent abroad upon their travels, to France and Geneva, under the care of Mr Marcombes. Mr Boyle, during his ſtay at Geneva, reſumed his acquaintance with the mathematics, or at leaſt with the elements of that ſcience, of which he had before gained ſome knowledge. For he tells us in his memoirs, that while he was at Eaton, and afflicted with an ague, before he was ten years old, by way of diverting his melancholy, they made him read Amadis de Gaul, and other romantic books, which produced ſuch a reſtleſſneſs in him, that he was obliged to apply himſelf to the extraction of the ſquare and cube roots, and to the more laborious operations of algebra, in order to fix and ſettle the volatile operations of his fancy. In Sept. 1641, he quitted Geneva, after having ſpent 21 months in that city; he returned to the continent, and ſpent the winter at Florence. Here he employed his ſpare hours in reading the modern hiſtory in Italian, and the works of the celebrated aſtronomer Galileo, who died in a village near this city during Mr Boyle's reſidence in it. At Florence he acquired the Italian language; which he underſtood perfectly, though he never ſpoke it ſo fluently as the French. Of this indeed he was ſuch a maſter, that he paſſed for a native of that country in more places than one during his travels. About the end of March, 1642, he began his journey from Florence to Rome, which took up but five days. He ſurveyed the numerous curioſities of that city; among which, he tells us, "he had the fortune to ſee Pope Urban VIII. at chapel, with the cardinals, who ſeverally appearing mighty princes, in that aſſembly looked like a company of common friars." He returned to Florence; from thence to Leghorn; and ſo by ſea to Genoa: then paſſing through Nice, he croſſed the ſea to Antibes, where he fell into danger from refuſing to honour the crucifix: from thence he went to Marſeilles by land. He was in that city, in May, 1642, when he received his father's letters, which informed him that the rebellion had broken out in Ireland, and how difficultly he had procured the 250l. then remitted to them in order to help them home. They never received this money; and were obliged to go to Geneva with their governor Marcombes, who ſupplied them with as much at leaſt as carried them thither. They continued there a conſiderable time, without either advice or ſupplies from England; upon which Marcombes was obliged to take up ſome jewels upon his own credit, which were afterwards diſpoſed of with as little loſs as might be; and with the money thus raiſed, they continued their journey for England, where they arrived in 1644. On their arrival, Mr Boyle found his father dead; and though the earl had made an ample proviſion for him, by leaving him his manor of Stalbridge in England, as well as other conſiderable eſtates in Ireland, yet it was ſome time before he could receive any money. However, he procured protections for his eſtates

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in both kingdoms from the powers then in being; from which he alſo obtained leave to go over to France for a ſhort ſpace, probably to ſettle accounts with his governor Mr Marcombes. In March 1646, he retired to his manor at Stalbridge, where he reſided till May 1650. During his retirement at Stalbridge, he applied himſelf with incredible induſtry to ſtudies of various kinds. He omitted no opportunity of obtaining the acquaintance of perſons eminent for parts and learning. He was alſo one of the firſt members of that ſmall but learned body of men which, when all academical ſtudies were interrupted by the civil wars, ſecreted themſelves about the year 1645; and held private meetings, firſt in London, afterwards at Oxford, for the ſake of canvaſſing ſubjects of natural knowledge upon that plan of experiment which Lord Bacon had delineated. They ſtyled themſelves then *The philoſophic college*; and, after the Reſtoration, when they were incorporated and diſtinguiſhed openly, they took the name of the *Royal Society*. In ſummer 1654, he put in execution a deſign he had formed for ſome time of reſiding at Oxford, where he choſe to live in the houſe of one Mr Croſſe, an apothecary, rather than a college, for the ſake of his health, and becauſe he had more room to make experiments. Oxford was indeed the only place at that time in England where Mr Boyle could have lived with much ſatisfaction; for here he found himſelf ſurrounded with a number of learned friends, ſuch as Wilkins, Wallis, Ward, Willis, Wren, &c. ſuited exactly to his taſte, and who had reſorted thither for the ſame reaſons that he had done, the philoſophical ſociety being now removed from London to Oxford. It was during his reſidence here that he improved that admirable engine the air-pump; and by numerous experiments was enabled to diſcover ſeveral qualities of the air, ſo as to lay a foundation for a complete theory. He was not, however, ſatisfied with this; but laboured inceſſantly in collecting and digeſting, chiefly from his own experiments, the materials requiſite for this purpoſe. He declared againſt the philoſophy of Ariſtotle, as having in it more words than things; promiſing much, and performing little; and giving the inventions of men for indubitable proofs, inſtead of building upon obſervation and experiment. He was ſo zealous for, and ſo careful about, this true method of learning by experiment, that tho' the Carteſian philoſophy then made a great noiſe in the world, yet he would never be perſuaded to read the works of Des Cartes, for fear he ſhould be amuſed and led away by plauſible accounts of things founded on conjecture, and merely hypothetical. But philoſophy, and inquiries into nature, though they engaged his attention deeply, did not occupy it entirely. He ſtill continued to purſue critical and theological ſtudies. In theſe he had the aſſiſtance of ſome great men, particularly Dr Edward Pocock, Mr Thomas Hyde, and Mr Samuel Clarke, all of great eminence for their ſkill in the oriental languages. He had alſo a ſtrict intimacy with Dr Thomas Barlow, afterwards biſhop of Lincoln, a man of various and extenſive learning. In 1659, Mr Boyle, being acquainted with the unhappy circumſtances of the learned Sanderſon, afterwards biſhop of Lincoln, who had loſt all his preferments on account of his attachment to the royal party, conferred upon him an honorary ſtipend of 50l. a-year. This ſtipend was given as an encouragement to that excellent maſter of reaſoning to apply himſelf to the writing of "Caſes of Conſcience:" and accordingly he printed his lectures *De obligatione conſcientiæ*, which he read at Oxford in 1647, and dedicated them to his friend and patron.—Upon the Reſtoration, Mr Boyle was treated with great civility and reſpect by the king, as well as by the two great miniſters the lord treaſurer Southampton and the lord chancellor Clarendon. He was ſolicited by the latter to enter into holy orders, but Mr Boyle conſidered, that, in the ſituation of life in which he was, whatever he wrote with reſpect to religion would have ſo much the greater weight as coming from a layman: ſince he well knew that the irreligious fortified themſelves againſt all that the clergy could offer, by ſaying that it was their trade, and that they were paid for it. He conſidered likewiſe, that, in point of fortune and character, he needed no acceſſions; and indeed he never had any appetite for either. He choſe, therefore, to purſue his philoſophical ſtudies in ſuch a manner as might be moſt effectual for the ſupport of religion; and began to communicate to the world the fruits of theſe ſtudies. His firſt work was printed at Oxford in 1660, in 8vo, under the title of, 1. New experiments, phyſico-mechanical, touching the ſpring of the air and its effects. 2. Seraphic love; or ſome motives and incentives to the love of God, pathetically diſcourſed of in a letter to a friend. 3. Certain phyſiological eſſays and other tracts, 1661, 4to. 4. Sceptical chemiſt, 1662, 8vo: a very curious and excellent work, reprinted about 1679, 8vo, with the addition of divers experiments and notes about the producibleneſs of chemical principles. In 1663, the royal ſociety being incorporated by king Charles II, Mr Boyle was appointed one of the council; and as he might be juſtly reckoned among the founders of that learned body, ſo he continued one of the moſt uſeful and induſtrious of its members during the whole courſe of his life. In June 1663, he publiſhed, 5. Conſiderations touching the uſefulneſs of experimental natural philoſophy, 4to. 6. Experiments and conſiderations upon colours; to which was added a letter, containing, Obſervations on a diamond that ſhines in the dark, 1663, 8vo. This treatiſe is full of curious and uſeful remarks on the hitherto unexplained doctrine of light and colours; in which he ſhows great judgment, accuracy, and penetration; and may be ſaid to have led the way to that mighty genius Sir Iſaac Newton, who has ſince ſet that point in the cleareſt and moſt convincing light. 7. Conſiderations on the ſtyle of the Holy Scriptures, 1663, 8vo. It was an extract from a larger work, entitled, *An Eſſay on Scripture*; which was afterwards publiſhed by Sir Peter Pett, a friend of Mr Boyle's. In 1664, he was elected into the company of the royal mines; and was all this year taken up in the proſecution of various good deſigns, which probably was the reaſon why he did not ſend abroad any treatiſes either of religion

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gion or philoſophy. In 1665 came forth, 8. Occaſional reflections upon ſeveral ſubjects; 8vo. This piece is addreſſed to *Sophronia*, under whoſe name he concealed that of his beloved ſiſter the vicounteſs of Ranelagh. The thoughts themſelves are on a vaſt variety of ſubjects, written many years before; ſome indeed upon trivial occaſions, but all with great accuracy of language, much wit, more learning, and in a wonderful ſtrain of moral and pious reflection. Yet this expoſed him to the only ſevere cenſure that ever was paſſed upon him; and that too from no leſs a man than the celebrated Dean Swift, who, to ridicule theſe diſcourſes, wrote *A pious meditation upon a broomſtick, in the ſtyle of the honourable Mr Boyle.* But as his noble relation Lord Orrery ſaid, "To what a height muſt the ſpirit of ſarcaſm ariſe in an author, who could prevail on himſelf to ridicule ſo good a man as Mr Boyle? The ſword of wit, like the ſcythe of time, cuts down friend and foe, and attacks every object that lies in its way. But, ſharp and irreſiſtible as the edge of it may be, Mr Boyle will always remain invulnerable." The ſame year, he publiſhed an important work, entitled, 9. New experiments and obſervations upon cold, 1665, 8vo. In 1666, he publiſhed, 10. Hydroſtatical paradoxes made out by new experiments, for the moſt part phyſical and eaſy, in 8vo. 11. The origin of forms and qualities, according to the corpuſcular philoſophy, illuſtrated by conſiderations and experiments. This treatiſe did great honour to Mr Boyle, whether we conſider the quickneſs of his wit, the depth of his judgment, or his indefatigable pains in ſearching after truth. At this time he alſo communicated to his friend Mr Oldenburgh, who was ſecretary to the royal ſociety, ſeveral excellent ſhort treatiſes of his own, upon a great variety of ſubjects, and others tranſmitted to him by his learned friends both at home and abroad, which are printed and preſerved in the Philoſophical Tranſactions. In 1668, Mr Boyle reſolved to ſettle in London for life: and removed for that purpoſe to the houſe of his ſiſter, the lady Ranelagh, in Pall-Mall. This was to the infinite benefit of the learned in general, and particularly to the advantage of the royal ſociety, to whom he gave great and continual aſſiſtance, as the ſeveral pieces communicated to them from time to time, and printed in their Tranſactions, abundantly teſtify. Thoſe who applied to him, either to deſire his help, or to communicate to him any new diſcoveries in ſcience, he had his ſet hours for receiving; otherwiſe it is eaſy to conceive that he would have had very little of his time for himſelf. But, beſides theſe, he kept a very extenſive correſpondence with perſons of the greateſt figure, and moſt famous for learning, in all parts of Europe. In 1669, he publiſhed, 12. A continuation of new experiments touching the weight and ſpring of the air; to which is added, A diſcourſe of the atmoſpheres of conſiſtent bodies: and the ſame year he reviſed and made many additions to ſeveral of his former tracts, ſome of which were now tranſlated into Latin, to gratify the curious abroad. 13. Tracts about the coſmical qualities of things; coſmical ſuſpicions; the temperature of the ſubterraneous regions; the bottom of the ſea: to which is prefixed an introduction to the hiſtory of particular qualities. This book occaſioned much ſpeculation, as it ſeemed to contain a vaſt treaſure of knowledge which had never been communicated to the world before; and this too grounded upon actual experiments, and arguments juſtly drawn from them, inſtead of that rational and conjectural philoſophy which in the beginning of the 17th century had been ſo much in faſhion. In 1671, he publiſhed, 14. Conſiderations on the uſefulneſs of experimental and natural philoſophy: part 2d, 4to. 15. A collection of tracts upon ſeveral uſeful and important points of practical philoſophy, 4to. 16. An eſſay about the origin and virtues of gems, 1672, 8vo. 17. A collection of tracts upon the relation between flame and air; and ſeveral other uſeful and curious ſubjects: beſides furniſhing, in this and the former year, a great number of ſhort diſſertations upon a vaſt variety of topics, addreſſed to the royal ſociety, and inſerted in their Tranſactions. 18. Eſſays on the ſtrange ſubtility, great efficacy, and determinate nature, of effluvia; to which were added a variety of experiments on other ſubjects; 1673, 8vo. 19. A collection of tracts upon the ſaltneſs of the ſea, the moiſture of the air, the natural and preternatural ſtate of bodies; to which is prefixed a dialogue concerning cold; 1674, 8vo. 20. The excellency of theology compared with philoſophy, 1674, 8vo. This diſcourſe was written in 1665, while Mr Boyle, to avoid the great plague which then raged in London, was forced to go from place to place in the country, and had little or no opportunity of conſulting his books. It contains a great number of curious and uſeful, as well as juſt and natural, obſervations. 21. A collection of tracts containing ſuſpicions about hidden qualities of the air; with an appendix touching celeſtial magnets; animadverſions upon Mr Hobbes's problem about a vacuum; a diſcourſe of the cauſe of attraction and ſuction; 1674, 8vo. 22. Some conſiderations about the reconcileableneſs of reaſon and religion. By T. E. a layman. To which is annexed a diſcourſe about the poſſibility of the reſurrection. By Mr Boyle, 1675, 8vo. Both theſe pieces were of his writing, only he thought fit to mark the former with the final letters of his name. Among other papers that he communicated this year to the royal ſociety, there were two connected into one diſcourſe on quickſilver growing hot with gold. Both of them contained diſcoveries of the utmoſt importance. In 1676, he publiſhed, 23. Experiments and notes about the mechanical origin or production of particular qualities, in ſeveral diſcourſes on a great variety of ſubjects, and among the reſt on electricity. In 1678, he communicated to Mr Hook a ſhort memorial of ſome obſervations upon an artificial ſubſtance that ſhines without any preceding illuſtration; which that gentleman thought fit to publiſh in his *Lectiones Cutlerianæ*. 24. Hiſtorical account of a degradation of gold made by an antielixir. This made a great noiſe both at home and abroad, and is looked upon as one of the moſt remarkable pieces that ever fell from his pen; ſince the facts contained in it would have been eſteemed incredible, if they had been related by a man of leſs integrity and piety than Mr Boyle. The

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regard which the great Newton had for Mr Boyle, appears from a very curious letter, which the former wrote to him, at the latter end of this year, for the ſake of laying before him his ſentiments of that etherial medium, which he afterwards conſidered in his Optics as the cauſe of gravitation. This letter is to be found in Dr Birch's life of Mr Boyle. In 1680 he publiſhed, 25. The aerial noctiluca; or ſome new phenomena, and a proceſs of a factitious ſelf-ſhining ſubſtance, 8vo. This year the royal ſociety, as a proof of the juſt ſenſe of his great worth, and of the conſtant and particular ſervices which through a courſe of many years he had done them, made choice of him for their preſident; but he being extremely tender in point of oaths, he declined the honour, by a letter addreſſed to "his much reſpected friend Mr Robert "Hooke, profeſſor of mathematics at Greſham "College" 26. Diſcourſe of things above reaſon; inquiring, whether a philoſopher ſhould admit any ſuch; 1681, 8vo. 27. New experiments and obſervations upon the icy noctiluca; to which is added a chemical paradox, grounded upon new experiments, making it probable that chemical principles are tranſmutable, ſo that out of one of them others may be produced, 1682, 8vo. 28. A continuation of new experiments, phyſicomechanical, touching the ſpring and weight of the air, and their effects, 1682, 8vo. In 1683, he publiſhed nothing but a ſhort letter to Dr Beale, in relation to the making of freſh water out of ſalt. In 1684 he publiſhed two very conſiderable works, viz. 29. Memoirs for the natural hiſtory of human blood, eſpecially the ſpirit of that liquor, 8vo; and, 30. Experiments and conſiderations about the porofity of bodies, &c. In 1685, Mr Boyle obliged the world with, 31. Short memoirs for the natural experimental hiſtory of mineral waters, with directions as to the ſeveral methods of trying them; including abundance of new and uſeful remarks, as well as ſeveral curious experiments. 32. An eſſay on the great effects of even languid and unheeded motion; whereunto is annexed an experimental diſcourſe of ſome hitherto little regarded cauſes of the ſalubrity and infalubrity of the air and its effects. None of his treatiſes, it is ſaid, were ever received with greater or more general applauſe than this. 33. Of the reconcileableneſs of ſpecific medicines to the corpuſcular philoſophy; to which is annexed a diſcourſe about the advantages of the uſe of ſimple medicines; 8vo. Beſides theſe philoſophical tracts, he gave the world the ſame year, an excellent theological one, 34. Of the high veneration man's intellect owes to God, peculiarly for his wiſdom and power, 8vo. In 1686, came abroad his, 35. Free inquiry into the vulgarly received notion of nature; a piece which was then, and will always be, greatly admired by thoſe who have a true zeal and reliſh for pure religion and philoſophy. In 1687, he publiſhed, 36. The martyrdom of Theodora and Didymia; a work he had drawn up in his youth. 37. A diſquiſition about the final cauſes of natural things; wherein it is inquired, whether, and (if at all) with what caution a naturaliſt ſhould admit them; with an appendix about vitiated light; 1688, 8vo. In May this year he complained to the public of ſome inconveniences under which he had long laboured; this he did by an advertiſement, about "the loſs of many of his writings addreſſed to J. W. to be communicated to thoſe of his friends that are virtuoſi; which may ſerve as a kind of preface to moſt of his mutilated and unfiniſhed writings." He complains in this advertiſement of the treatment he had met with from plagiaries both at home and abroad; and though it might have been difficult for any other man to have done ſo, without incurring the imputation of ſelf-conceit and vanity, yet Mr Boyle's manner is ſuch as only to raiſe in us a higher eſteem and veneration of him. This advertiſement is inſerted at length in his life by Birch. He began now to find that his health and ſtrength, notwithſtanding all his care and caution, gradually declined, which put him upon uſing every poſſible method of huſbanding his remaining time. With this view, he no longer communicated particular diſcourſes, or new diſcoveries, to the royal ſociety; becauſe this could not be done without withdrawing his thoughts from taſks which he thought of ſtill greater importance. The more ſteadily to attend to theſe, he reſigned his poſt of governor of the corporation for propagating the goſpel in New England; nay, he went ſo far as to ſignify to the world that he could no longer receive viſits as uſual, in an advertiſement, which begins in the following manner: "Mr Boyle finds himſelf obliged to intimate to thoſe of his friends and acquaintance, that are wont to do him the honour and favour of viſiting him, 1. That he has by ſome unlucky accidents, namely, by his ſervant's breaking a bottle of oil of vitriol over a cheſt which contained his papers, had many of his writings corroded here and there, or otherwiſe ſo maimed, that, without he himſelf fill up the lacunæ out of his memory or invention, they will not be intelligible. 2. That his age and ſickneſs have for a good while admoniſhed him to put his ſcattered and partly defaced writings into ſome kind of order, that they may not remain quite uſeleſs. And, 3. That his ſkilful and friendly phyſician, Sir Edmund King, ſeconded by Mr Boyle's beſt friends, has preſſingly adviſed him againſt ſpeaking daily with ſo many perſons as are wont to viſit him, repreſenting it as what cannot but waſte his ſpirits," &c. He ordered likewiſe a board to be placed over his door, with an inſcription ſignifying when he did, and when he did not, receive viſits. Among the other great works, which by this means he gained time to finiſh, there is reaſon to believe, that one was a collection of elaborate proceſſes in chemiſtry; concerning which he wrote to a friend, that "he left it as a kind of hermetic legacy to the ſtudious diſciples of that art." Beſides theſe papers he left many others relating to chemiſtry; which, by a letter to one of his executors, he deſired might be inſpected by 3 phyſicians whom he named, and that ſome of the moſt valuable might be preſerved. In the mean time, he publiſhed, 38. *Medicina Hydroſtatica*; or, Hydroſtatics applied to the materia medica, ſhowing how, by the weight that divers bodies uſed in phyſic have in water, one may diſcover whether they be genuine or adulterated. To which is ſubjoined a previous hydroſtatical way of eſtimating ores, 1690, 8vo. 39. The Chriſtian virtuo-

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ſo; ſhewing, that, by being addicted to experimental philoſophy, a man is rather aſſiſted than indiſpoſed to be a good Chriſtian. To which are ſubjoined, 1. A diſcourſe about the diſtinction that repreſents ſome things as above reaſon, but not contrary to reaſon. 2. The firſt chapters of a diſcourſe intitled *Greatneſs of mind promoted by Chriſtianity*. The laſt work which he publiſhed himſelf, was in the ſpring of 1691. and is intitled, 4o. *Experimenta et Obſervationes Phyſicæ*; wherein are briefly treated ſeveral ſubjects relating to natural philoſophy in an experimental way. To which is added a ſmall collection of ſtrange reports, 8vo. On the 18th of July, 1691, he ſigned and ſealed his laſt will. In October, his diſtempers increaſed; on the 31ſt Dec. 1691, he died aged 65. He was buried at Weſtminſter, on the 7th Jan. and his funeral ſermon was preached by Bp. Burnet. The biſhop made choice upon this occaſion of a text very appoſite to the ſubject; namely, "For God giveth to a man that is good in his ſight, wiſdom, knowledge, and joy. *Eccl.* xi. 26." After explaining the words, he applied the doctrine to the honourable perſon deceaſed; of whom, he tells us, he was the better able to give a character, from the many happy hours he had ſpent with him in the courſe of 29 years. He gives a large account of Mr Boyle's ſincere and unaffected piety; and more eſpecially of his zeal for the Chriſtian religion, without having any narrow notions concerning it, or miſtaking, as ſo many do, a bigotted heat in favour of a particular ſect, for that zeal which is an ornament of a true Chriſtian. He mentions, as a proof of this, his noble foundation for lectures in defence of the goſpel againſt infidels of all ſorts; the effects of which have been ſo conſpicuous in many volumes of excellent diſcourſes which have been publiſhed in conſequence of that pious foundation. He was at the charge of the tranſlation and impreſſion of the New Teſtament into the Malayan tongue, which he ſent over all the Eaſt Indies. He gave a noble reward to him that tranſlated Grotius's incomparable book "Of the truth of the Chriſtian religion," into Arabic; and was at the charge of a whole impreſſion, which he took care ſhould be diſperſed in all the countries where that language was underſtood. He was reſolved to have carried on the impreſſion of the New Teſtament in the Turkiſh language; but the company thought it became them to be the doers of it, and ſo ſuffered him only to give a large ſhare towards it. He ſpent 700l. on the edition of the Iriſh bible, which he ordered to be diſtributed in Ireland; and he contributed largely to the impreſſion of the Welſh bible. He gave, during his life, 300 l. to advance the propagation of the Chriſtian religion in America; and as ſoon as he heard that the Eaſt India company were entertaining propoſitions for the ſame deſign in the eaſt, he ſent 100l. for a beginning, as an example, but intended to carry it much farther when it ſhould be ſet on foot to purpoſe. In other reſpects his charities were ſo bountiful and extenſive, that they amounted to upwards of 1000 l. a-year. To this extract from the biſhop, we may add a ſhort eulogium by the celebrated Dr Herman Boerhaave; who, after having declared lord Bacon to be the father of experimental philoſophy, ſays, that "Mr Boyle, the ornament of his age and country, ſucceeded to the genius and inquiries of the great chancellor Verulam. Which of all Mr Boyle's writings ſhall I recommend? All of them. To him we owe the ſecrets of fire, air, water, animals, vegetables, foſſils: ſo that from his works may be deduced the whole ſyſtem of natural knowledge." It is worth remarking, that Mr Boyle was born the ſame year in which lord Bacon died. As to his perſon, he was tall, but ſlender; and his countenance pale and emaciated. His conſtitution was ſo delicate, that he had different cloaks to put on when he went abroad, according to the temperature of the air; and in this he governed himſelf by his thermometer. He eſcaped indeed the ſmall-pox; but for almoſt 40 years he laboured under ſuch feebleneſs of body, and ſuch lowneſs of ſtrength and ſpirits, that it was aſtoniſhing how he could read, meditate, make experiments, and write, as he did. He had likewiſe a weakneſs in his eyes, which made him very tender of them, and extremely apprehenſive of ſuch diſtempers as might affect them. He imagined likewiſe, that if ſickneſs ſhould confine him to his bed, it might raiſe the pains of the ſtone to a degree which might be above his ſtrength to ſupport; ſo that he feared his laſt minutes ſhould be too hard for him. This was the ground of all the caution and apprehenſion with which he was obſerved to live; but as to life itſelf, he had that juſt indifference for it which becomes a philoſopher, and a Chriſtian. However, his ſight began to grow dim not above 4 hours before he died; and when death came upon him, he had not been above 3 hours in bed before it made an end of him, with ſo little pain that the flame appeared to go out merely for want of oil to maintain it. Mr Boyle was never married; but Mr Evelyn was aſſured, that he courted the beautiful and ingenious daughter of Cary earl of Monmouth, and that to this paſſion was owing his *Seraphic Love*. In the memorandum of Mr Boyle's life ſet down by Bp. Burnet, it is remarked that he abſtained from marriage, at firſt out of policy, afterwards more philoſophically. His poſthumous works are, 1. "The general Hiſtory of the air deſigned and begun." 2. "General heads for the natural hiſtory of a country, great or ſmall; drawn out for the uſe of travellers and navigators." 3. "A paper of the honourable Robert Boyle's, depoſited with the ſecretaries of the Royal Society, Oct. 14th, 1680, and opened ſince his death; being an account of his making the phoſphorus, Sept. 30th, 1680." Printed in the Philoſophical Tranſactions. 4. "An account of a way of examining waters, as to freſhneſs or ſaltneſs." 5. "A free diſcourſe againſt cuſtomary ſwearing, and a diſſuaſive for curſing," 1695, 8vo. 6. "Medicinal experiments, or a collection of choice remedies, chiefly ſimple and eaſily prepared, uſeful in families, and fit for the ſervice of the country people. The 3d and laſt volume, publiſhed from the author's original MS. whereunto is added ſeveral uſeful notes explicatory of the ſame," 1698, 12mo. Beautiful editions of all his works have been printed at London in 5 vols folio, and 6 vols 4to.

(6.) BOYLE, Roger, earl of Orrery, the 5th ſon of

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of earl Richard, (N° 4.) was born in 1621; and by the credit of his father with the lord deputy Faulkland, raiſed to the dignity of *baron Broghill*, when only 7 years old. He was educated at the college of Dublin, where he ſoon diſtinguiſhed himſelf as a promiſing genius. He afterwards made the tour of France and Italy; and at his return aſſiſted his father in oppoſing the rebellious Iriſh; in which he behaved with all the ſpirit of a young, and all the diſcretion of an old, officer. Upon the death of the king, he retired to Marſton, in Somerſetſhire, and hid himſelf; but being at length aſhamed to ſit the tame ſpectator of all the miſchief that appeared round him, he reſolved to attempt ſomething in favour of the king; and under the pretence of going to Spa for his health, he determined to croſs the ſeas, and apply to king Charles II. for a commiſſion to raiſe what forces he could in Ireland, in order to reſtore his majeſty, and recover his own eſtate. To this purpoſe, he prevailed on the earl of Warwick to procure a licence for his going to the Spa; and having raiſed a conſiderable ſum of money, came up to London to proſecute his voyage: but he had not been long in town when he received a meſſage from Cromwell, who was then general of the parliament's forces, that he intended to wait upon him. Lord Broghill was ſurpriſed at this meſſage, having never had the leaſt acquaintance with Cromwell; and deſired the gentleman to let the general know, that he would wait upon his excellency. But while he was waiting the return of the meſſenger, Cromwell entered the room; and after mutual civilities, told him, that the committee of the ſtate were apprized of his deſign of applying to Charles Stuart for a commiſſion to raiſe forces in Ireland; and that they were determined to make an example of him, if he himſelf had not diverted them from that reſolution. Lord Broghill aſſured him, that the intelligence which the committee had received was falſe, and that he neither was in a capacity, nor had any inclination to raiſe diſturbances in Ireland: but Cromwell, inſtead of making any reply, drew out of his pocket copies of ſeveral letters, which lord Broghill had ſent to thoſe in whom he moſt confided, and put them into his hands. Broghill, upon the peruſal of theſe papers, finding it to no purpoſe to diſſemble, aſked his excellency's pardon for what he had ſaid, returned him thanks for his protection againſt the committee, and intreated his direction how to behave in ſuch a delicate conjuncture. Cromwell told him, that though till this time he had been a ſtranger to his perſon, he was not ſo to his merit and character: he had heard how gallantly his lordſhip had behaved in the Iriſh wars; and therefore, ſince he was named *lord lieutenant of Ireland*, and the reducing that kingdom was now become his province, he had obtained leave of the committee to offer his lordſhip the command of a general officer, if he would ſerve in the war; and he ſhould have no oaths or engagements impoſed upon him, nor be obliged to draw his ſword againſt any but the Iriſh rebels. Broghill was infinitely ſurpriſed at ſo generous and unexpected an offer. He ſaw himſelf at liberty, by all the rules of honour, to ſerve againſt the Iriſh, whoſe rebellion and barbarities were equally deteſted by the royal party and the parliament. He deſired, however, ſome time to conſider of what had been propoſed to him. But Cromwell briſkly told him, that he muſt come to ſome reſolution that very inſtant: that he himſelf was returning to the committee who were ſtill ſitting; and if his lordſhip rejected their offer, they had determined to ſend him to the tower. Upon this, lord Broghill, finding that his liberty and life were in the utmoſt danger, gave his word and honour that he would faithfully ſerve him againſt the Iriſh rebels; on which Cromwell once more aſſured him, that the conditions which he had made with him would be punctually obſerved; and then ordered him to repair to Briſtol, adding, that he himſelf would ſoon follow him into Ireland. Lord Broghill, therefore, went over into that country; where, by his conduct and intrepidity, he performed many important ſervices, and fully juſtified the opinion Cromwell had conceived of him. By his own intereſt he now raiſed a gallant troop of horſe, conſiſting chiefly of gentlemen attached to him by perſonal friendſhip; which corps was ſoon increaſed to a complete regiment of 1500 men. Theſe he led into the field againſt the Iriſh rebels; and was ſpeedily joined by Cromwell, who placed the higheſt confidence in his new ally, and found him of the greateſt conſequence to the intereſt of the commonwealth. Among other conſiderable exploits performed by Lord Broghill, the following deſerves to be particularly mentioned. Whilſt Cromwell laid ſiege to Clonwell, Broghill being detached to diſperſe a body of 5000 men who had aſſembled to relieve the place, he, with 2000 horſe and dragoons, came up with the enemy at Maecrooms on the 10th of May 1650; and without waiting for the arrival of his foot, immediately attacked, and routed them, making their general priſoner. Then proceeding to the caſtle of Carrigdroghid, he ſent a ſummons to the garriſon to ſurrender before the arrival of his battering cannon, otherwiſe they were to expect no quarter. His own army was ſurpriſed at this ſummons, knowing he had not one piece of heavy cannon; but Broghill had ordered the trunks of ſeveral large trees to be drawn at a diſtance by his baggage horſes; which the beſieged perceiving, and judging from the ſlowneſs of the motion that the guns muſt be of a vaſt bore, immediately capitulated. He afterwards relieved Cromwell himſelf at Clonwell, where that great commander happened to be ſo dangerouſly ſituated, that he confeſſed, nothing but the ſeaſonable relief afforded him by lord Broghill could have ſaved him from deſtruction. When Ireton ſat down before Limeric, he gave Broghill 600 foot and 400 horſe, with orders to prevent lord Muſkerry's joining the pope's nuncio, who had got together a body of 8000 men, and was determined to attempt the relief of Limeric. Muſkerry was at the head of 1000 horſe and dragoons, and about 2000 foot: notwithſtanding which lord Broghill fell reſolutely upon him. The Iriſh, having the advantage of the ground and numbers, would have conquered, but for a ſtratagem of lord Broghill. In the heat of the action he deſired thoſe about him to repeat what he ſaid; and then cried out as loud as he could, "They run, they run." The firſt line

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of the Iriſh looked round to ſee if their rear was broke; and the rear ſeeing the faces of their friends, and hearing the ſhouts of the enemy, imagined that the firſt line was routed, and fled. The taking of Limeric, which put an end to the war in Ireland, was the conſequence of this defeat. When Cromwell became protector, he ſent for lord Broghill, merely to take his advice occaſionally. And we are told, that, not long after his coming to England, he formed a project for engaging Cromwell to reſtore the old conſtitution. The baſis of the ſcheme was to be a match between the king (Charles II.) and the protector's daughter. As his lordſhip maintained a ſecret correſpondence with the exiled monarch and his friends, it was imagined that he was beforehand pretty ſure that Charles was not averſe to the ſcheme, or he would not have ventured to have propoſed it ſeriouſly to Cromwell; who at firſt ſeemed to think it not unfeaſible. He ſoon changed his mind, however, and told Broghill that he thought his project impracticable: "For (ſaid he) Charles can never forgive me the death of his father." In fine, the buſineſs came to nothing, although his lordſhip had engaged Cromwell's wife and daughter in the ſcheme; but he never durſt let the protector know that he had previouſly treated with Charles about it. On the death of the protector, lord Broghill continued attached to his ſon Richard, till he ſaw that the honeſty and good nature of that worthy man would infallibly render him a prey to his many enemies; and he did not think it adviſeable to ſink with a man whom he could not ſave. The dark clouds of anarchy ſeemed now to be hovering over the Britiſh iſland. Lord Broghill ſaw the ſtorm gathering, and he deemed it prudent to retire to his command in Ireland, where he ſhortly after had the ſatisfaction of ſeeing things take a turn extremely favourable to the deſign he had long been a well-wiſher to, viz. that of the king's reſtoration. In this great event lord Broghill was not a little inſtrumental; and, in conſideration of his eminent ſervices in this reſpect, Charles created him Earl of Orrery by letters patent bearing date September 5, 1660. He was ſoon after made one of the lords juſtices of Ireland; and his conduct, while at the head of affairs in that kingdom, was ſuch as greatly added to the general eſteem in which his character was held before. His lordſhip's active life at length brought upon him ſome diſeaſes and infirmities which gave him much pain and uneaſineſs; and a fever which fell into his feet, joined to the gout with which he was often afflicted, abated much of that vigour which he had ſhown in the early part of his life: but his induſtry and application were ſtill the ſame, and bent to the ſame purpoſes; as appears from his letters, which ſhow at once a capacity, and an attention to buſineſs, which do honour to that age. Notwithſtanding his infirmities, on the king's deſiring to ſee him in England, he went over in 1665. He found the court in ſome diſorder, the king being on the point of removing the great earl Clarendon, lord high chancellor; and there being alſo a great miſunderſtanding between the two royal brothers. Lord Orrery reconciled the king with the duke of York, by prevailing on the latter to aſk his majeſty's pardon for ſome ſteps he had taken in ſupport of the lord chancellor. On his return to Ireland, he found himſelf called to a new ſcene of action. The Dutch war was then at its height; and the French, in confederacy with the Hollanders, were endeavouring to ſtir up rebellion in Ireland. The duke de Beaufort had formed a ſcheme for a deſcent upon Ireland; but this was rendered abortive by the extraordinary diligence, military ſkill, and prudent meaſures, of lord Orrery. But in the midſt of all his labours, a diſpute aroſe, founded on a mutual jealouſy of each other's greatneſs, betwixt him and his old friend the duke of Ormond, then lord lieutenant; the bad effects of which were ſoon felt by both diſputants, who reſorted to England to defend their reſpective intereſts and pretenſions, both having been attacked by ſecret enemies who ſuggeſted many things to their prejudice. This quarrel, though of a private beginning, became at laſt of a public nature; and producing firſt an attempt to frame an impeachment againſt the duke of Ormond, occaſioned in the end, by way of revenge, an actual impeachment againſt the earl of Orrery. He defended himſelf, however, ſo well againſt a charge of high crimes, and even of treaſon itſelf, that the proſecution came to nothing. He nevertheleſs loſt his public employments; but not the king's favour: he ſtill came frequently to court, and ſometimes to council. After this he made ſeveral voyages to and from Ireland; was often conſulted by the king on affairs of the utmoſt conſequence; and on all occaſions gave his opinion and advice with the freedom of an honeſt plain-dealing man and a ſincere friend; which the king always found him, and reſpected him accordingly. In 1678, being attacked more cruelly than ever by his old enemy the gout, he gave the ſtrongeſt proofs of Chriſtian patience, manly courage, and rational fortitude, and breathed his laſt on the 16th Oct. 1679, in the 59th year of his age. He wrote, 1. A work intitled *The Art of War*. 2. Partheniſſa, a romance, in one volume folio. 3. Several Poems. 4. Dramatic pieces, in two volumes. 5. State tracts, in one volume folio, &c. Mr Walpole, ſpeaking of this nobleman, ſays, he never made a bad figure but as a poet. As a ſoldier, his bravery was diſtinguiſhed, his ſtratagems remarkable. As a ſtateſman it is ſufficient to ſay, that he had the confidence of Cromwell. As a man he was grateful, and would have ſupported the ſon of his friend: but like Cicero and Richelieu, he could not be content without being a poet; though he was ill qualified, his writings of that kind being flat and trivial.

(7.) BOYLE. See ABBEY-BOYLE.

BOYLE'S LECTURES, a courſe of 8 ſermons or lectures preached annually, ſet on foot by the hon. R. BOYLE (N° 5.) by a codicil annexed to his will in 1691; whoſe deſign, as expreſſed by the inſtitutor, is, to prove the truth of the Chriſtian religion againſt infidels, whithout deſcending to any controverſies among Chriſtians; and to anſwer new difficulties, ſcruples, &c. For the ſupport of this lecture he aſſigned the rent of his houſe in Crooked Lane to ſome learned divine within the bills of mortality, to be elected for a term not exceeding 3 years, by the late Abp. Tenniſon and others,

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others. But the fund proving precarious, the ſalary was ill paid; to remedy which inconveniences, the archbiſhop procured a yearly ſtipend of 50 l. for ever, to be paid quarterly, charged on a farm in the pariſh of Brill in the county of Bucks. To this appointment we are indebted for many defences of natural and revealed religion.

BOYLSTON, a village 10 m. SW. of Derby.

BOYN, a river of Scotland, in Banffſhire.

BOYNDIE, a pariſh of Scotland, in Banffſhire.

BOYNDLIE, a diſtrict in Aberdeenſhire.

BOYNE, a river in Ireland, which riſes in Queen's county, and runs NE. by Trim and Cavan, falling at laſt into the Iriſh channel a little below Drogheda. It is memorable for a battle fought on its banks between James II. and William III. in which the former was defeated.

BOYNTON, a village in Yorkſhire, near Bridlington.

BOYOLO, a town of Italy, in Mantua.

(1.) BOYS, } or Bois, John, one of the tranſ-
BOYSE, } lators of the Bible in the reign of James I. was the ſon of William Bois, rector of Weſt Stowe, and born at Nettleſtead in Suffolk, in 1560. He was taught the rudiments of learning by his father; and his capacity was ſuch, that at 5 years of age he read the Bible in Hebrew.—At 14 he was admitted of St John's college, Cambridge, where he diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his ſkill in Greek. Happening to have the ſmall-pox when he was elected fellow, he, to preſerve his ſeniority, cauſed himſelf to be carried in blankets to be admitted. He for ſome time ſtudied medicine; but, fancying himſelf affected with every diſeaſe he read of, he quitted that ſcience. He was ten years chief Greek lecturer in his college, and read every day. He voluntarily read a Greek lecture for ſome years at 4 in the morning, in his own chamber, which was frequented by many of the fellows. On the death of his father, he ſucceeded him in the rectory. At the age of 36, he married the daughter of Mr Holt, rector of Boxworth, whom he ſucceeded in that living Oct. 13, 1596. On his quitting the univerſity, the college gave him L. 100. His young wife proved a bad economiſt, and he himſelf being wholly addicted to his ſtudies, he ſoon became ſo much involved in debt, that he was obliged to ſell his choice collection of books, conſiſting of almoſt every Greek author then extant. When a new tranſlation of the Bible was by K. James I. directed to be made, Mr Bois was elected one of the Cambridge tranſlators. He performed not only his own, but alſo the part aſſigned to another, with great reputation; though with no profit, for he had no allowance but his commons. He was alſo one of the ſix who met at Stationers Hall to reviſe the whole; which taſk they went through in 9 months, having each from the company of ſtationers, during that time, 30s. a-week. He afterwards aſſiſted Sir Henry Saville in publiſhing the works of St Chryſoſtom. In 1615, Dr Lancelot Andrews, Bp. of Ely, beſtowed on him, unaſked, a prebend in his church. He died 14th Jan. 1643, aged 84. He left many MSS. particularly a commentary on almoſt all the books of the New Teſtament.—When he was a young ſtudent at Cambridge, he received from the learned Dr Whitaker three rules for avoiding thoſe diſtempers which uſually attend a ſedentary life, to which he adhered with equal conſtancy and ſucceſs. The firſt was, To ſtudy always ſtanding; the ſecond, Never to ſtudy in a window; and the third, Never to go to bed with his feet cold.

(2.) BOYSE, Joſeph, a late eminent diſſenting miniſter in Dublin, much reſpected not only for learning and abilities, but for extenſive humanity and undiſſembled piety. During his miniſterial charge at Dublin, he publiſhed many ſermons, which compoſe ſeveral folio volumes, a few poems, and other tracts; but what chiefly diſtinguiſhed him as a writer, was the controverſy he carried on with Dr King, archbiſhop of Dublin, and author of the *Origin of Evil*, concerning the office of a ſcriptural biſhop. This controverted point was managed on both ſides with great force of argument and calmneſs of temper. The biſhop aſſerted, that the epiſcopal right of juriſdiction had its foundation in the New Teſtament; Mr Boyſe, conſiſtent with his principles, denied that any eccleſiaſtical ſuperiority appeared there, with the greateſt candour and good manners.

(3.) BOYSE, Samuel, the ſon of Joſeph, (N° 2.) was a man remarkable for the fineneſs of his genius, the lowneſs of his manners, and the wretchedneſs of his life. He was born in 1708, and received the rudiments of his education in Dublin. When he was 18 years old, his father ſent him to the univerſity of Glaſgow, to finiſh his education. He had not been a year at the univerſity, when he fell in love with a daughter of a tradeſman of that city, and interrupted his education by marrying her before he had entered his 20th year. His extravagance ſoon expoſed him to want; and obliged him to quit the univerſity, and go over with his wife and her ſiſter to Dublin, where they relied on the old gentleman for ſupport. Young Boyſe had no graces of perſon, and fewer ſtill of converſation. Never were three people of more libertine characters, than young Boyſe, his wife, and ſiſter-in law; yet the two ladies wore ſuch a maſk of decency before the old gentleman, that his fondneſs never abated. The eſtate his father poſſeſſed in Yorkſhire was ſold to diſcharge his debts; and when the old man lay in his laſt ſickneſs, he was entirely ſupported by preſents from the congregation, and buried at their expence. We have no farther account of Mr Boyſe till we find him ſoon after his father's death at Edinburgh, where his poetical genius raiſed him many friends, and ſome patrons of eminence. He publiſhed a volume of poems in 1731, to which he ſubjoined *The Tablature of Cebes*, and *A Letter upon Liberty*, inſerted in the *Dublin Journal*, 1726; and by theſe he obtained a very great reputation. They were addreſſed to the counteſs of Eglinton. This amiable lady was the patroneſs of all men of wit, and greatly diſtinguiſhed Mr Boyſe while he remained in Scotland. Upon the death of the viſcounteſs Stormont, Mr Boyſe wrote an elegy, which was very much applauded by her ladyſhip's relations. This elegy he intitled *The Tears of the Muſes*, as the deceaſed lady was a woman of the moſt refined taſte, and a great admirer of poetry.—Lord Stormont was ſo much pleaſed with this mark of eſteem paid to the memory of his

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lady, that he ordered a very handſome preſent to be given to Mr Boyſe by his attorney at Edinburgh. The notice which lady Eglinton and lord Stormont took of him, recommended him likewiſe to the ducheſs of Gordon; who was ſo ſolicitous to raiſe him above neceſſity, that ſhe employed her intereſt in procuring the promiſe of a place for him. She gave him a letter, which he was next day to deliver to one of the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms at Edinburgh. It happened that he was then ſome miles diſtant from the city; and the morning on which he was to have rode to town with her grace's letter of recommendation proved to be rainy. This ſlender circumſtance was enough to diſcourage Boyſe, who never looked beyond the preſent moment: he delayed going to town on account of the rainy weather; and while he let ſlip the opportunity, the place was beſtowed upon another, after the commiſſioner had kept it for ſome time vacant, in expectation of ſeeing a perſon recommended by the ducheſs. Boyſe at laſt, having defeated all the kind intentions of his patrons, fell into contempt and poverty, which obliged him to quit Edinburgh. He communicated his deſign of going to London to the ducheſs of Gordon, who having ſtill a very high opinion of his poetical abilities, gave him a letter of recommendation to Mr Pope, and obtained another for him to Sir Peter King the lord chancellor of England. Lord Stormont recommended him to the ſolicitor-general his brother, and to many other perſons of the firſt faſhion. Upon receiving theſe letters, he, with great caution, quitted Edinburgh, regretted by none but his creditors. Upon his arrival in London, he went to Twickenham, to deliver the ducheſs of Gordon's letter to Mr Pope; but that gentleman not being at home, Mr Boyſe never gave himſelf the trouble to repeat his viſit. He wrote poems; but thoſe, though excellent in their kind, were loſt to the world, by being introduced with no advantage. He had ſo ſtrong a propenſity to grovelling, that his acquaintance were generally of ſuch a caſt as could be of no ſervice to him; and thoſe in a higher life he addreſſed by letters, not having ſufficient confidence or politeneſs to converſe familiarly with them. Thus unfit to ſupport himſelf in the world, he was expoſed to various diſtreſſes, from which he could invent no means of extricating himſelf but by writing mendicant letters. It will appear amazing, that a man of ſo abject a ſpirit was voluptuous and luxurious; he had no taſte for any thing elegant, and yet was to the laſt degree expenſive. Often when he had received a guinea in conſequence of a ſupplicating letter, he would go into a tavern, order a ſupper to be prepared, drink of the richeſt wines, and ſpend all the money that had juſt been given him in charity, without having any one to participate the regale with him, and while his wife and child were ſtarving at home! About 1740, Mr Boyſe, reduced to the laſt extremity of human wretchedneſs, had not a ſhirt, a coat, or any kind of apparel, to put on; the ſheets in which he lay were carried to the pawn-brokers, and he was obliged to be confined to his bed with no other covering than a blanket. He had little ſupport but what he got by writing letters to his friends in the moſt abject ſtyle; but was perhaps aſhamed to let this inſtance of his diſtreſs be known, which probably was the occaſion of his remaining ſix weeks in that ſituation. During this time he had ſome employment in writing verſes for the magazines; and whoever had ſeen him in his ſtudy, muſt have thought the object ſingular enough; he ſat up in bed with the blanket wrapt about him, through which he cut a hole large enough to admit his arm, and placing the paper upon his knee, ſcribbled in the beſt manner he could the verſes he was obliged to make: whatever he got by theſe, or any other of his begging letters, was but juſt ſufficient for the preſervation of life. And perhaps he would have remained much longer in this diſtreſsful ſtate, had not a compaſſionate gentleman, upon hearing this circumſtance related, ordered his clothes to be taken out of pawn, and enabled him to appear again abroad. About the year 1745, Mr Boyſe's wife died, and he pretended much concern when he heard of her death. He was then at Reading, compiling a Review of the moſt material tranſactions at home and abroad during the war; in which he included a ſhort account of the rebellion. Upon his return from Reading, his behaviour was more decent than it had ever been before; and there were ſome hopes that a reformation, though late, would be wrought upon him. He was employed by a bookſeller to tranſlate *Fenelon on the Exiſtence of God*; during which time he married a ſecond wife, a woman in low circumſtances, but well enough adapted to his taſte. He began now to live with more regard to his character, and ſupported a better appearance than uſual; but while his circumſtances were mending, and his irregular appetites loſing ground, his health declined. He had the ſatisfaction, while in this lingering illneſs, to obſerve a poem of his, intitled *The Deity*, recommended by two eminent writers, the ingenious Mr Fielding, and the Rev. Mr Harvey, author of the *Meditations*. Mr Boyſe's mind was often ridiculouſly expoſed; and he probably ſuffered much from remorſe of conſcience. The early impreſſions of his good education were never entirely obliterated; and his whole life was a continued ſtruggle between his will and his reaſon. It was in conſequence of this war in his mind, that he wrote a beautiful poem called *The Recantation*. In May 1747, he died in obſcure lodgings in Shoe-lane; but in ſentiments very different from thoſe in which he had ſpent the greateſt part of his life. An old acquaintance of his endeavoured to collect money to defray the expences of his funeral, ſo that the ſcandal of being buried by the pariſh might be avoided: but in vain; the remains of this ſon of the muſes were, with very little ceremony, hurried away by the pariſh officers. Never was a life ſpent with leſs grace, and never were diſtinguiſhed abilities given to leſs purpoſe. His genius was not confined to poetry only. He had a taſte for painting, muſic, and heraldry. His poetical pieces, if collected, would make ſix moderate volumes. Many of them are ſcattered in *The Gentleman's Magazine* marked with the letter *Y*, and *Alceus*. Two volumes were publiſhed in London. An ode, in the manner of Spenſer, intitled *The Olive*, was addreſſed to Sir Robert Walpole, which procured him

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him a preſent of 10 guineas. He tranſlated a poem from the High Dutch of Van Haren, in praiſe of peace, upon the concluſion of that made at Aix-la-Chapelle; but the poem which procured him the greateſt reputation was that upon the attributes of the Deity. He was employed by Mr Ogle to tranſlate ſome of Chaucer's tales into modern Engliſh, which he performed with great ſpirit, and received at the rate of three pence a line for his trouble. Mr Ogle publiſhed a complete edition of that old poet's *Canterbury Tales modernized*; and Mr Boyſe's name is put to ſuch tales as were done by him. In 1743, Mr Boyſe publiſhed, without his name, an ode on the battle of Dettingen, intitled *Albion's Triumph*.

BOYSTLY, *adv. obſ.* Rudely; roughly. *Chauc.*

BOYTHORP, a village in Yorkſhire, NE. of Butterwick.

BOYTON, the name of 2 Engliſh villages, viz. 1. in Cornwall, near Tamerton: 2. in Norfolk, NE. of Blowfield: 3. in Suffolk, E. of Woodbridge: and, 4. in Wiltſhire, 6 m. N. of Hindon.

BOYUNA, in zoology, the name of an American ſpecies of ſerpent. It is very long and ſlender, and all over of a black colour. It has exactly the ſmell of a fox, but ſo ſtrong that nobody can endure to be near it. *Ray.*

BOZEZ, a rock in Judæa.

BOZIET, a village in Northamptonſhire, near Oulney.

BOZOLA. See BOZZOLO.

(1.) BORRAH, BEZER, or *Boſtra*, a city of Judæa, ſeated on a plain, about the SE. border of the land of Reuben, near the ſource of the Arnon. It was a city of refuge, (Joſh. xx. 8.) and was taken by the Moabites, during the declenſion of the kingdom of Iſrael. It was afterwards ravaged by the Chaldeans. It was rebuilt however, and a Chriſtian church early planted in it, which continued till the Arabians took it under Mahomet's ſucceſſors. The emperor Trajan favoured it, and called it PHILIPPOPOLIS.

(2.) BOZRAH, the capital of Edom, ſituated about 150 m. from the former, (N° 1.) It was very ancient, and was the birth place of Jobab, king of Edom. It was ravaged by the Aſſyrians; afterwards by the Chaldeans, and at laſt by Judas Maccabæus. It is mentioned in that remarkable prophecy, in Iſa. lxiii. 1. Not a veſtige of it now remains.

(1.) BOZZOLO, or BOZOLA, a territory of Mantua, which was ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria, till Feb. 1797, when Mantua was taken by the French republican army.

(2.) BOZZOLO, the capital of the above territory, 12 miles SW. of Mantua. Lon. 11. 5. E. Lat. 45. 42. N.

* BP. An abbreviation of biſhop.

B QUADRO, QUADRATO, or *Durale*, in muſic, called by the French, *b quarre*, from its ſquare figure, See Plate XLVI. fig. 3. This is what we call B *natural* or *ſharp*, in diſtinction to B *mol* or *flat*. See FLAT and SHARP. If the flat, fig. 4. be placed before a note in the thorough baſs, it intimates, that its third is to be minor; and if placed with any cypher over a note in the baſs, fig. 5 or 6, it denotes, that the fifth or ſixth thereof are to be flat. But if the quadro be placed over any note, or with a cypher, in the thorough baſs, it has the contrary effect: for thereby the note or interval thereto is raiſed to its natural order.

BRAABIN, a hill in Caithneſs.

BRAAN, or BRAN, a river of Scotland, in Perthſhire, which falls into the Tay, a little above Dunkeld.

BRAB. See BOMBAY, § 12.

BRABANCIONES, in writers of the middle age, a kind of Netherland ſoldiery, infamous for rapine, being little better than commiſſioned banditti, who hired themſelves to fight for any that could pay them beſt. The word is written in various forms by the hiſtorians of thoſe days; but all derived from Brabant, which was the chief nurſery of theſe troops. They are alſo frequently confounded with the *Routiers*, *Raturiers*, *Ruptarii*, *Ruterarii*, *Corteraux*, *&c.*

BRABANT, a large ci-devant province of the Netherlands, now incorporated with the French republic, and conſtituting, (we ſuppoſe,) the new department of DYLE; BRUSSELS being the capital of that department, as it was formerly of the province. The greateſt part of it was ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria: the remainder, of which BREDA is the capital, belonging to the Dutch. It was bounded on the W. by Flanders and Zealand; on the N. by Holland; on the NE. by Guelderland; on the E. by Liege; on the S. by Namur; and on the SW. by Hainault. It contains 26 fortified towns, and the country is very fertile. Its principal rivers are the Scheldt, the Dommel, and the Lys.

* BRABBLE. *n. ſ.* [*brabbelen*, Dutch.] A clamorous conteſt; a ſquabble; a broil.—

Here in the ſtreets, deſperate in ſhame and ſtate,
In private *brabble* did we apprehend him.
Shakeſpeare.

* *To* BRABBLE. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To clamour; to conteſt noiſily.

* BRABBLER. *n. ſ.* [from *brabble*.] A clamorous, quarrelſome, noiſy fellow.

BRABE, an herb mentioned by Oribaſius, which grows a cubit high, ſhooting forth branches on each ſide, with leaves reſembling thoſe of the LEPIDIUM, but ſofter and whiter, and at the top bearing an umbel of flowers like the elder.

BRABEJUM, the AFRICAN ALMOND: a genus of the monœcia order, belonging to the polygamia claſs of plants. In the male, the corolla is four-parted: there are 4 ſtamina inverted in the throat; the ſtyle is bifid and abortive: The female has a four-parted corolla, revoluted upwards, with 4 ſtamina, one piſtil with two ſtigmas; the fruit is a roundiſh drupa with a globular ſeed. Of this genus there is but one ſpecies, viz.

BRABEJUM STELLATIFOLIUM, the ſtar-leafed African almond, a native of the Cape of Good Hope. In Europe it ſeldom grows above 8 or 9 feet high, but in its native ſoil is a tree of a middling growth. It riſes with an upright ſtem, which is ſoft, and full of pitch within, and covered with brown bark. The leaves come out all round the branches at each joint: they are indented at their edges, ſtanding on very ſhort foot-ſtalks. The flowers are produced towards the end of their ſhoots,

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roots; which are of a pale colour inclining to white. They may be propagated, though with difficulty, by layers made in April: but they are often two years before they produce roots ſtrong enough to be taken from the plants. When the branches are laid down, it is proper to ſlit them at the point, to promote their taking root. In winter they ſhould have a good greenhouſe; but in ſummer they ſhould be placed abroad in a ſheltered ſituation.

BRABEUTÆ, or BRABEUTES, [from βραβευω, a prize,] in antiquity, officers among the Greeks, who preſided at the public games, and decided controverſies that happened among the antagoniſts in the gymniſtical exerciſes. The number of Brabeutæ was not fixed; ſometimes there were only one, but more commonly they amounted to nine or ten. Some authors confound them with the Agonothetæ, but they were different. See AGONOTHETA.

BRABORN, a town in Kent, 5 miles E. of Aſhborn.

BRABROOKE, a village in Northamptonſhire, between Kettering and Harborough.

BRABSTER, a diſtrict of Caithneſs, in which there are the ruins of an ancient chapel.

BRABY, a village in Yorkſhire, between New Malton, and Kirby-Moorſide.

BRACADALE, a pariſh of Scotland, on the coaſt of Inverneſs, extending about 26 miles in length, and from 6 to 10 in breadth. The ſurface is hilly; the climate healthy, though moiſt, and the ſoil pretty fertile, but fitter for paſturage than agriculture. It produces oats, barley, potatoes, and much natural graſs; upon which black cattle, ſheep, and horſes are fed. The breed of theſe laſt are ſmall. The population in 1791, by the rev. Mr Roderick M'Leod's report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 2250, and had increaſed 343, ſince 1755, notwithſtanding repeated emigrations. Four harbours and as many iſlands belong to the pariſh.

BRACCÆ, [Lat.] The ancient Highland *truiſh* or trouſers. Hence ſome derive the Engliſh word, *breeches*.

(1.) BRACCIANO, a lake of Italy, 12 miles N. of Rome.

(2.) BRACCIANO, a town in the pope's dominions, ſeated on the W. ſide of the lake, N° 1. Lon. 13. 4. Lat. 42. 6.

BRACCIOLINI, Francis, an Italian poet, a native of Poſtoia, and the friend of Pope Urban VIII. He wrote 1. an epic poem, intitled, The croſs reconquered, under the emperor Heraclius. 2. The mockery of the Pagan gods: a heroic poem. 3. The election of Pope Urban VIII. in 23 books. He died about 1644, aged 80.

BRACCO, in old records, a large hound.

(1.) * BRACE. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. Cincture; bandage. 2. That which holds any thing tight.—The little bones of the ear-drum do in ſtraining and relaxing it, as the *braces* of the war-drum do in that. *Derham.* 3. BRACE. [In architecture.] Is a piece of timber framed in with bevil joints, uſed to keep the building from ſwerving either way. *Builder's Dict.* 4. BRACES, [a ſea term.] Ropes belonging to the yards, except the mizen. They have a pendant to the yard-arm, two *braces* to each yard; and, at the end of the pendant, a block is ſeized, through which the rope called the *brace* is reeved. The *braces* ſerve to ſquare and traverſe the yards. *Sea Dict.* 5. BRACES *of a Coach.* Thick ſtraps of leather on which it hangs. 6. Harneſs. 7. BRACE. [in printing.] A crooked line incloſing a paſſage, which ought to be taken together, and not ſeparately; as in a triplet.—

Charge Venus to command her ſon,
Where ever elſe ſhe lets him rove,
To ſhun my houſe, and field and grove;
Peace cannot dwell with hate or love.
Prior.

8. Warlike preparations; from *bracing* the armour; as we ſay, *girded* for the battle.—

As it more concerns the Turk than Rhodes,
So may he with more facile queſtion bear it;
For that it ſtands not in ſuch warlike *brace*,
But altogether lacks th' abilities
That Rhodes is dreſs'd in. *Shakeſpeare.*

9. Tenſion; tightneſs.—The moſt frequent cauſe of deafneſs is the laxneſs of the tympanum, when it has loſt its *brace* or tenſion. *Holder.*

(2.) * BRACE. *n. ſ.* [of uncertain etymology, probably derived from *two braced* together.] 1. A pair; a couple. It is not *braces*, but *brace*, in the *plural*.—

Down from a hill, the beaſts that reign in woods,
Firſt hunter then, purſu'd a gentle *brace*,
Godlieſt of all the foreſt, hart and hind.
Paradiſe Loſt.

Ten *brace* and more of greyhounds, ſnowy fair,
And tall as ſtags, ran looſe and cours'd around his chair. *Dryden's Fables.*

2. It is generally uſed in converſation as a ſportſman's word.—He is ſaid, this ſummer, to have ſhot with his own hands fifty *brace* of pheaſants. *Addiſon.* 3. It is applied to men in contempt.—

But you, *brace* of lords, were I ſo minded,
I here could pluck his highneſs' frown upon you. *Shakeſpeare.*

(3.) BRACE, in architecture. (See § 1. *def.* 3.) When the brace is framed into the kingleſſes or principal rafters, it is by ſome called a *ſtrut*.

(4.) BRACE, in ſea language. (See § 1. *def.* 4.) To brace the yard, is to bring it to either ſide. All braces come aftward on; as, the main brace comes to the poop, the main top ſail brace comes to the mizen top and thence to the main ſhrouds, the fore and fore top-ſail braces come down by the main and main top-ſail ſtay, and ſo of the reſt. But the mizen bowline ſerves to brace to the yard, and the croſs-jack braces are brought forwards to the main ſhrouds, when the ſhip ſails cloſe by a wind.

(5.) BRACE, or BRASSE, a foreign meaſure, anſwering to our fathom. See FATHOM.

* *To* BRACE. *v. a.* [*embraſſer*, Fr.] 1. To bind; to tie cloſe with bandages.—The women of China, by *bracing* and binding them from their infancy, have very little feet. *Locke.* 2. To intend; to make tenſe; to ſtrain up.—The tympanum is not capable of tenſion that way, in ſuch a manner as a drum is *braced*. *Holder.*—The diminution of the force of the preſſure of the external air, in *bracing* the fibres, muſt create a debility in muſcular motion. *Arbuthnot on Air.*

BRACEBY,

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BRACEBY, a village in Lincolnſhire, W. of Fokingham.

BRACED, in heraldry, is uſed in ſpeaking of chevronels which are intermingled.

(1.) * BRACELET. *n. ſ.* [*bracelet*, Fr.] 1. An ornament for the arms.—Both his hands were cut off, being known to have worn *bracelets* of gold about his wriſts. *Sir J. Hayward.*—

Tie about our tawny wriſts
Bracelets of the fairy twiſts. *Ben Jonſon.*

—A very ingenious lady uſed to wear, in rings and *bracelets*, ſtore of thoſe gems. *Boyle.* 2. A piece of defenſive armour for the arm.

(2.) BRACELETS were much uſed among the ancients. They were made of different materials, and in different faſhions, according to the age and quality of the wearer. Menage derives the word from BRACELETUM, a diminutive of *bracile*, a word occurring in writers of the Juſtinian age; all formed from the Latin *brachium*, *arm*. It amounts to the ſame with what was called by the ancients, *armilla*, *brachiale*, or *occabus*; in the middle age, *boga*, *bouga*, and *armiſpatha*. Bracelets are much worn by the ſavages of Africa, who are ſaid to be ſo exceſſively fond of them, as to give the richeſt commodities, and even their fathers, wives, and children, in exchange for thoſe made of no richer materials than ſhells, glaſs-beads, and the like. They form alſo, in modern civilized countries, a very common part of the ornaments of the ladies.

BRACELETUM. See laſt article.

BRACEMEAL, a village in Shropſhire, S. of Shrewſbury.

BRACENARIUS, *n. ſ.* in old records, a huntſman; the maſter of the hounds.

* BRACER. *n. ſ.* [from *brace.*] 1. A cincture; a bandage.—When they affect the belly, they may be reſtrained by a *bracer*, without much trouble. *Wiſeman.* 2. A medicine of conſtringent power.

BRACETUS, *n. ſ.* [old law Lat.] a beagle.

* BRACH. *n. ſ.* [*braque*, Fr.] A bitch hound.—Truth's a dog much to kennel; he muſt be whipped out, when the lady *brach* may ſtand by the fire, and ſtink. *Shakeſpeare.*

BRACHERIUM, or } a ſteel bandage, uſed for
BRACHERIOLUM, } the retention and cure of ruptures.

BRACHIÆUS. See BRACHIALIS.

(1.) * BRACHIAL. *adj.* [from *brachium*, an arm, Lat.] Belonging to the arm.

(2.) BRACHIAL NERVES, the nerves of the arm. See ANATOMY, § 500—506, and *Plate* VIII. *fig.* 5. with § 527.

BRACHIALIS, or BRACHIÆUS, the name of a muſcle. See ANATOMY, § 212.

BRACHIONUS, in entomology, a genus of animalcules of the claſs of ARTHRODIA, comprehending all the VORTICELLÆ, or WHEEL ſpecies. See ANIMALCULE, § 16. and *Plate* XI. *fig.* 11—24.

BRACHITÆ, a branch of the ſect of MANICHEES, who appeared in the third century.

(1.) BRACHIUM, in anatomy, the ARM. See ANATOMY, § 148. 211—213.

(2.) BRACHIUM. See BOTANY, GLOSSARY.

BRACHMA. See BRAMA, and next article.

BRACHMANS, or } a branch of the ancient
BRACHMINS, } Gymnoſophiſts, or philoſophers of India, remarkable for the ſeverity of their lives and manners. See GYMNOSOPHISTS. Some ſay they derive their name from the patriarch Abraham, whom they call in their language BRACHMA, or BRAMA. Others deduce it from the name of their god BRACHMA; which ſome again take to be the ſame with Abraham: whence Poſtel calls them *Abrachamanes*. F. Thomaſſin derives it from the Hebrew *barach*, to fly or eſcape; becauſe the Brachmans retire into the country and live in deſerts; or, to bleſs or pray; as this is their principal occupation. The Greeks aſcribed to them the doctrine of the immortality of the ſoul, and certain notions concerning the nature of the Supreme Being, and future rewards and puniſhments. To this ſpecies of knowledge the Brachmans added an infinite number of religious obſervances, which were adopted by Pythagoras in his ſchool; ſuch as faſting, prayer, ſilence, and contemplation. They were looked upon as the friends of the gods, becauſe they affected to pay them ſo much regard; and as the protectors of mankind, becauſe they paid them no regard at all. No bounds was therefore ſet to the reſpect that were ſhown them: princes did not ſcruple to conſult theſe recluſes upon any critical conjuncture, from a ſuppoſition that they were inſpired; ſince it was impoſſible to imagine that they had the advantages of experience. There might, however, be among them ſome men of real virtue, who reliſhed the pure delights of ſcience; and who were capable of raiſing their thoughts to the contemplation of the Firſt Being. There appear ſtill ſome remains of the ancient brachmans in the eaſt, under the denomination of Bramins. See BRAMINS.

BRACHURUS, in zoology, a name given by Dr Hill to a genus of animalcules of a roundiſh figure, with tails ſhorter than their bodies: Their ſkin is perfectly ſmooth, thin, and colourleſs. They are frequent in water-ponds in pepper-water, and other infuſions of vegetable ſubſtances. See ANIMALCULES, § 5.

BRACHYCATALECTION, in poetry, [from βραχυς, ſhort, and καταλήγω, to end,] a verſe wanting a ſyllable at the end.

BRACHYCOLON, [from βραχυς, and κωλον, a member,] a period wherein one member is ſhorter than another.

(1.) * BRACHYGRAPHY. *n. ſ.* [βραχυς, ſhort, and γραφω, to write.] The art or practice of writing in a ſhort compaſs.—All the certainty of thoſe high pretenders, bating what they have of the firſt principles, and the word of God, may be circumſcribed by as ſmall a circle as the creed, when *brachygraphy* had confined it within the compaſs of a penny. *Granville.*

(2.) BRACHYGRAPHY. See SHORT HAND.

BRACHYLOGY, [from βραχυς, and λογος, expreſſion,] in rhetoric, the expreſſing any thing in the moſt conciſe manner. This, ſo far as is conſiſtent with perſpicuity, is a beauty; but if obſcurity be the conſequence, which is often the caſe, it becomes an inexcuſable defect.—Quintilian gives an inſtance of brachylogy from Salluſt: *Mithridates corpore ingenti perinde armatus*; "Mithridates, as it were, armed with the hugeneſs of his ſtature."

BRACHY-

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BRACHYPOTÆ, or } [from βραχυς, and ποτης,
BRACHYPOTI, } a drinker,] those who drink but little and at long intervals: or those who drink seldom, though in greater quantity.

BRACHYPTERA, a term used by Willoughby, to denote those hawks which have their wings so short as not to reach to the end of the tail. Of this kind are the gose-hawk, sparrow-hawk, &c.

BRACHYPYRENIA, [from βραχυς, and πυρην, a nucleus,] in the natural history of fossils, a genus of septariæ, with a roundish nucleus. See SEPTARIÆ.

BRACHYTELOSTYLA, in natural history, [from βραχυς, short, τελειος, perfect, and στυλος, a column,] the name by which Dr Hill calls those crystals which are composed of a short hexangular column, terminated at each end by an hexangular pyramid. See CRYSTAL.

BRACINUM, [old law Lat.] a brewing of ale.

(1.) BRACK, a lake in Kirkcudbrightshire, abounding with a peculiar and excellent species of trouts; which measure from 9 to 18 inches, and weigh 8 or 10 lb. each.

(2.) * BRACK. *n. s.* [from *break*.] A breach; a broken part.—The place was but weak, and the *bracks* fair; but the defendants, by resolution, supplied all the defects. *Hayward*.—Let them compare my work with what is taught in the schools, and if they find in theirs many *bracks* and short ends, which cannot be spun into an even piece, and, in mine, a fair coherence throughout, I shall promise myself an acquiescence. *Digby*.

To BRACK, *v. a.* [Dutch.] To salt. *Ash*.

BRACKENBURGH, a town in Yorkshire.

BRACKENFIELD, a village in Derbyshire, NW. of Alfreton.

BRACKENHILL, in Berkshire, between Oakingham and Sunning-hill.

BRACKENSTOWN, a town of Ireland, 6 miles from Dublin.

(1.) * BRACKET. *n. s.* [a term of carpentry.] A piece of wood fixed for the support of something.—Let your shelves be laid upon *brackets*, being about two feet wide, and aged with a small dath. *Mortimer*.

(2.) BRACKETS, in gunnery, the cheeks of the carriage of a mortar. They are made of strong planks of wood, of almost a semicircular figure, and bound round with thin iron plates; they are fixed to the beds by 4 bolts, which are called *bed bolts*; they rise up on each side of the mortar, and serve to keep at it any elevation, by means of some strong iron bolts, called *bracket bolts*, which go through these cheeks or brackets.

(3.) BRACKETS, in ships, the small knees, serving to support the galleries, and commonly carved. Also the timbers that support the gratings in the head.

* BRACKISH. *adj.* [*brack*, Dutch.] Salt; somewhat salt: it is used particularly of the water of the sea.—Pits upon the sea shore turn into fresh water, by percolation of the salt through the sand: but it is farther noted, after a time, the water in such pits will become *brackish* again. *Bacon*.—

When I had gain'd the brow and top,
A lake of *brackish* waters on the ground,
Was all I found. *Herbert*.

The wife contriver, on his end intent,
Mix'd them with salt, and seasoned all the sea.
What other cause could this effect produce?
The *brackish* tincture through the main diffuse?
Blackmore.

* BRACKISHNESS. *n. s.* [from *brackish*.] Saltness in a small degree.—All the artificial strainings hitherto leave a *brackishness* in salt water, that makes it unfit for animal uses. *Cheyne*.

BRACKLAND, a district of Perthshire, in Callander parish, wherein are found excellent gray slates, which rise often 6 feet square, and about 1½ or 2 inches thick. They are very smooth, and, being tough, are easily carried to a distance, and used for malt kilns, pavements, tiles, &c.

BRACKLAU, or } a palatinate in the eastern
(1.) BRACKLAW, } part of Podolia; it is also called *Lower Podolia*, and is of greater extent than Upper Podolia, but is more desolate, on account of the neighbourhood of the Tartars.

(2.) BRACKLAW, a strong town in Poland, capital of the palatinate. (N° 1.) The houses are built of wood. It was taken by the Turks in 1672, but retaken 3 years afterwards. It is seated on the river Bog. Lon. 28. 30. E. Lat. 48. 49. N.

BRACKLEY, an ancient and large borough town in Northamptonshire, seated near Buckinghamshire, on a branch of the river Ouse. It contains two parish churches; is governed by a mayor and aldermen; and sends two members to parliament. It had formerly a college, which is turned into a free school. It is 18 miles SW. of Northampton, and 64 NW. of London. Lon. 1. 15. W. Lat. 52. 2. N.

BRACKLOWN INN, a village of Ireland, in the county of Kerry, Munster.

BRACKNOLD, in Berks, 3 miles from Oakingham.

BRACKTON. See BRACTON.

(1.) BRACTEA, in natural history, a plate, spangle, or thin flake of any substance.

(2.) BRACTEA, in botany, a thin leaf of any *folium florale*. See BOTANY, INDEX.

BRACTEARIA, in natural history, a genus of talcs, composed of small plates in form of spangles, each plate either being very thin, fissile into very thin ones. Of this genus there are a great many species called from their different colours, *mica aurea*, or gold-glimmer; and *mica argentea*, silver-glimmer, or cats-silver, &c.

BRACTEATED COINS, } among antiquaries,
BRACTEATI NUMMI, } coins or medals covered over with a thin plate, or leaf of some richer metal. They are usually made of iron, copper, or brass, plated over, and edged with gold or silver-leaf. Medalists find some *bracteated* pieces even among the truly ancient coins. The French call them *fourrées*.

BRACTON, Henry, lord chief justice of England in the reign of Henry III. was educated at Oxford, where he took the degree of LL. D. and was made one of the itinerant judges about 1244. Ten years after he became chief justice, and had the earl of Derby's house in London assigned him for his town residence, during the minority of that nobleman. He filled this important office with singular reputation for 20 years. He wrote *De legibus et consuetudinibus Angliæ*, which is one of the most ancient, and also most methodical books on our laws. His method is copied from

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from Juſtinian. It was printed at London in 1569, folio; and in 1640, 4to. The firſt is very incorrect.

BRACYD, *adj. obſ.* braced; elapſed. *Chauc.*

(1.) BRAD, a town of Sclavonia, ſeated on the N. ſide of the river Save. Lon. 18. 40. E. Lat. 45. 20. N.

(2.) * BRAD, being an initial, ſignifies *broad, ſpacious*, from the Saxon, *brad*, and the Gothick, *braid*. *Gibſon.*

(3.) * BRAD. *n. ſ.* A ſort of nail to floor rooms with. They are about the ſize of a tenpenny nail, but have not their heads made with a ſhoulder over their ſhank, as other nails, but are made pretty thick towards the upper end, that the very top may be driven into, and buried in the board they nail down; ſo that the tops of theſe *brads* will not catch the thrums of the mops, when the floor is waſhing. *Moxon.*

(4.) BRADS are diſtinguiſhed by iron-mongers by different names; as *joiner's brads, flooring brads, batten brads, bill brads*, or *quarter brads*, &c. Joiner's brads are for hard wainſcot; batten brads are for ſoft wainſcot; bill brads are uſed when a floor is laid in haſte, or for ſhallow joiſts ſubject to warp. See NAIL.

BRADBORN, a village in Derbyſhire, 4 miles from Wirkſworth.

BRADBORN, in Kent, 5 miles from Maidſtone.

BRADBURY, a town in Durham, 4 miles E. of Biſhop's Aukland.

BRADEL, a village of Dorſetſhire, in Purbeck iſle, SW. of Corſe caſtle.

BRADEN, a lake in Ayrſhire, in which there is an iſland, with an old caſtle.

(1.) BRADENHAM, a village in Buckinghamſhire, W. of Miſſenden.

(2.) BRADENHAM, EAST, } two villages in Nor-
(3.) BRADENHAM, WEST, } folkſh. E. of Swaffham.

BRADENSTOKE, in Wiltſhire, between Chriſtian Malford and Lyneham.

BRADESLEY, in Worceſterſhire, near Bromſgrove.

(1.) BRADFIELD, a river in Shropſhire.

(2.) BRADFIELD, a town of Eſſex, near Maningtree. Lon. 0. 30. E. Lat. 51. 14. N.

(3—7.) BRADFIELD is alſo the name of 5 Engliſh villages; viz. 1. in Berks, NW. of Theal: 2. in Hertfordſhire, near Hide-Hall: 3. in Norfolkſhire, NW. of Walſham: 4. in Wiltſhire, near Malmſbury; and, 5. in Yorkſhire W. Riding, near Doncaſter. It alſo makes part of the names of 7 other villages: viz.

(8.) BRADFIELD BRAND, or BRADFIELD-COMBUST, } 4 miles SE. of Edmundſbury.

(9.) BRADFIELD-COULD, near Oulney, Bucks.

(10.) BRADFIELD, LITTLE, and (11.) BRADFIELD, MAGNA, } in Eſſex, near Thaxted, 38 miles from London. The latter has a market on Thurſday, and a fair June 22.

(12.) BRADFIELD, MONKS, on a hill; and

(13.) BRADFIELD, ST CLARE, SE. of it; both in Suffolk.

(14.) BRADFIELD, SALING, in Eſſex, SE. of Eaſton Magna.

(1.) BRADFORD, a river in Derbyſhire.

(2.) BRADFORD, a town in Wiltſhire, the centre of the greateſt fabric of ſupperfine cloths in England; which it ſhares with the ſurrounding towns, Trowbridge, Melkſham, Corſham, and Chippenham. It is ſeated on the Avon, 11 miles W. of Devizes, and 102 W. of London. It has a market on Monday, and fairs Trinity Monday and Nov. 29. Lon. 2. 20. W. Lat. 51. 20. N.

(3.) BRADFORD, a town in Yorkſhire, ſeated on a branch of the Aire, between Leeds and Halifax. It has a conſiderable trade in ſhalloons, everlaſtings, &c. It is 36 miles SW. of York, and 193 NNW. of London. Lon. 1. 40. W. Lat. 53. 49. N.

(4—8.) BRADFORD is alſo the name of 5 Engliſh villages; viz. 1. in Devonſhire, between Honiton and Samford: 2. in Ditto, E. of Houlſworthy 3. in Northumberland, SW. of Bamburgh Caſtle: 4. in Shropſhire; and, 5. in Somerſetſhire, between Wellington and Taunton.

(9.) BRADFORD, John, an eminent divine, and martyr to the reformation, was born in the beginning of the reign of Henry VIII. at Manchester. He was at firſt ſecretary to Sir John Harrington, who was ſeveral times employed by king Henry, and his ſucceſſor Edward VI. as paymaſter to the troops abroad. Bradford at this time was a gay man, and to ſupport his extravagance made free with the king's money; but conſcience checking him, he determined to make reſtitution, and actually repaid the money. Quitting his employment of ſecretary about A. D. 1547, he took chambers in the inner temple, and for ſome time ſtudied the law; but finding an inclination to preach the goſpel, he removed, in 1547, to Catharine-hall in Cambridge, and there applied with ſuch uncommon aſſiduity to the ſtudy of divinity, that in a much ſhorter time than uſual he was admitted to the degree of M. A. Biſhop Ridley, who, in 1550, was tranſlated to the ſee of London, charmed with Bradford's application and zeal, now ſent for him to the metropolis, ordained and appointed him his chaplain. In 1553, he was alſo made chaplain to Edward VI. during which time he became one of the moſt popular preachers in the kingdom. Such a reformer was too dangerous to be ſuffered in the ſucceeding reign. Mary was hardly in poſſeſſion of the crown, before Bradford's perſecutions began. He was firſt confined in the tower for ſedition, where he continued a year and a half; during which time he wrote ſeveral epiſtles that were diſperſed in various parts of the kingdom. He was afterwards removed to other priſons, and at laſt brought to his trial before that infernal court of inquiſition, in which Gardiner ſat as chief inquiſitor, where he defended his principles to the laſt in contempt of their utmoſt power. They condemned him to the flames; and he was accordingly burnt alive in Smithfield, where he behaved with uncommon heroiſm, on July 1, 1555. His works are, 1. Seventy-two letters, written to various people, whilſt the author was in priſon; printed in biſhop Coverdale's collection. 2. Ten letters, printed in Foxe's acts and monuments 3. Complaint of Verity, 1559, 8vo. 4. Three examinations before the commiſſioners, and his private talk with the prieſts, with the original of his life; 1561, 8vo. 5. Two notable ſermons: 1574, 8vo, 1631. 6. Godly meditation and prayers; 1614, 24to.

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7. Treatiſe of repentance, 1622. With ſeveral tranſlations and other pieces.

(10.) BRADFORD, William, Eſq; an American author, printer, and ſoldier. During the American war he wrote, printed and fought for his country. Both his father and grand father had been printers. In the army he had the rank of colonel. Dr Franklin ſaid of him that his writings were ſpirited, his preſs correct, and his ſword active. He died at Philadelphia, in 1791.

BRADFORD-ABBAS, a village in the NW. of Dorſetſhire, on the banks of the Ivel.

BRADFORD MILL, near Goodhurſt, Kent.

BRADFORD-PEVEREL, NW. of Dorcheſter.

(1.) BRADFORTH, a town in the W. of Yorkſhire, ſeated on a branch of the river Aire. Lon. 1. 35. W. Lat. 53. 40. N.

(2.) BRADFORTH, a village in Yorkſhire, near Bowland foreſt.

BRADGATE, two Engliſh villages; 1. four miles from Leiceſter: and 2. in Rutlandſhire, SE. of Uppingham.

BRADHERST, in Kent, 5 miles SE. of Rocheſter.

BRADICK, Walter, a conſiderable Engliſh merchant at Liſbon, who loſt all his property by the earthquake in 1755, when he narrowly eſcaped with his life. Coming over to his native country, and loſing his eye-ſight, he obtained the Queen's warrant for a comfortable aſylum in the Charter houſe; where he died in Dec. 1794, aged 88. He was well verſed in the different languages; and was author of ſeveral publications; among which his *Chobeleth*, or the *Royal Preacher, a poem*, will be a laſting monument of his abilities. It was publiſhed in 1765.

BRADICOT, 6 miles NE. of Worceſter.

BRADING, on St Helen's Bay, Iſle of Wight.

(1.) BRADLEY, Dr James, a celebrated Engliſh aſtronomer, the 3d ſon of William Bradley, was born at Sherborne, in Glouceſterſhire, in 1692. He was fitted for the univerſity at North Leach, and from thence was ſent to Oxford, and admitted a commoner of Baliol college, March 15, 1710; where he took the degree of B. A. in 1714, and of M. A. in 1716. His friends intending him for the church, his ſtudies were regulated with that view, and the Bp. of Hereford, who had conceived a great eſteem for him, gave him the living of Bridſtow, and ſoon after that of Landewy Welfry in Pembrokeſhire. He was nephew to Mr Pound, a gentleman well known in the learned world by many excellent aſtronomical and other obſervations. With this gentleman, at Wanſtead, Mr Bradley paſſed all the time that he could ſpare from the duties of his function; being then ſufficiently acquainted with the mathematics to improve by Mr Pound's converſation. At this time he made ſuch obſervations as laid the foundation of thoſe diſcoveries which afterward diſtinguiſhed him as one of the greateſt aſtronomers of his age. Theſe obſervations gained him the notice and friendſhip of the lord chancellor Macclesfield, Mr Newton afterward Sir Iſaac, Mr Halley, and many other members of the Royal Society, into which he was ſoon elected a member. Not long after, the chair of Savilian profeſſor of aſtronomy at Oxford becoming vacant, by the death of the celebrated Dr Keil, Mr Bradley was elected to ſucceed him, Oct. 31ſt, 1721, at 29 years of age; his colleague being Mr Halley, who was profeſſor of geometry on the ſame foundation. Upon this appointment Mr Bradley reſigned his church livings, and applied himſelf wholly to the ſtudy of his favourite ſcience. In the courſe of his obſervations, which were innumerable, he diſcovered and ſettled the laws of the alterations, or *aberration*, of the fixed ſtars, from the progreſſive motion of light, combined with the earth's annual motion about the ſun, and the *nutation* of the earth's axis ariſing from the unequal attraction of the ſun and moon on the different parts of the earth. The theory of the former he publiſhed in 1727; and that of the latter appeared in 1737: ſo that in the ſpace of about 10 years, he comunicated to the world two of the fineſt diſcoveries in modern aſtronomy; which will for ever make a memorable epoch in the hiſtory of that ſcience. See ABERRATION, NUTATION, and ASTRONOMY, INDEX. In 1730, Mr Bradley ſucceeded Mr Whiteſide, as lecturer in aſtronomy and experimental philoſophy in the Muſeum at Oxford, which was a conſiderable emolument to him, and which he held till within a year or two of his death; when the ill ſtate of his health induced him to reſign it. He always preſerved the eſteem and friendſhip of Dr Halley; who, being worn out by age and infirmities, thought he could not do better for the ſervice of aſtronomy, than procure for Mr Bradley the place of regius profeſſor of aſtronomy at Greenwich, which he himſelf had many years poſſeſſed with the greateſt reputation. He even offered to reſign it in his favour, but died before he could accompliſh this kind object. Mr Bradley, however, obtained the place, by the intereſt of lord Macclesfield, who was afterward preſident of the Royal Society; and upon this appointment the univerſity of Oxford ſent him a diploma creating him D. D. The appointment of aſtronomer royal at Greenwich, which was dated 3d Feb. 1741-2, placed Dr Halley in his proper element; and he purſued his obſervations with unwearied diligence. Numerous as the collection of aſtronomical inſtruments at that obſervatory was, Dr Bradley deſired to increaſe them, to anſwer not only his particular views, but to make obſervations with greater exactneſs. In 1748, therefore, he took the opportunity of the viſit of the Royal Society to the obſervatory, annually made to examine the inſtruments and receive the profeſſor's obſervations for the year, to repreſent ſo ſtrongly the neceſſity of repairing the old inſtruments, and providing new ones, that the ſociety thought proper to make application to the king, who ordered L 1000 for that purpoſe. The ſum was laid out under the Dr's direction, who, with the aſſiſtance of the late celebrated Mr Graham and Mr Bird, furniſhed the obſervatory with as complete a collection of aſtronomical inſtruments, as the moſt ſkilful and diligent obſerver could deſire. Dr Bradley thus furniſhed with ſuch aſſiſtance, purſued his obſervations with great aſſiduity during the reſt of his life; an immenſe number of which was found after his death, in 13 folio volumes, and were preſented to the univerſity of Oxford in 1779, on condition of their printing and publiſhing

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ing them; but which however, unfortunately for the improvement of aſtronomy, after a lapſe of 21 years, has never yet been done. During Dr Bradley's reſidence at the Royal Obſervatory, the living of the church at Greenwich becoming vacant, was offered to him; but he, greatly to his honour, refuſed to accept it, from a conſcientious ſcruple, "that the duty of a paſtor was incompatible with his other ſtudies and neceſſary engagements." King George II. hearing of this was ſo pleaſed with his conduct, that he granted him a penſion of 250l. over and above the aſtronomer's original ſalary from the Board of Ordnance, "in conſideration (as the grant, dated the 15th Feb. 1752, expreſſes it) of his great ſkill and knowledge in the ſeveral branches of aſtronomy and other parts of the mathematics, which have proved ſo uſeful to the trade and navigation of this kingdom." This penſion has been regularly continued to the aſtronomers royal ever ſince. About 1748, Dr Bradley became entitled to biſhop Crew's benefaction of 30l. a year, to the lecture-reader in experimental philoſophy at Oxford. He was elected a member of the Academy of Sciences at Berlin, in 1747; of that of Paris, in 1748: of that of Peterſburgh, in 1754; and of that of Bologna, in 1757. He married Miſs Suſanna Peach, in 1744, but never had more than one child, a daughter. By his conſtant and indefatigable application to ſtudy, Dr Bradley became afflicted, for near two years before his death, with an oppreſſion on his ſpirits, which interrupted his uſeful labours. This aroſe chiefly from an apprehenſion that he ſhould outlive his rational faculties: but this ſo much dreaded evil never came upon him. In June 1762, he was ſeized with a ſuppreſſion of urine, occaſioned by an inflammation in the kidneys, which terminated his exiſtence in the 13th July following, at Chalfont, in the 70th year of his age; and he was interred at Minchinhampton, both in Glouceſterſhire. Dr Bradley was remarkable for a placid and gentle modeſty, very uncommon in perſons of an active temper and robuſt conſtitution. He was alſo compaſſionate and liberal in the higheſt degree. But, though he was a good ſpeaker, and poſſeſſed the rare but happy art of expreſſing his ideas with the utmoſt preciſion and clearneſs, yet no man was a greater lover of ſilence, for he never ſpoke but when he thought it abſolutely neceſſary. Nor was he more inclined to write than to ſpeak, as he has publiſhed very little: having a natural diffidence, which made him always afraid that his works might injure his character; ſo that he ſuppreſſed many which might have been worthy of publication. He had however an extenſive private correſpondence; and there was not an aſtronomer of any eminence in the world with whom he did not correſpond. Upon the whole, it may be ſaid of Dr Bradley, that no man cultivated great talents with more ſucceſs, or had a better claim to be ranked amongſt the greateſt aſtronomers of his age. His papers which have been inſerted in the *Philoſophical Tranſactions*, are, 1. Obſervations on the comet of 1703: 2. The Longitude of Liſbon and of the fort of New York from Wanſted and London, determined by the eclipſe of the firſt ſatellite of Jupiter: 3. An account of a new diſcovered motion of the fixed ſtars: 4. On the going of clocks, with iſochronal pendulums: 5. Obſervations on the comet of 1736-7: 6. On the apparent motion of the fixed ſtars: 7. On the occultation of Venus by the moon, 15 April, 1751: 8. On the comet of 1757: and 9. Directions for uſing the common micrometer.

(2—19.) BRADLEY, the name of 18 Engliſh villages: viz. 1. in Cheſhire, near Thelwell: 2. in Derbyſhire, E. of Aſhborn: 3. near Derby: 4. in Dorſetſhire, S. of Corfe caſtle: 5. in Glouceſterſhire, near Wotton under Edge: 6. in Hampſh. W. of Alton: 7. in Lancaſhire, 6 miles NW. of Warrington: 8. in Leiceſterſhire, SE. of Hallaton: 9. in Lincolnſhire, SW. of Great Grimſby: 10. in Somerſetſhire, NW. of Caſtle-Carey: 11. in Staffordſhire, NW. of Penkridge: 12. in ditto, SE. of Cheadle: 13. in Surrey, S. of Waking: 14. in Wiltſhire, near Cricklade: 15. in Worceſterſhire, 8 miles E. of Droitwich: 16. in Yorkſhire, near Biſhop's Dale Chace: 17. in ditto, S. of Halifax: and 18. in ditto, E. of Settle. It alſo makes part of the names of 8 villages: viz.

(20.) BRADLEY-ASH, in Derby, E. of Aſborn.

(21—24.) BRADLEY HALL; 1. in Cheſhire, 3 miles from Sand-back: 2. in Durham, 5 miles NW. of Biſhop's Aukland: 3. in Lancaſhire, W. of Clithero: 4. in Northumberland, 6 miles E. of Thirlewall.

(25, 26.) BRADLEY MAGNA, and PARVA, in Suffolk, near Cartlidge.

(27.) BRADLEY, NORTH, in Wiltſhire, S. of Towbridge.

BRADMERES, near Bunny, Nottinghamſhire.

BRADMORE, S. of Honiton, Warwickſhire.

BRADNEY, 3 miles N. of Bridgenorth, Shropſhire.

BRADNINCH, a town of Devonſhire, N. of Exeter; once a conſiderable place, but ſome time ago totally deſtroyed by fire. It formerly ſent 2 members to parliament. It has a market on Sat. and fairs April 25, and Sept. 21. Lon. 3. 35. W. Lat. 50. 45. N.

BRADNOP, a village near Leek, Staffordſhire.

BRADPOLE, NE. of Bridport, Dorſetſhire.

BRADSHALL, NE. of Derby.

(1.) BRADSHAW, Henry, a Benedictine monk, was born at Cheſter, about the middle of the 13th century. Diſcovering an early propenſity to religion and literature, he was received while a boy into the monaſtery of St Werberg in the city; and afterwards ſent to Glouceſter college, in the ſuburbs of Oxford, where he ſtudied theology with the novices of his order; and then returned to his convent at Cheſter. In the latter part of his life, he applied himſelf chiefly to hiſtory, and wrote ſeveral books. He died in 1517, the fifth of Henry VIII. His poetry is not inferior to that of his cotemporaries. His works are, 1. *De Antiquitate et magnificentia urbis Ceſtriæ.* 2. *Chronicon.* 3. The life of the glorious virgin of St Werberg. Printed. Lond. 1521, 4to, in verſe. The life of St Werberg makes only part of this work; for it contains alſo a deſcription of the kingdom of Mercia, life of St Etheldred, the life of Sexburg, the foundation and hiſtory of Cheſter, and the chronicles of ſome kings. Biſhop Tanner ſays, that he wrote a chronicle in Engliſh verſe, (perhaps

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the above *Chronicon*) extracted from Bede, Malmſbury, Geraldus, and others.

(2.) BRADSHAW, John, preſident of the Council who condemned Charles I. an event which brought upon his memory all the opprobrium that the ingenious friends of the party that triumphed over the republicans of that day could deviſe. Neither have there been wanting hiſtorians, ſo far the dupes of vulgar clamour as to put upon record, and hand down to poſterity in their writings, many doubtful ſtories reſpecting the motives of his political conduct, as well as of his birth and origin; for the execrations of party confound all diſtinctions, and blacken with one promiſcuous touch, all the objects againſt whom their ungovernable fury happens to be directed. It is not wonderful indeed that the biography of a man, whom it was the faſhion of thoſe times to conſider as a vice even to *name*, ſhould be mutilated and imperfect; or that the direct traces of his family deſcent ſhould be inſcrutable to the inveſtigations of the herald or the antiquary. Thoſe, whoſe averſion held forth him as a ſanguinary regicide, were able to indulge, without danger of contradiction, in any reveries they thought proper, reſpecting his low birth and the impurity of his motives; for it may be ſuppoſed none of his family or friends would dare to oppoſe the current of popular odium, by attempting a vindication, to which, however conformable to truth, few would be prevailed on to attend. As no thinking perſon will call *juſt* or *expedient* the cataſtrophe in which Bradſhaw took ſo conſpicuous a ſhare, we leave the ſubject to thoſe who adhere to, or who impugn the political tenets of the Stuart race. The late Lord Gardenſtone raſhly ventured to ſtile it "a great act of national juſtice." But we ſhall content ourſelves with repelling a great calumny which one writer has copied from another, and which involves the preſident Bradſhaw in the common reproach of having been the tool of the uſurper Cromwell. Whether he was or not, will appear from the following extracts, taken from the memoirs of that honeſt *hiſtorian* of his *own times*, Ludlow, who, though implicated himſelf in the death of Charles, was never accuſed, even by his enemies, of having recorded a falſehood. Theſe are taken from the 4to edition publiſhed in 1771, and are as follows: P. 118. "On the 10th Jan. 1648, the High Court of Juſtice eſtabliſhed by an act of the parliament for the trial of king Charles I. choſe ſerjeant Bradſhaw to be the preſident, and Mr Liſle and Mr Spay to be his aſſiſtants." P. 211. "In England they better underſtood the deſign that was carrying on, inſomuch, that many perſons of known virtue and integrity were choſen to ſit in this aſſembly (the new parliament), in particular the lord preſident Bradſhaw, ſir Arthur Hazelrig, &c. &c. P. 240. "Cromwell ſummons him and others to council, and is obeyed. As ſoon as Cromwell ſaw the lord preſident, he required him to take out a new commiſſion for his office of chief juſtice of Cheſter, which he refuſed, alledging that he held that place by a grant from the parliament of England, to continue *quamdiu ſe bene geſſerit*. And whether he had carried himſelf with that integrity which his commiſſion exacted from him, he was willing to ſubmit to a trial by 12 Engliſhmen, to be choſen even by Cromwell himſelf." P. 244. "The preſident Bradſhaw, notwithſtanding what had paſſed, reſolved to go his circuit, as chief juſtice of Cheſter, unleſs he ſhould be prevented by force. But Cromwell thought it more adviſable to permit him to execute his office, than, by interrupting his circuit, to make a breach with thoſe of the long robe, whoſe aſſiſtance was ſo neceſſary to the carrying on his deſign. By the intrigues of Cromwell, he and other ſteady favourers of the commonwealth loſt their ſeats." P. 261. "In the parliament called by Richard Cromwell, the preſident Bradſhaw was returned for the county of Cheſter, by the ſheriff." P. 277. "And the better to ſhew the conſideration the parliament had for ſome eminent perſons who were not of their body, it was agreed that the lord preſident Bradſhaw, the lord Fairfax, and others, ſhould be members of the council of ſtate." P. 282. "The lord preſident Bradſhaw, ſerjeant Fountain, and ſerjeant Tyrell, were made commiſſioners of the broad ſeal." P. 307. "During thoſe diſorders, the council of ſtate ſtill aſſembled at the uſual place and at one of their meetings, colonel Sydenham, who was one of them, made a ſpeech, wherein he endeavoured to juſtify theſe proceedings of the army, undertaking to prove that they were neceſſitated to make uſe of this laſt remedy, by a particular call of the Divine Providence. But the lord preſient Bradſhaw, who was then preſident, though by long ſickneſs very weak and much extenuated, yet animated by his ardent zeal and conſtant affection to the common cauſe, upon hearing theſe words, ſtood up and interrupted him, declaring his abhorrence of that deteſtable action, and telling the council, that being now going to his God, he had not patience to ſit there to here his great name ſo openly blaſphemed; and thereupon departed, and withdrew himſelf, from public employment." Guthrie, ſpeaking of thoſe with whom Bradſhaw acted, makes the following remarks: "They who brought Charles to the block were men of different perſuaſions and principles, but many of them poſſeſſed moſt amazing abilities for government. They omitted no meaſure that could give perpetual excluſion to kingly power in England; and it cannot be denied, that, after they erected themſelves into a commonwealth, they did prodigious things for retrieving the glory of England by ſea. They were joined by many of the preſbyterians, and both parties hated Cromwell and Ireton, though they were forced to employ them in the reduction of Ireland, and afterwards againſt the Scots, who had received Charles II. as their king. By cutting down the timber upon the royal domains, they produced, as it were by magic, all at once, a fleet ſuperior to any that had ever been ſeen in Europe." Bradſhaw's deſcendants are ſtill in exiſtence. There is a Bradſhaw of Pennington in Lancaſhire, who is of the preſident's family: and he has alſo lineal deſcendants, of another name, in London and Liverpool.

(3, 4.) BRADSHAW, two Engliſh villages; 1. in the High Peak of Derby, called alſo BRADSHAW-EDGE: 2. in Lincolnſhire, near Bury.

BRADSTONE, 3 villages; 1. in Devonſhire, near

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near Launceston: 2. in Glouceſterſhire, near Berkeley: 3. in Shropſhire, near Hungerford.

BRADWALL, in Staffordſhire, N. of Newcaſtle under Line.

BRADWARDIN, Thomas, Abp. of Canterbury, was born at Hartfield in Suſſex, about the cloſe of the 13th century. He was educated at Merton College, Oxford, where he took the degree of D. D. and was eſteemed a profound ſcholar, a ſkilful mathematician, and conſummate divine. Pitt ſays he was a profeſſor of divinity at Oxford. From being chancellor of the dioceſe of London, he became a courtier and confeſſor to Edward III. whom he conſtantly attended during his war with France, aſſiſting that victorious prince with his advice, animating the troops, and fervently praying for their ſucceſs. After his return he was made prebendary of Lincoln, and Abp. of Canterbury. He died at Lambeth in 1349, forty days after his conſecration. His works are, 1. *De Cauſa Dei*, printed, London, 1618, publiſhed by J. H. Savil. 2. *De geometria ſpeculativa*, &c. Paris, 1495, 1512, 1530. 3. *De arithmetica practica*, Paris, 1502, 1512. 4. *De proportionibus*, Paris, 1495. Venice, 1505, folio. 5. *De quadratura circuli*, Paris, 1495, folio.

BRADWAY, two Engliſh villages: 1. in Glouceſter, S. of Campden: 2. ten m. from Worceſter.

(1—6.) BRADWELL, 8 villages; viz. 1. in Bucks, 2 m. from Stony Stratford: 2. in Cheſhire, N. of Sandbach: 3. in the High Peak of Derby: 4. in Eſſex, near Coggeſhall; which has a fair, 24 June: 5. in Suffolk, between Layſtoff and Yarmouth: 6. in Warwickſhire, near Granborough:—

(7.) BRADWELL-GROVE, in Oxfordſhire: and

(8.) BRADWELL JUXTA MARE, [*i. e.* nigh the ſea,] in Eſſex, near Fillingham.

BRADWIN, N. of Towceſter, Northamptonſh.

(1.) BRADWOOD, in Durham, near Stanhope.

(2.) BRADWOOD, in Lanark, near Carluke.

BRADWORTHY, 5 m. NE. of Stratton, Devonſhire.

(1.) BRADY, Nicholas, an excellent divine and poet, born at Bandon, in Cork, in 1659. He ſtudied at Weſtminſter, and afterwards at Oxford and Dublin colleges. He was a zealous promoter of the revolution; and, in 1690, when the troubles broke out in Ireland, by his intereſt with M'Carty, king James's general, he thrice prevented the burning of the town of Bandon. Having quitted ſeveral preferments in Ireland, he ſettled in London, where he was ſucceſſively promoted to ſeveral livings; and at the time of his death was rector of Clapham, miniſter of Richmond, and chaplain to the D. of Ormond's troop of horſe guards. He wrote part of the new verſion of the Pſalms, now ſung in many churches in England and Ireland; the Æneids of Virgil, in 4 vols; and 3 vols of ſermons. He died May 20th, 1726.

(2.) BRADY, Robert, born in Norfolk in 1643, was maſter of Caius college, Cambridge, regius profeſſor, and twice repreſentative of that univerſity in parliament. In 1689, he was made keeper of the records in the Tower, and was phyſician in ordinary to James II. He wrote, An introduction to the Old Engliſh hiſtory; An hiſtory of England, from the time of the Romans to the end of the reign of Richard II. and, A treatiſe on Engliſh boroughs. He died in 1700.

BRADYPEPSIA, [from βραδυς, ſlow, and πεψις, digeſtion,] ſlow of digeſtion.

BRADYPUS, the SLOTH, a ſpecies of quadrupeds, belonging to the order of bruta. The characters are theſe: They have no fore teeth in their jaw; the dog teeth are blunt, ſolitary, and longer than the grinders; they have 5 grinders on each ſide. The body is covered with hair. There are only two ſpecies, viz.

1. BRADYPUS DIDACTYLUS has only two toes on each foot, and no tail: The head is round; the ears are large; and it has no mammæ on the breaſt: The body is covered with aſh-coloured hair. It is a native of Ceylon. See *Plate* XLI. *Fig.* 5.

2. BRADYPUS TRIDACTYLUS, or American Sloth, has a ſhort tail, and 3 toes on each foot. It is about the ſize of a fox. The body is covered over with hair of a grey colour; the face is naked; the throat is yellowiſh; the fore feet are longer than the hind feet; the claws are compreſſed, and very ſtrong. It has no mammæ on the breaſt; nor any external ears, but only two winding holes. It is the moſt ſluggiſh of all animals, and ſeems to move with the utmoſt pain. Its food is fruit, or the leaves of trees. If it cannot find fruit on the ground, it looks out for a tree well loaded, and with great pain climbs up: to ſave the trouble of deſcending, it flings off the fruit, and, forming itſelf into a ball, drops from the branches, continues at the foot till it has devoured all, nor ever ſtirs till compelled by hunger. It never drinks, and is terrified at rain. The following wonderful account of this animal, from Kircher's *Muſurgia*, is quoted by Mr Stillingfleet in his miſcellaneous tracts. "The deſcription (ſays Kircher) I had from father Torus, who reſided in America, who had animals of this kind in his poſſeſſion, and made many experiments in relation to their nature and qualities. Its figure is extraordinary; it is about the bigneſs of a cat, of very ugly countenance, and has claws extended like fingers. The hinder part of the head and neck are covered with hair. It ſweeps the ground with its fat belly, never riſes upon its feet, and moves ſo ſlowly, that it would ſcarce go the length of a bow-ſhot in 15 days, though conſtantly moving, and it is therefore called the *ſloth*. It lives generally upon tops of trees, and employs two days to crawl up, and as many to get down again. Nature has doubly guarded this animal againſt its enemies. Firſt, by giving it ſuch ſtrength in its feet, that whatever it ſeizes, it holds ſo faſt, that it never can be freed from its claws, but muſt there die of hunger.—2dly, By giving it ſuch a moving aſpect, when it looks at any man who ſhould be tempted to hurt it, that it is impoſſible not to be touched with compaſſion; beſides, that at the ſame time it ſheds tears, and upon the whole perſuades one, that a creature ſo defenceleſs, and of ſo unhappy a body, ought not to be tormented. To make an experiment of this, the above mentioned father procured one of theſe animals to be brought to our college at Carthagena. He put a long pole under its feet, which it ſeized upon very firmly, and would

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would not let go again. The animal, therefore, thus voluntarily ſuſpended, was placed between two beams along with the pole, and there it remained without meat, drink, or ſleep, 40 days; its eyes being always fixed on people that looked at it, who were ſo touched, that they could not forbear pitying it. At laſt being taken down, they let looſe a dog on it, which after a little while the ſloth ſeized with his feet, and held him four days till he died of hunger. This was taken from the mouth of the father. They add (continues Kircher), that this creature makes no noiſe but at night, but that very extraordinary. For by interruptions, that laſt about the length of a ſigh or ſemipauſe, it goes through the ſix vulgar intervals of muſic, Ut, re, mi, fa, ſol, la, La, ſol, fa, mi, re, ut, aſcending and deſcending, and theſe perfectly in tune: So that the Spaniards, when they firſt got poſſeſſion of this coaſt, and heard theſe notes, imagined that ſome people brought up to our muſic were ſinging. This animal is called by the natives *baut;* certainly becauſe, going through theſe muſical intervals, it repeats, Ha, ha, ha, ha, ha, &c." To this account Linnæus ſeems, in his *Syſtema Naturæ*, to give credit: For he ſays, in his ſhort way of deſcription, among other things, " It utters an aſcending hexachord: its noiſe is horrible; its tears are piteous." He quotes Muſgrave, Cluſius, Geſner, &c.

(1.) BRAE-MAR, or } a mountainous diſtrict
(1.) BRAE-MARR, } of Scotland, in Aberdeenſhire, ſituated in the middle of the Grampian hills, about 50 miles W. of Aberdeen, and one of the 3 diviſions of that extenſive territory called MARR. Geographers have ſtrangely miſtaken it, by repreſenting it as a valley. The Rev. Dr Ogilvy of Mid-Marr, ſtiles it the *higheſt* part of the country; and the Rev. Mr M'Hardy gives a ſimilar deſcription of it. See N° 2. The miſtake ſeems to have ariſen from confounding it with MID-MARR.

(2.) BRAE-MARR, a pariſh of Scotland, in the above diſtrict, (N° 1.) anciently called CEAN-AN-DROCHAIT, and long united with that of Crathy. It is " more elevated," ſays Mr M'Hardy, " above the level of the ſea, and farther removed in every direction from the coaſt, than any other pariſh in Scotland." By that gentleman's report to Sir J. Sinclair, it contained 1227 inhabitants, 466 horſes, 9206 ſheep, and 930 black cattle, in 1793. For other particulars, ſee CRATHY.

(1.) BRAE-MORAY, a pariſh in Murrayſhire. See EDENKEILLIE.

(2.) BRAE-MORAY, KNOCK OF. See KNOCK.

(3.) BRAY-MORAY, or } a mountainous and
BRAE-MURRAY, } woody diſtrict of Scotland, in the counties of Elgin and Nairn.

BRAES, an eminence in Stirlingſhire, in the pariſh of Dunipace, on which there is an ancient Daniſh fort.

BRAESBRIDGE, a village S. of Lincoln.

BRAFFERTON, two villages; 1. in Durham, 3 m. N. of Darlington: 2. in Yorkſhire, NE. of Boroughbridge.

(1.) BRAG, a game at cards, wherein as many may partake as the cards will ſupply; the eldeſt hand dealing 3 to each perſon at one time, and turning up the laſt card all round. This done, each gameſter puts down 3 ſtakes, one for each card.—The firſt ſtake is won by the beſt card turned up in the dealing round; beginning from the ace, king, queen, knave, and ſo downwards. When cards of the ſame value are turned up to two or more of the gameſters, the eldeſt hand gains; but the ace of diamonds wins, to whatever hand it be turned up.—The ſecond ſtake is won by what is called the *brag*, which conſiſts in one of the gameſters challenging the reſt to produce cards equal to his. A pair of aces is the beſt brag, a pair of kings the next, and ſo on; and a pair of any ſort wins the ſtake from the moſt valuable ſingle card. In this part conſiſts the great diverſion of the game; for, by the artful management of the looks, geſture, and voice, it frequently happens, that a pair of fives, treys, or even deuces, out-brags a much higher pair, and even ſome pairs royal, to the no ſmall merriment of the company. The knave of clubs is a principal favourite, making a pair with any other card in hand, and with any other two cards a pair royal.—The third ſtake is won by the perſon who firſt makes up the cards in his hand 31; each dignified card going for ten, and drawing from the pack, as uſual in this game.

(2.) * BRAG. *n. ſ.* [from the verb] 1. A boaſt; a proud expreſſion.—

A kind of conqueſt
Cæſar made here; but made not here his *brag*
Of came, and ſaw, and overcame. *Shakeſp.*

—It was ſuch a new thing for the Spaniards to receive ſo little hurt, upon dealing with the Engliſh, as Avallaneda made great brags of it, for no greater matter than waiting upon the Engliſh afar off. *Bacon.*

2. The thing boaſted.—

Beauty is nature's *brag*, and muſt be ſhewn
In courts, at feaſts, and high ſolemnities,
Where moſt may wonder. *Milton.*

* *To* BRAG. *v. n.* [*braggeren*, Dutch.] 1. To boaſt; to diſplay oſtentatiouſly; to tell boaſtful ſtories.—

Thou coward! art thou *bragging* to the ſtars?
Telling the buſhes that thou look'ſt for wars,
And wilt not come? *Shakeſpeare.*

—Mark me, with what violence ſhe firſt loved the Moor, but for *bragging*, and telling her fantaſtical lies. *Shakeſpeare.*—In *bragging* out ſome of their private tenets, as if they were the eſtabliſhed doctrine of the church of England. *Sanderſon.*—They rebels were grown ſo ſtrong there, that they intended then, as they already *bragged*, to come over and make this the ſeat of war. *Clarendon.*—Mrs Bull's condition was looked upon as deſperate by all the men of art; but there were thoſe that *bragged* they had an infallible ointment. *Arbuthnot.* 2. It has *of* before the thing boaſted.—Knowledge being the only thing *whereof* we poor old men can *brag*, we cannot make it known but by utterance. *Sidney.*—

Verona *brags of* him,
To be a virtuous and well-govern'd youth.
Shakeſpeare.

Ev'ry buſy little ſcribbler now
Swells with the praiſes which he gives himſelf,
And taking ſanctuary in the crowd,
Brags of his impudence, and ſcorns to mend.
Roſcommon.

3. On

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3. *On* is used, but improperly.—

Yet lo! in me what authors have to *brag on!*
Reduc'd at last to hiss in my own dragon.
Pope.

BRAGA, a city of Portugal, the capital of the province of Entre-duero-e-minho, situated on the river Cavado, 33 miles N. of Porto Port. Lon. 8. 29. W. Lat. 41. 42. N.

BRAGAN'S-TOWN, a town of Ireland, in the county of Louth, 35 m. from Dublin.

(1.) BRAGANZA, a duchy of Portugal.

(2.) BRAGANZA, the capital of the above duchy (N° 1.) seated on an eminence near the rivulet Fervenza; and divided into the old city and the new town. The former is upon an eminence, and fortified with a double wall. That part next the town has 5 bastions, but no ditch; the citadel is on the opposite side joined to the wall. The town is in a plain, and defended by a fort with 4 bastions. It is seated near the river Sabor, on the frontiers of Galicia; 55 miles NE. of Villa Real; and carries on a silk manufacture. Lon. 6. 15. W. Lat. 41. 27. N.

BRAGER-END, a village in Hertfordshire, N. of Datchworth, and W. of Watton.

* BRAGGADOCIO. *n. f.* [from *brag.*] A puffing, swelling, boasting fellow.—The world abounds in terrible fanfarons, in the masque of men of honour; but these *braggadocios* are easy to be detected. *L'Estrange.*—By the plot, you may guess much of the characters of the persons; a *braggadocia* captain, a parasite, and a lady of pleasure. *Dryden.*

* BRAGGARDISM. *n. f.* [from *brag.*] Boastfulness; vain ostentation.

(1.) * BRAGGART. *adj.* [from *brag.*] Boastful; vainly ostentatious.—

Shall I, none's slave, of high born or rais'd men
Fear frowns; and my mistress, truth, betray thee
To th' huffing, *braggart*, puft nobility? *Donne.*

(2.) * BRAGGART. *n. f.* [from *brag.*] A boaster.

Who knows himself a *braggart*,
Let him fear this; for it will come to pass,
That ever *braggart* shall be found an ass.
Shakespeare.

* BRAGGER. *n. f.* [from *brag.*] A boaster; an ostentatious fellow.—Such as have had opportunity to sound these *braggers*, thoroughly, by having sometimes endured the penance of their sottish company, have found them, in converse, empty and insipid. *South.*

BRAGGOT, [from *brag*, malt, and *gots*, a honey-comb. Old Brit.] a kind of drink made of malt, honey, and spices, much used in Wales.

BRAGGS, a village in Dorsetshire.

* BRAGLESS. *adj.* [from *brag.*] Without a boast; without ostentation.—

The bruit is, Hector's slain, and by Achilles.
——If it is so, *bragless* let it be,
Great Hector was as good a man as he.
Shakespeare.

* BRAGLY. *adv.* [from *brag.*] Finely; so as it may be bragged.—

Seest not thilk hawthorn stud,
How *bragly* it begins to bud,
And utter his tender head?
Flora now calleth forth each flower,
And bids make ready Maia's bower. *Spenser.*

BRAGWORT, a weak kind of MEAD.

BRAHAN CASTLE, the chief seat of Mr M'Kenzie of Seaforth, is situated in Rossshire, in the parish of Urray.

BRAHE, Tycho, a celebrated astronomer, descended of an illustrious family originally of Sweden, but settled at Denmark, was born Dec. 14th 1546, at Knudstorp in Schonen. He was taught Latin when seven years old, and studied five years under private tutors. His father dying, his uncle sent him, in April 1559, to study philosophy and rhetoric at Copenhagen. The great eclipse of the sun on the 21st Aug. 1560, happening at the precise time the astronomers had foretold, he began to look upon astronomy as something divine; and purchasing the tables of Stadius, gained some notion of the theory of the planets. In 1562, he was sent by his uncle to Leipsic to study law; but astronomy wholly engrossed his thoughts, and in purchasing books on that science he employed all his pocket money. Having procured a small celestial globe, he was wont to wait till his tutor was gone to bed, in order to examine the constellations and learn their names; and when the sky was clear, he spent whole nights in viewing the stars. In 1563, Brahe having quarrelled with a Danish nobleman, they fought and he had part of his nose cut off; which defect he so artfully supplied with one made of gold and silver, that it was not perceivable. About this time he began to apply to chemistry, proposing nothing less than to obtain the philosopher's stone. In 1571, he returned to Denmark; and was favoured by his mother's brother, Steno Belle, a lover of learning, with a convenient place at his castle of Herritzvad near Knudstorp, for making his observations, and building a laboratory. But marrying a country girl, beneath his rank, such a violent quarrel ensued between him and his relations, that Frederick II. king of Denmark, was obliged to interpose to reconcile them. In 1574, he read lectures upon the theory of the comets at Copenhagen.—In 1575, he began his travels through Germany, and proceeded as far as Venice: he then resolved to remove his family, and settle at Basil; but the king being informed of his design, and unwilling to lose such an ornament to his country, promised, (to enable him to pursue his studies,) to bestow upon him, for life, the island of Huen in the Sound, to erect an observatory and laboratory there, and to defray all the expences necessary for carrying on his designs. Tycho Brahe readily embraced this proposal; and accordingly the first stone of the observatory was laid August 8, 1576. The king also gave him a pension of 2000 crowns out of his treasury, a fee in Norway, and a canonry of Roshild, which brought him 1000 more. James VI. of Scotland, going to Denmark to marry the princess Anne, paid him a visit at Uranibourg, made him several presents, and with his own hand wrote a copy of verses in his praise.—After the death of king Frederic, in 1588, he was deprived of his pension, fee, and canonry; upon which, finding himself incapable of bearing the expences of his observatory, he went to Copenhagen, whither he brought some of his instruments, and

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and continued his aſtronomical obſervations in that city, till Valkendorf, chamberlain to Chriſtain IV. commanded him, by the king's order, to diſcontinue them. He then removed his family to Roſtock, and afterwards to Holſtein, to ſolicit Henry Ranzou to introduce him to the emperor, Rodolphus; and that gentleman complying, he was received by the emperor at Prague with the utmoſt civility and reſpect. That prince gave him a magnificent houſe, till he could procure one more fit for aſtronomical obſervations; aſſigned him a penſion of 300 crowns; and promiſed, upon the firſt opportunity, a fee for him and his deſcendants: but he did not long enjoy this happy ſituation; for, on the 24th Oct. 1601, he died of a retention of urine, in the 55th year of his age, and was interred very magnificently in the principal church at Prague, where a noble monument was erected to him.—His ſkill in aſtronomy is univerſally known, and he is famed for being the inventor of a new ſyſtem, which he endeavoured, though without ſucceſs, to eſtabliſh inſtead of the Copernican. He was very credulous with regard to judicial aſtrology and preſages. If he met an old woman when he went out of doors, or a hare upon the road on a journey, he uſed to turn back immediately, being perſuaded that it was a bad omen. When he lived at Uranibourg, he had at his houſe a madman, whom he placed at his feet at table, and fed himſelf. As he imagined that every thing ſpoken by mad perſons preſaged ſomething, he carefully obſerved all that this man ſaid; and becauſe it ſometimes proved true, he imagined it might always be depended on. A mere trifle put him in a paſſion; and againſt perſons of the firſt rank, with whom it was his intereſt to keep on good terms, he openly diſcovered his reſentment. He was very apt to rally others, but highly provoked if the ſame liberty was taken with himſelf. His principal works are, 1. *Progymnaſmata aſtronomica.* 2. *De mundi ætherei recentioribus phænomenis.* 3. *Epiſtolarum aſtronomicarum liber.* Of the reſt of his works Dr Hutton gives a liſt, in his *Math. and Phil. Dict.* Vol. 1. p. 225, 226.

BRAHMA. See BRAMA.

(1.) * BRAID. *adj.* [To *brede*, in *Chaucer*, is to *deceive.*] An old word, which ſeems to ſignify *deceitful.*—

Since Frenchmen are ſo *braid*,
Marry 'em that will. I'll live and die a maid.
Shakeſpeare.

(2.) * BRAID. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] A texture; knot, or complication of ſomething woven together.—

Liſten where thou art ſitting,
Under the gloſſy, cool, tranſlucent wave,
In twiſted *braids* of lilies knitting
The looſe train of thy amber-dropping. *Milton.*

No longer ſhall thy comely traces break
In flowing ringlets on thy ſnowy neck,
Or fit behind thy head, an ample round,
In graceful *braids*, with various ribbon bound.
Prior.

* *To* BRAID. *v. a.* [*brædan*, Saxon.] To wave together.—

Cloſe the ſerpent fly,
Inſinuating, wove with gordian twine
His braided train, and of his fatal guile
Gave proof unheeded. *Milton.*

—Oſier wands, lying looſely, may each of them be eaſily diſſociated from the reſt; but when *braided* into a baſket, they cohere ſtrongly. *Boyle.*—

A ribbon did the *braided* treſſes bind,
The reſt was looſe, and wanton'd in the wind.
Dryden.

Since in *braided* gold her feet is bound,
And a long trailing mantua ſweeps the ground,
Her ſhoe diſdains the ſtreet.

BRAIDALBIN, or BREADALBANE, a diſtrict of Perthſhire, extending 32 m. from E. to W. and 15 where broadeſt from S. to N. It is a mountainous country, lying among the Grampian hills, ſuppoſed to be the country anciently known by the name of ALBANIA; whence the Highlanders to this day call themſelves *Albinich.* The name, in Gaelic, *Braid Albalnn*, ſignifies the higheſt part in Scotland, as an evidence of which the rivers run partly into the eaſtern and partly into the weſtern ocean. It is bounded on the W. by Lochaber, Lorn, and Knapdale; on the N. and E. by part of Lochaber and part of Athol; and on the S. by Strathern and Monteith. It produces plenty of game and black cattle; is inhabited by Highlanders ſaid to be the moſt civilized in all Scotland; and gives the title of earl to a branch of the Campbell family who have a magnificent ſeat in it, at Taymouth. Its ancient name ALBANY, too, affords a Scots title to the D. of York. Much flax is cultivated here. Some years ago, when premiums were given for the greateſt crops, from 70 to 120 hogſheads of lintſeed were annually ſown, each peck yielding two ſtones of dreſſed flax; and when the yarn ſold higheſt, L. 2000 worth has been ſold out of the country. Oats and potatoes are the other crops. Oats yield from 4 to 6 fold; bear, at an average, ſix; ſometimes from 8 to 10. The corn raiſed now fully ſuffices the inhabitants without importation. From their potatoes ſome have diſtilled a very ſtrong ſpirit, which has been found cheaper than what is diſtilled from grain. Starch and bread are alſo made from them. *Corcur*, or the lichen omphaloides, is an article of commerce; great quantities have been ſcraped from the rocks, and exported for the uſe of the dyers, at the price of 18. or 16d. per ſtone. Many ſheep are reared here, and much wool is ſent out of the country. Few horſes are raiſed in this country: ſuch as feed on the tops of the higher hills are often afflicted with a diſtemper that commonly proves fatal, if a remedy is not applied within 24 hours. It attacks them in the month of July and Auguſt, uſually after a fall of rain, or before the dew riſes in the morning. An univerſal ſwelling ſpreads over the body; the remedy is exerciſe, chafing, and whatever promotes urine and perſpiration. The natives attribute this evil to a certain animal that ſcatters its poiſon over the graſs; but more probably, it ariſes from ſome noxious vegetable heretofore unobſerved. Before the year 1745, lord Braidalbin was obliged to keep a conſtant guard for the protection of his vaſſals cattle, or to retain ſpies among the thieviſh clans; having too much ſpirit to ſubmit to pay an infamous tax called BLACK MEAL, to the plundering chieftains as the price of their ſafety.

BRAIDE,

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BRAIDE. *n. f. obf.* a ſtart *Chaucer.*

To BRAIDE. *v. n. obf.* to ariſe, to ſtart up. *Ch.*

BRAILA, a town of European Turkey, in Walachia, ſeated on the Danube. It has a caſtle fortified with 7 towers. It was taken by the Ruſſian Gen. Ronne 1711, but reſtored afterwards.

BRAILES, a village in Warwickſhire, 3 miles from Shipton. It has a fair on Eaſter Tueſday.

BRAILESFORD, near Kedleſtone, Derbyſh.

BRAILOW, a town of Poland, in Podolia, ſeated on the river Bog, 40 miles N. of Bracklaw. Lon. 28. 0. E. Lat. 46. 12. N.

* BRAILS. *n. f.* [Sea term.] Small ropes reeved through blocks, which are ſeized on either ſide the ties, a little off upon the yard; ſo that they come down before the ſails of a ſhip, and are faſtened at the ſkirt of the ſail, to the orengles. Their uſe is when the ſail is furled acroſs, to haſl up its bunt, that it may the more readily be taken up or let fall. *Harris.*

(1.) * BRAIN. *n. f.* [*brægen*, Sax. *breyne*, Dutch.] 1. That collection of veſſels and organs in the head, from which ſenſe and motion ariſe.—The *brain* is divided into *cerebrum* and *cerebellum*. *Cerebrum* is that part of the *brain* which poſſeſſes all the upper and forepart of the *cranium*, being ſeparated from the *cerebellum* by the ſecond proceſs of the *dura mater*, under which the *cerebellum* is ſituated. The ſubſtance of the *brain* is diſtinguiſhed into outer and inner; the former is called *corticalis*, *cinerea*, or *glandulosa*; the latter, *medullaris*, *alba*, or *nervea*. *Cheſelden.*—If I be ſerved ſuch another trick, I'll have my *brains* ta'en out and buttered, and give them to a dog for a new year's gift. *Shakeſpeare's Merry Wives of Windſor.*—That man proportionably hath the largeſt *brain*, I did, I confeſs, ſomewhat doubt, and conceive it might have failed in birds, eſpecially ſuch as having little bodies, have yet large cranies, and ſeem to contain much *brain*, as ſnipes and wood cocks; but, upon trial, I find it very true. *Brown's Vulgar Errours.* 2. That part in which the underſtanding is placed; therefore taken for the underſtanding.—The force they are under is a real force, and that of their fate but an imaginary conceived one; the one but in their *brains*, the other on their ſhoulders. *Hammond.*—A man is firſt a geometrician in his *brain*, before he be ſuch in his hand. *Hale.* 3. Sometimes the affections: this is not common, nor proper.—My ſon Edgar! had he a hand to write this! a heart and *brain* to breed it in! *Shakeſpeare.*

(2.) BRAIN. See ANATOMY, INDEX.

* *To* BRAIN. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To daſh out the brains; to kill by beating out the brains.—Why, as I told thee, 'tis a cuſtom with him i' the afternoon to ſleep; there thou may'ſt *brain* him. *Shakeſpeare.*—

Outlaws of nature,
Fit to be ſhot and *brain'd* without a proceſs,
To ſtop infection; that's their proper death.
Dryden.

Next ſeiz'd two wretches more, and headlong caſt,
Brain'd on the rock, his ſecond dire repaſt.
Pope.

BRAINFIELD, a village in Northamptonſhire, near Houghton Magna and Parva.

BRAINISH. *adj.* [from *brain.*] Hotheaded; furious; as *cerebroſus* in Latin.—

In his lawleſs fit,
Behind the arras hearing ſomething ſtir,
He whips his rapier out, and cries, a rat!
And, in his *brainiſh* apprehenſion, kills
The unſeen good old man. *Shakeſpeare's Haml.*

BRAIN LE COMPTE, or BRAIN LE COMTE, a town of France, in the ci-devant Auſtrian Netherlands, and late province of Hainault; now included in one of the new departments into which Belgium is divided. It is 15 miles SW. of Bruſſels, and 9 NE. of Mons. Lon. 4. 11. E. Lat. 50. 35. N.

* BRAINLESS. *adj.* [from *brain.*] Silly; thoughtleſs; witleſs.—Some *brainleſs* man have by great travel and labour brought to paſs, that the church is now aſhamed of nothing more than ſaints. *Hooker.*—

If the dull *brainleſs* Ajax come ſafe off,
We dreſs him up in vices. *Shakeſpeare.*

The *brainleſs* ſtripling, who, expell'd the town,
Damn'd the ſtiff college, and pedantick gown,
Aw'd by thy name, is dumb. *Tickell.*

* BRAINPAN. *n. f.* [from *brain* and *pan.*] The ſkull containing the brains.—

With thoſe huge bellows in his hands, he blows
New fire into my head: my *brainpan* glows.
Dryden.

* BRAINSICK. *adj.* [from *brain* and *ſick.*] Diſeaſed in the underſtanding; addleheaded; giddy; thoughtleſs.—

Nor once deject the courage of our minds,
Becauſe Caſſandra's mad; her *brainſick* raptures
Cannot diſtaſte the goodneſs of a quarrel.
Shakeſpeare.

—They were *brainſick* men, who could neither endure the government of their king, nor yet thankfully receive the authors of their deliverance. *Knolles.*

* BRAINSICKLY. *adv.* [from *brainſick.*] Weakly; headily.—

Why worthy thane,
You do unbend your noble ſtrength to think
So *brainſickly* of things. *Shakeſpeare.*

* BRAINSICKNESS. *n. f.* [from *brainſick.*] Indiſcretion; giddineſs.

BRAINTON, a village near Hereford.

BRAINTREE, a town in Eſſex, near Bocking, called RAINS, in Doomſday book. It carries on a great manufacture of baize; and has a market on Wed. and fairs May 8. and Oct. 22. It lies 12 miles N. of Chelmsford, and 41 NE. of London. Lon. 0. 40. E. Lat. 51. 55. N.

BRAISTON, a village SE. of Derby.

* BRAIT. *n. f.* Among jewellers for a rough diamond. *Bailey.*

(1.) * BRAKE. *n. f.* [of uncertain etymology.] 1. A thicket of brambles, or of thorns.—A dog of the town uſed daily to fetch meat, and to cary the ſame unto a blind maſtiff, that lay in a *brake* without the town. *Carew.*—

If I'm traduc'd with tongues, which neither know
My faculties nor perſon; let me ſay,
'Tis but the fate of place, and the rough *brake*
That virtue muſt go through. *Shakeſpeare.*

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In every buſh and *brake*, where hap may find
The ſerpent ſleeping. *Milton.*

Full little thought of him the gentle knight,
Who, flying death, had there conceal'd his flight;
In *brakes* and brambles hid, and ſhunning mortal ſight. *Dryden's Fables.*

2. It is ſaid originally to mean *fern*.

(2.) * BRAKE. *n. ſ.* 1. An inſtrument for dreſſing hemp or flax. 2. The handle of a ſhip's pump. 3. A baker's kneading trough. 4. A ſharp bit or ſnaffle for horſes, *Dict.*—A ſmith's *brake* is a machine in which horſes, unwilling to be ſhod, are confined during that operation.

(3.) * BRAKE. The *preterite* of *break*.—He thought it ſufficient to correct the multitude with ſharp words, and *brake* out into this choleric ſpeech. *Knolles.*

BRAKEL, a town of Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia, 20 m. E. of Paderborn, ſeated on the rivulet Brught. Lon. 9. 12. E. Lat. 51. 46. N.

BRAKEN-ASH, a village in Norfolkſhire, E. of Windham.

BRAKENBURGH, in Lincoln, N. of Louth.

BRAKENDALE, near Norwich.

BRAKEN-HILL, near Carliſle.

BRAKENTHWAITE, in Cumberland, near the river Croker, N. of Lowes Water.

BRAKIT, *n. ſ. obſ.* Braggot. *Chauc.*

* BRAKY. *adj.* [from *brake*.] Thorny; prickly; rough.—Redeem arts from their rough and *braky* ſeats, where they lie hid and overgrown with thorns, to a pure open light, where they may take the eye, and may be taken by the hand. *B. Jonſ.*

BRALIO, a lofty mountain of the Alps, in the country of the Griſons.

(1.) BRAMA, BRACHMA, or BRUMA, a pagan deity of the Eaſt Indies. He is the firſt perſon of a kind of trinity in their theology; is the great progenitor of mankind; and has created as many worlds as there are conſiderable parts of his body. See BRACHMANS, BRAMINS, and INDOSTAN.

(2.) BRAMA, in ichthyology, the trivial name of a ſpecies of CYPRIANUS.

BRAMANT, a town of France, in the department of Mount Blanc, 35 m. NW. of Turin. It is ſeated on the Arck, in the valley of Maurich. Lon. 7. 5. E. Lat. 45. 25. N.

BRAMBAS, a name given by the natives of Guinea, and ſome other parts of Africa, to a peculiar ſpecies of lemon tree. The leaves are of a deep green, and very fragrant when rubbed between the hands. The fruit is very ſmall, and has a remarkably thin ſkin. *Phil. Tranſ.* N° 108.

BRAMBER, a town of Suſſex, near Steyning, 47 miles from London. It was formerly of ſome account, but has now neither market nor fair; though it ſends two members to Parliament. Lon. 0. 15. W. Lat. 50. 50. N.

(1.) * BRAMBLE. *n. ſ.* [*bremlas*, Sax. *rubus*, Lat.] 1. The blackberry buſh; the raſpberry buſh, or hind-berry. *Miller.* 2. It is taken, in popular language, for any rough prickly ſhrub.—

The buſh my bed, the *bramble* was my bow'r,
The woods can witneſs many a woful ſtore. *Spenſer.*

—There is a man hunts the foreſts that abuſes our young plants with carving Roſalind on their barks; hangs odes upon hawthorns, and elegies on *brambles*; all, forſooth, deifying the name of Roſalind. *Shakeſpeare.*—

Content with food, which nature freely bred,
On wildings and on ſtrawberries they fed;
Cornels and-*bramble* berries gave the reſt,
And falling acorns furniſh'd out a feaſt. *Dryd.*

Thy younglings, Cuddy, are but juſt awake;
No thruſtles ſhrill the *bramble* buſh forſake. *Gay.*

(2.) BRAMBLE, in botany. See RUBUS.

(3.) BRAMBLE, in geography, the name of a village in Suſſex, near E. Grinſtead.

BRAMBLE-LODGE, in the Foreſt, Hampſhire.

BRAMBLE-NET, or HALLIER, is a net for catching birds of ſeveral ſizes: the great maſhes muſt be 4 inches ſquare; thoſe of the leaſt ſize are 3 inches ſquare; and thoſe of the biggeſt, 5. In the depth they ſhould not be above 3 or 4 inches; but in length they may be enlarged at pleaſure. The ſhorteſt are 18 feet long.

(1.) * BRAMBLING. *n. ſ.* A bird, called alſo a *mountain chaffinch*. *Dict.*

(2.) BRAMBLING is a ſpecies of FRINGILLA.

BRAMBY UPON DUN, a village in Yorkſhire, N. of Doncaſter.

BRAMCOT, or BRAMCOTT, three villages; viz. 1. in Nottinghamſhire, near Derbyſh. 2. in Warwickſhire, near Bulkington; and, 3. in ditto, near Poleſworth.

BRAMCROFT CASTLE, in Shropſhire, NW. of Brown-Clee Hill.

BRAMDEAN, near Alresford, Hampſhire.

BRAME, in the iſle of Ely, Cambridgeſhire.

BRAMER, Leonard, hiſtory painter, born at Delft in 1598, learned painting under Rembrant, and imitated the manner of his maſter in ſmall. In 1614, he went to Rome for improvement, but could never diveſt himſelf of the Flemiſh gout. Yet he had a fine taſte of deſign; his expreſſion is generally good, and in ſome of his compoſitions truly noble. His colouring is very peculiar in the tints, being remarkably thin in many parts, ſo as barely to cover the pannel; yet, by his ſkilful management of the chiaro-ſcuro, it appears bright, bold, and full of luſtre; particularly in the vaſes, which have a rich and fine relievo. He had accuſtomed himſelf to paint with a very thin body of colour, to give his pictures a greater tranſparence. His works are rarely to be met with out of Italy, where he painted moſt; but they draw conſiderable prices, when entire. Three of his moſt capital pictures are, the *Raiſing of Lazarus*, (in which there is a charming oppoſition of light and ſhadow;) the *Denial of St Peter*; both preſerved at Rome; and a ſmall picture on copper, repreſenting the ſtory of *Pyramus and Thiſbe*.

BRAMERTON, a town in Norfolkſhire, between Bixley and Claxton.

BRAMEW, a village in Hampſhire, NW. of Fording-bridge.

BRAMFIELD; three villages; viz. 1. in Hertfordſhire, near Stapleford: 2. three miles from Hertford; and, 3. in Suffolk, near Walpole.

(1, 2.) BRAMFORD; three villages; viz. 1. in the High Peak of Derby: 2. in Suffolk, near Ipſwich; and,

(3.) BRAMFORD-SPEKE, in Devonſhire, 4 miles from Exeter.

(1.) BRAM-

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(1.) BRAMHALL, a town in Meath, Ireland.

(2.) BRAMHALL, Dr John, archbiſhop of Armagh, was born of an ancient family at Pontefract, about A. D. 1593. He was invited over to Ireland by the lord deputy Wentworth; and ſoon after obtained the arch-deaconry of Meath. In 1634, he was made biſhop of Londonderry, which ſee he improved very much; and ſeveral acts paſſed for aboliſhing ſee farms, recovering impropriations, &c. by which he regained to the church 30,000 or 40,000 a year. In the convocation he prevailed upon the church of Ireland to unite with the church of England, by adopting the 39 articles of that church; but could only prevail on them to accept of ſome of the canons. Articles of treaſon were exhibited againſt him in the Iriſh parliament; and at the treaty of Uxbridge in 1644, the Engliſh parliament made it a preliminary article, that Bp. Bramhall, with Abp. Laud, &c. ſhould be excepted from the general pardon. He went abroad; but on the reſtoration was appointed archbiſhop of Armagh, primate of Ireland, &c. and was choſen ſpeaker of the Houſe of Lords. He died in 1663; and was the author of ſeveral works, which have been collected in 1 vol. folio.

BRAMHAM MOOR, near Tadcaſter, Yorkſhire.

BRAMHOPE, a town two miles from Orley, Yorkſhire.

BRAMICIDE, *n. ſ.* the crime of killing a Bramin, reputed in the E. Indies, one of the five moſt heinous ſins.

BRAMINICAL, *adj.* belonging to a Bramin.

BRAMINS, the prieſts among the idolatrous Indians, the ſucceſſors of the ancient BRACHMANS. Their name is formed from BRAMA, their particular deity. They are found in Siam, Malaber, China, Coromandel, and moſt other eaſtern nations anywiſe civilized; but their chief ſeat is in INDOSTAN. They have a language peculiar to themſelves, which they call SHANSCHRIT; in which they have ſeveral ancient books, written, as is alledged, by their great prophet Brahma; as the SHASTRAM, which is their bible; and PORANE, a hiſtory which they eſteem ſacred, and pretend to have been dictated by God himſelf. There are ſeveral orders of Bramins. Thoſe who mix in ſociety are for the moſt part very corrupt in their morals: they believe that the water of the Ganges will waſh away all their crimes; and, as they are not ſubject to any civil juriſdiction, live without either reſtraint or virtue, excepting that character of compaſſion and charity which is ſo commonly found in the mild climate of India. The others, who live abſtracted from the world, are either weak-minded men or enthuſiaſts; and abandon themſelves to lazineſs, ſuperſtition, and the dreams of metaphyſics. We find in their diſputes the very ſame ideas that occur in the writings of our moſt celebrated metaphyſicians; ſuch as, ſubſtance, accident, priority, poſteriority, immutability, indiviſibility, &c. Their religion, which was anciently of the allegorical and moral kind, has degenerated into a heap of extravagant and obſcene ſuperſtitions, owing to their having realized thoſe fictions which were intended merely as ſo many ſymbols and emblems. Were it poſſible to obtain a ſight of their ſacred books, (the only remains of the Indian antiquities,) we might in ſome meaſure be enabled to remove the veil that envelopes thoſe numerous myſteries; but the following ſtory, related by Abbe Raynal, in his *Hiſt. of the Indies*, will ſhow how little reaſon there is to hope for ſuch a communication. The emperor Mahmoud Akbar had an inclination to make himſelf acquainted with the principles of all the religious ſects throughout his extenſive provinces. Having diſcarded the ſuperſtitious notions with which he had been prepoſſeſſed by his education in the Mahometan faith, he reſolved to judge for himſelf. It was eaſy for him to be acquainted with the nature of theſe ſyſtems that are formed upon the plan of making proſelytes; but he found himſelf diſappointed in his deſign when he came to treat with the Indians, who will not admit any perſon whatever to the participation of their myſteries. Neither the authority nor promiſes of Akbar could prevail with the Bramins to diſcloſe the tenets of their religion; he was therefore obliged to have recourſe to artifice. The ſtratagem he made uſe of was to cauſe a boy, of the name of Feizi, to be committed to the care of theſe prieſts, as a poor orphan of the ſacerdotal line, who alone could be initiated into the ſacred rites of their theology. Feizi, having received the proper inſtructions for the part he was to act, was conveyed privately to Benares, the ſeat of knowledge in Indoſtan; he was received into the houſe of a learned Bramin, who educated him with the ſame care as if he had been his own ſon. After the youth had ſpent ten years in ſtudy, Akbar was deſirous of recalling him: but he was ſtruck with the charms of the daughter of his preceptor. The women of the ſacerdotal tribe are looked upon as the greateſt beauties in Indoſtan. The old Bramin laid no reſtraint upon the growing paſſion of the two lovers: He was fond of Feizi, who had gained his affection by his addreſs and docility; and offered him his daughter in marriage. The young man, divided between love and gratitude, reſolved to conceal the fraud no longer; and falling at the feet of the Bramin, diſcovered the impoſture and aſked pardon for his offence. The prieſt, without reproaching him in the leaſt, ſeized a poinard which hung at his girdle, and was going to plunge it in his breaſt, if Feizi had not prevented him by taking hold of his arm. The young man uſed every means to pacify him, and declared himſelf ready to do any thing to expiate his treachery. The Bramin, burſting into tears, promiſed to pardon him on condition that he ſhould ſwear never to tranſlate the *Bedas* or ſacred volumes, or diſcloſe to any perſon whatever the ſymbol of the Bramin creed. Feizi readily promiſed all that the Bramin required: how far he kept his word is not known; but the ſacred books of the Indians have never been tranſlated by him, or any one elſe, to this day. As the Bramins are the only perſons who underſtand the language of the ſacred book, their comments on the text are the ſame as thoſe that have ever been made on religious books; all the maxims which fancy, intereſt, paſſion, or falſe zeal can ſuggeſt, are to be found in theſe volumes. See SHAFTAH and VEDAM. Mr Thomas, an Indian miſſionary, gives a very different account of the Brahmins, from the above of Abbe Raynal, in a converſation he had with a number of them, at

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a Hindoo college, near Calcutta, in Jan. 1792; which he publiſhed upon his return to England. From this, it would appear that the Brahmins are far from being bigots, and that they are equally ready to communicate and receive religious inſtruction from any ſtranger. He gives a very entertaining account, how in this converſation he led them on by his queſtions firſt to doubt of their own religious ſyſtem, and then to be ready to receive with anxiety and emotion the outlines which he gave them of the Chriſtian doctrines; along with a tranſlation of the Bible into their own language, which he put into their hands. They own a ſupreme God, who created Brama, and gave him power to create the world. They have alſo their ſubaltern deities, their pagods or temples, and idols, whom they fan to defend from flies, dancing before them. They alſo hold a feaſt in honour of the ſun, as the ſource of light and heat whereby all nature is fecundified. Their pagods conſiſt of 3 parts. The firſt is a vaulted roof, ſupported on ſtone columns; it lies open, and all perſons, without diſtinction, are allowed to enter into it. It is adorned with ſymbolical figures, made of wood, as elephants, oxen, and horſes. The 2d part is open in the day-time, and ſhut at night. It is filled with groteſque and monſtrous figures, as men with many heads and arms. The 3d, which is a kind of chancel, is kept always ſhut, with a very ſtrong gate. In this is placed the ſtatue of the deity to whom the pagod is dedicated. A great number of lamps burn day and night before the idol. The Bramins, before they go into the pagod, pull off their ſhoes, and leave them at the door. The Bramins of Siam and Coromandel maintain that the earth will be deſtroyed by fire. The former aſſert that another will riſe out of its aſhes, in which there ſhall be no ſea, nor any change of ſeaſons, but an eternal ſpring; and the latter maintain a plurality of worlds, which are alternately deſtroyed and renewed. For the aſtronomical knowledge of the Bramins, ſee OBSERVATORY.

BRAMLAW, a village in Shropſhire, between Wilmington and Hockſtow Foreſt.

(1—3.) BRAMLEY, four villages; viz. 1. in Hampſhire, near Stratfield: 2. in Surry, near Godalming: 3. in Yorkſhire, near Leeds: and,

(4.) BRAMLEY-GRANGE, in Yorkſhire, near Kirby-Maledale.

(1.) BRAMPORE, a town of India, in the province of Berar, ſubject to the Great Mogul, 220 miles E. of Surat. Lon. 77. 15. E. Lat. 21. 32. N.

(2.) BRAMPORE, or BRAMPOUR, a city of Aſia, in the dominions of the Great Mogul, and capital of Candiſh. It formerly ſtood on as much ground as London; but is now greatly decayed, and chiefly inhabited by Banians. The ſtreets are numerous, but narrow, with low thatched houſes built of earth. A few are covered with varniſhed tiles. In rainy weather many of the ſtreets are overflowed. In the market place is the ſtatue of an elephant in red ſtone, as big as the life. On the other ſide of the river, a new town is built in a better ſituation. A great trade is carried on in it, and throughout all the province, where a prodigious quantity of cotton cloth is made as cotton is in greater plenty here than in any other place of the empire. Lon. 77. 25. E. Lat. 21. 10. N.

(1.) BRAMPTON, a town of Cumberland, 8 miles NE. of Carliſle, one mile below the Picts wall, on the river Irthin; near its junction with the Gelt. It is a very ancient place, but at preſent very ſmall. It lies 311½ miles NNW. of London. Lon. 2. 40. W. Lat. 54. 58. N.

(2—14.) BRAMPTON is alſo the name of 13 villages; viz. 1. in Derbyſhire, near Cheſterfield: 2. a mile from Huntingdon: 3. in Norfolk, near Aleſham: 4. in Northamptonſh. near Rothwell: 5. in Northumberland, NW. of Alnwick: 6. near Montgomery; 7. near Purſlow; and, 8. near Wroxeter, all in Shropſhire: 9. in Suffolk, near Beccles: 10. NE. of Barnſley; 11. SE. of Doncaſter; 12. N. of Northallerton, and, 13. near Richmond; all in Yorkſhire. BRAMPTON alſo makes part of the names of other 8 villages; viz.

(15.) BRAMPTON-ABBOTS, N. of Roſs, Hereford.

(16.) BRAMPTON-BANK, in Staffordſhire, near Newcaſtle under Line.

(17.) BRAMPTON-BIERLEY, in Yorkſhire, SE. of Rotheram.

(18.) BRAMPTON-BRION, in Herefordſhire, N. of Pembridge. It has a fair June 22.

(19.) BRAMPTON-CHAPEL, and (20.) BRAMPTON-CHURCH, in Northamptonſhire, between Althorp and Boughton.

(21.) BRAMPTON-HALL, in Northamptonſhire, near Dingley and Stoke Albany.

(22.) BRAMPTON IN MORTHING, SE. of Rotheram, Yorkſhire.

BRAMSHALL, near Hartford, Hampſhire.

BRAMSHOT, two villages in Hampſhire; 1. near Elvetham; and, 2. near Petersfield.

BRAMSTON, two villages; 1. in Suſſex, SE. of Dunmow: 2. in Northamtonſh. near Wilby.

BRAMTON, in Lincolnſhire, near Torkſey.

BRAMWITH, in Yorkſhire, near Piſh-lake.

BRAMWITH-HALL, and BRAMWITH-KIRK, in Yorkſhire, 5 miles from Doncaſter.

BRAMYARD, a town in Herefordſhire, 125 miles from London. It has a market on Monday.

(1.) * BRAN. *n. ſ.* [*brenna*, Ital.] The huſks of corn ground; the refuſe of the ſieve.—

From me do back receive the flower of all,
And leave me but the *bran*. *Shakeſpeare.*

—The citizens were driven to great diſtreſs for want of victuals; bread they made of the coarſeſt *bran*, moulded in cloths; for otherwiſe it would not cleave together. *Hayward.*—In the ſifting of fourteen years of power and favour, all that came cut, could not be pure meal, but muſt have among it, a certain mixture of padar and *bran*, in this lower age of human fragility. *Wotton.*—

Then water, him, and drinking what he can,
Encourage him to thirſt again with *bran*. *Dryd.*

(2.) BRAN contains a portion of the farinaceous matter. It is leſs glutinous than the finer flour, and is ſuppoſed to have a detergent quality. Infuſions of bran are employed with this intention externally, and ſometimes likewiſe taken inwardly. Among the ancients, bran was uſed as an erotic, to excite love. Bran boiled, purges ſcurf, dandreff, and cleanſes the hands in lieu of ſoap. The dyers reckon it among the not-colouring drugs; and uſe it for making what they call the

ſour

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four waters, with which they prepare their ſeveral dyes. Bran is alſo uſed as a medicine for horſes. See FARRIERY, *Index*.

(3.) BRAN, a hill of Scotland, in Inverneſs-ſhire; ſo named, (ſays tradition,) from *Bran*, the famous dog of Fingal.

(4.) BRAN, a river. See BRAAN.

BRANCA, in writers of the middle age, the paw of a wild beaſt; a bird of prey.

BRANCASTER, a village in Norfolkſhire.

(1.) * BRANCH. *n. ſ.* [*branche*, Fr.] 1. The ſhoot of a tree from one of the main boughs.—

Why grow the *branches*, when the root is gone?
Why withèr not the leaves that want their ſap?
Shakeſpeare.

2. Any member or part of the whole; any diſtinct article; any ſection or ſubdiviſion.—

Your oaths are paſt, and now ſubſcribe your names,
That his own hand may ſtrike his honour down,
That violates the ſmalleſt *branch* herein. *Shak.*

—The belief of this was of ſpecial importance, to confirm our hopes of another life, on which ſo many *branches* of chriſtian piety do immediately depend. *Hammond.*—In the ſeveral *branches* of juſtice and charity, comprehended in thoſe general rules, of loving our neighbour as ourſelves, and of doing to others as we would have them do to us, there is nothing but what is moſt fit and reaſonable. *Tillotſon.*—This precept will oblige us to perform our duty, according to the nature of the various *branches* of it. *Rogers.* 3. Any part that ſhoots out from the reſt.—And ſix *branches* ſhall come out of the ſides of it; three *branches* of the candleſtick out of the one ſide, and three *branches* of the candleſtick out of the other ſide. *Exodus.*—His blood, which diſperſeth itſelf by the *branches* of veins, may be reſembled to waters carried by brooks. *Raleigh.* 4. A ſmaller river running into, or proceeding from, a larger.—If, from a main river, any *branch* be ſeparated and divided, then, where that *branch* doth firſt bound itſelf with new banks, there is that part of the river where the *branch* forſaketh the main ſtream, called the head of the river. *Raleigh.* 5. Any part of a family deſcending in a collateral line.—His father, a younger *branch* of the ancient ſtock planted in Somerſetſhire, took to wife the widow. *Carew.* 6. The offſpring; the deſcendant.—

Great Anthony! Spain's well-beſeeming pride,
Thou mighty *branch* of emperours and kings!
Craſhaw.

7. The antlers or ſhoots of a ſtag's horn. 8. The *branches* of a bridle are two pieces of bended iron, that bear the bit-mouth, the chains, and the curb; in the interval between one and the other. *Farrier's Dict.* 9. [In architecture.] The arches of Gothick vaults; which arches tranſverſing from one angle to another, diagonal wiſe, form a croſs between the other arches, which make the ſides of the ſquare, of which the arches are diagonals. *Harris.*

(2.) BRANCH, in botany, an arm of a tree, or a part which, ſprouting out from the trunk, helps to form the head or crown thereof. Branches do not ſpring out of the mere ſurface of the trunk, but are deeply rooted therein, ſo as not only to penetrate the cortical, but alſo the woody ſubſtance, and even the pith. The conſtitutent parts therefore of a *branch* are the ſame as of the trunk, viz. ſkin, bark, wood, and pith. See PLANTS.

(3.) BRANCHES OF A BRIDLE, (ſee § 1. *def.* 8.) on one end anſwer to the head-ſtall, and on the other to the reins, in order to keep the horſe's head in ſubjection. They are either in form of a piſtol, for young horſes to form their mouth; or after the faſhion of the ci-devant conſtable of France, proper for a horſe that carries his head well. Some are in form of a gigot, or leg, to prevent horſes from carrying too low: Some in that of a bent knee, for horſes that arm themſelves againſt the operation of the bit; and others after the French faſhion, which is hardly above $\frac{1}{4}$ of an inch at the ſevile hole, and kneed $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch at the jarret or ham. It is to be obſerved, 1. That the farther the branch is from the horſe's neck, the more effect it will have. 2. That ſhort branches, *cæteris paribus*, are ruder, and their effects more ſudden, than thoſe of longer. 3. That the branch is to be proportioned to the length of a horſe's neck; and one may ſooner err in chooſing one too ſhort than too long.

(4.) BRANCHES OF OGIVES. See § 1. *def.* 9.

(1.) * *To* BRANCH. *v. a.* 1. To divide as into branches.—The ſpirit of things animate are all continued within themſelves, and are *branched* into canals, as blood is; and the ſpirits have not only branches, but certain cells or ſeats, where the principal ſpirits do reſide. *Bacon.* 2. To adorn with needlework, repreſenting flowers and ſprigs.

In robe of lily white ſhe was array'd,
That from her ſhoulder to her heel down raught,
The train whereof looſe far behind her ſtray'd,
Branch'd with gold and pearl, moſt richly wrought. *Spenſer.*

(2.) * *To* BRANCH. *v. n.* [from the noun.] 1. To ſpread in branches.—They were trained together in their childhoods, and there rooted betwixt them ſuch an affection, which cannot chooſe but *branch* now. *Shakeſpeare.*—The cauſe of ſcattering the boughs, is the haſty breaking forth of the ſap; and therefore thoſe trees riſe not in a body of any height, but *branch* near the ground. The cauſe of the pyramis, is the keeping in of the ſap, long before it *branch*, and the ſpending of it, when it beginneth to *branch*, by equal degrees. *Bacon.*—

Plant it round with ſhade
Of laurel, ever-green, and *branching* plane. *Milt.*
Straight as a line in beauteous order ſtood,
Of oaks unſhorn a venerable wood;
Freſh was the graſs beneath, and ev'ry tree
At diſtance planted, in a due degree,
Their *branching* arms in air, with equal ſpace,
Stretch'd to their neighbours with a long embrace. *Dryden.*
One ſees her thighs transform'd, another views
Her arms ſhot out, and *branching* into boughs.
Addiſon.

2. To ſpread into ſeparate and diſtinct parts and ſubdiviſions.—The Alps at the one end, and the long range of the Appenines that paſſes through the body of it, *branch* out, on all ſides, into ſeveral different diviſions. *Addiſ.*—If we would weigh, and keep in our minds, what it is we are conſidering, that would beſt inſtruct us when we ſhould, or ſhould not, *branch* into farther diſtinctions.

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tions. *Locke.* 3. To ſpeak diffuſively, or with the diſtinction of the parts of a diſcourſe.—I have known a woman *branch* out into a long diſſertation upon the edging of a petticoat. *Spect.* 4. To have horns ſhooting out into antlers.—

The ſwift ſtag from under ground
Bore up his *branching* head. *Milton.*

BRANCHÆ, in medicine, glandular tumours in the fauces reſembling two almonds.

* BRANCHER. *n. ſ.* [from *branch.*] 1. One that ſhoots out into branches.—If their child be not ſuch a ſpeedy ſpreader and *brancher*, like the vine, yet he may yield, with a little longer expectation, as uſeful and more ſober fruit than the other. *Wotton.* 2. [*branchier*, Fr.] In falconry, a young hawk.—I enlarge my diſcourſe to the obſervation of the eires, the *brancher*, and the two ſorts of lentners. *Walton.*

BRANCHERY, in the anatomy of vegetables, the vaſcular parts of divers fruits, as apples, pears, plums, and berries.

BRANCHIÆ, [βρογχια,] in the anatomy of fiſhes, the GILLS, or parts correſponding to the lungs of land animals. All fiſhes except the cetaceous ones, and the pteromyzum, which have lungs, are furniſhed with theſe organs of reſpiration. See ZOOTOMY.

BRANCHIALE, in natural hiſtory, a name given by Mr Lhuyd to a peculiar ſpecies of FUNGITÆ, which being of a deeply ſtriated texture, is ſuppoſed to reſemble the gills of a fiſh.

(1.) BRANCHIDÆ, in antiquity, prieſts of the temple of Apollo, at Didymus in Ionia. They opened the temple of Apollo to Xerxes, who plundered it of its riches; after which, thinking themſelves not ſafe in Greece, they fled to Sogdiana, on the other ſide of the Caſpian ſea, where they built a city. (N° 2.) Alexander the Great having conquered Darius king of Perſia, and being informed of their treachery, put them all to the ſword, and razed their city; thus puniſhing the impiety of the fathers in their poſterity.

(2.) BRANCHIDÆ, in geography, a city on the frontiers of Perſia. See N° 1.

BRANCHIDES, an epithet of Apollo.

BRANCHILET, *n. ſ. obſ.* a little branch. *Ch.*

* BRANCHINESS. *n. ſ.* [from *branchy.*] Fullneſs of branches.

BRANCHING, the ramification of the horns of deer, &c. which bears an analogy with the vegetation of plants. *Phil. Tranſ.* N° 227.

BRANCHIOSTEGI, in ichthyology, one of the general claſſes of fiſhes; the characters of which are, that the rays of the fins are of a bony ſubſtance; but theſe fiſh have no bones or officula at the branchiæ, as the malacopterygious and acanthopterygious fiſhes all have.

BRANCHIOSTEGIOUS, *adj.* belonging to the branchioſtegi.

* BRANCHLESS. *adj.* [from *branch.*] 1. Without ſhoots or boughs. 2. Without any valuable product; naked.—

If I loſe mine honour,
I loſe myſelf; better I were not yours,
Than yours ſo *branchleſs*. *Shakeſpeare.*

BRANCHON, a town of France, in the ci-devant Auſtrian Netherlands, 2 miles S. of Ramillies, and 3 N. of Namur, ſeated on the river Mehaigne. It is now included in the new department of Sambre and Meuſe. Lon. 4. 40. E. Lat. 50. 36. N.

To BRANCH-STAND, *v. a.* among falconers, a term uſed to ſignify the making a hawk leap from tree to tree, till the dog ſprings the game.

(1.) BRANCHUS, [βρογχος,] in medicine, a ſpecies of catarrh, affecting chiefly the jaws, throat, and *arteria aſpera.*

(2.) BRANCHUS, in the mythology, a Theſſalian youth, to whom Apollo is fabled to have given the ſpirit of divination.

* BRANCHY. *adj.* [from *branch.*] Full of branches; ſpreading.—

Trees on trees o'erthrown,
Fall cracking round him, and the foreſts groan;
Sudden full twenty on the plain are ſtrow'd,
And lopp'd, and lighten'd of their *branchy* load. *Pope.*

—What carriage can bear away all the various, rude, and unwieldy loppings of a *branchy* tree at once? *Watts.*

* BRAND. *n. ſ.* [*brand*, Sax.] 1. A ſtick lighted in the fire.—

Have I caught thee?
He that parts us ſhall bring a *brand* from heav'n,
And fire us hence. *Shakeſpeare.*

Take it, ſhe ſaid, and when your needs require,
This little *brand* will ſerve to light your fire. *Dryden.*

—If, with double diligence they labour to retrieve the hours they have loſt, they ſhall be ſaved; though this is a ſervice of great difficulty, and like a *brand* plucked out of the fire. *Rogers.* 3. [*brandar*, Runick.] A ſword, in old language.

They looking back, all the eaſtern ſide beheld
Of paradiſe, ſo late their happy ſeat!
Wav'd o'er by that flaming *brand*; the gate
With dreadful faces throng'd, and fiery arms. *Milton.*

3. A thunderbolt.—

The fire omnipotent prepares the *brand*,
By Vulcan wrought, and arms his potent hand. *Granville.*

4. A mark made by burning a criminal with a hot iron, to note him as infamous; a ſtigma.—Clerks convict ſhould be burned in the hand, both becauſe they might taſte of ſome corporeal puniſhment, and that they might carry a *brand* of infamy. *Bacon.*—The rules of good and evil are inverted, and a *brand* of infamy paſſes for a badge of honour. *L'Eſtrange.* 5. Any note of infamy.—

Where did his wit on learning fix a *brand*,
And rail at arts he did not underſtand? *Dryd.*

* *To* BRAND. *v. a.* [*branden*, Dutch.] To mark with a brand, or note of infamy.—

Have I liv'd thus long a wife, a true one,
Never yet *branded* with ſuſpicion? *Shakeſpeare.*

—The king was after *branded*, by Perkin's proclamation, for an execrable breaker of the rights of holy church. *Bacon.*—

Brand not their actions with ſo foul a name;
Pity, at leaſt, what we are forc'd to blame. *Dryden.*

Ha! dare not for thy life, I charge thee, dare not
To *brand* the ſpotleſs virtue of my prince. *Rowe.*

Our Punick faith
Is infamous, and *branded* to a proverb. *Addiſon.*

—The

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—The ſpreader of the pardons anſwered him an eaſier way, by *branding* him with hereſy. *Atterb.*

BRANDARIS, a ſpecies of STROMBUS.

BRANDEIS, a town of Bohemia, ſeated on the Elbe; 10 miles NE. of Prague. Lon. 14. 25. E. Lat. 50. 15. N.

BRANDEN, a town in Northumberland, ſeated on the Breamiſh, SE. of Cheviot hills.

(1.) BRANDENBURG, a city of Germany, and capital of the marquiſate (N° 2.) ſituated on the river Havel. It is divided into the old and new town, and was anciently the ſee of a biſhop. It has a ſmall colony of French Calviniſts, with a manufacture of cloth, fuſtian, and canvas; and a pretty good trade is carried on by the Havel. The fort looks like a ſuburb, and contains a riding-ſchool, with the cathedral church. The greateſt part alſo of the members of the chapter, which ſtill ſubſiſts, and is compoſed of a Lutheran provoſt, dean, ſenior, ſubſenior, and 3 other canons, reſide in it. They are diſtinguiſhed by a croſs of gold enamelled with violet, terminating in 8 points; and have a conſiderable eſtate. Near the town is a lake of ſome extent. Lon. 14. 5. E. Lat. 52. 45. N.

(2.) BRANDENBURG, an extenſive marquiſate of Germany, bounded by Mecklenburgh and Pomerania on the N. Poland, on the E. Sileſia, Luſatia, Saxony, Anhalt, and Magdebourg, on the S. and by part of the latter and Lunenburg, on the W. Its greateſt length is about 200 miles, and its greateſt breadth near 100. Its northern ſituation makes it very cold for 7 or 8 months in winter. The ſoil in general is far from being fruitful, a great part of it conſiſting of ſand: yet there are ſeveral fruitful ſpots in it; and the whole, under the laſt and preſent reign, has been greatly improved, and better peopled than formerly. In its different diſtricts, it produces wheat, millet, flax, tobacco, woad, and other herbs. Alum, ſalt petre, amber, iron-ſtone, colour earths, and medicinal ſprings, are found in it. It abounds in cattle, and eſpecially ſheep; and the woods not only ſupply the inhabitants with fuel, but with timber, charcoal, tar, and wood-aſhes, both for domeſtic uſes and for exportation. The culture of ſilk alſo is carried on with great ſucceſs. The principal rivers are the Elbe, the Oder, the Prignitz, the Havel, the Warte, and the Spree. Some of the rivers and lakes abound in fiſh, and are united by canals. The marquiſate conſiſts of 120 towns, above 2500 villages, and contains about 800,000 inhabitants. The nobility and towns conſtitute the ſtates, whoſe aſſembly houſe is in the Spandau-ſtreet at Berlin, and who ſtill enjoy ſome ſmall remains of their ancient privileges. The hereditary offices of the marquiſate are a marſhal, chamberlain, cup-bearer, purveyor, ſewer, treaſurer, and ranger. The king of Pruſſia, (who is elector of Brandenburgh,) and his whole court, are Calviniſts; but the religion of moſt of the inhabitants is Lutheraniſm. The churches of both perſuaſions are well endowed, and the laity jointly employed by the government. The Roman catholics are all tolerated, and every inhabitant enjoys full liberty of conſcience. Various manufactures, moſt of which were introduced by the French refugees, are carried on in the marquiſate, eſpecially at Berlin and Potſdam; where are alſo excellent painters, ſtatuaries, and engravers. By theſe manufactures, fabrics, and arts, not only large ſums are kept in the country, but alſo imported from other parts, to which conſiderable quantities of the manufactures, and natural productions, are exported. For the education of youth, and the advancement of learning, beſides Latin ſchools in ſeveral places, and gymnaſia, there is an univerſity at Frankfort on the Oder, and an academy at Berlin. Brandenburg is of great antiquity. Some hiſtorians ſay it was founded by the Sclavonians, who give it the name of *Branber*, which ſignifies the Guards of the Foreſts; and the Germans called it *Branburgh*. The emperor Henry I. fortified it in 923, to ſerve as a rampart againſt the Huns, and beſtowed the government on Sifroi, Count of Ringelheim, with the title of *Margrave* or *Marquis*. It deſcended to Geron, Margrave of Luſatia; which paſſed into the families of Staden, Aſcania, Bellenſtadt, and that of Bavaria, till the Emperor Sigiſmund, with the conſent of the ſtates of the empire in 1416, gave perpetual inveſtiture to Frederick VI. of Nuremberg; who alſo, in 1417, received at the diet of Conſtance, the inveſtiture of the country of Brandenburg; having had previouſly conferred upon him the dignities of elector and arch-chamberlain of the holy Roman empire. Brandenburg remained long in ſubjection to Poland; and the inveſtiture of Pruſſia was granted by the Poliſh kings to each ſucceeding margrave. Frederick-William, having concluded a treaty with the king of Poland, was acknowledged to be ſovereign of Ducal Pruſſia by an aſſembly of the ſtates of Konigſberg, A. D. 1663. By the treaty of Vienna the Emperor confirmed this title; and Frederick, the ſon of Frederick-William, was proclaimed king of Pruſſia, Jan. 18, 1701. See PRUSSIA. This monarch poſſeſſes the ſeventh place among the electors. As arch-chamberlain, he carries the ſceptre before the emperor at his coronation, and brings him water in a ſilver baſon to waſh with. In the college of princes of the empire, he has 5 voices. His aſſeſſment, as elector, is 60 horſe and 227 foot, or 1828 florins in lieu of them. To the chamber of Wetzlaer his quota is 811 rix dollars, 58 kruitzers, each term. For the government of this country, and the adminiſtration of juſtice, there are ſeveral ſupreme colleges and tribunals; particularly diſtinct boards for the departments of war, foreign affairs, and the finances. There is a ſupreme eccleſiaſtical council and conſiſtory for the Lutherans; a ſupreme directory of the Calviniſt church; a ſupreme medicinal college; a ſupreme mine office; a board of trade, &c. Thoſe of the French nation, ſettled in this country, are allowed particular courts of their own. The amount of the yearly revenues of the Marche, ariſing from the domains, protection-money paid by the Jews, tolls, land tax, mines, foreſts, duties on ſtamp-paper, ſalt, and various other impoſts and exciſes, is computed at about 2,500,000 crowns, but the money is ſaid to be much inferior in goodneſs to that of Saxony and the domains of Hanover. During the continental war of 1756, it was extremely debaſed. Some eſtimate the whole number of the inhabitants of the royal and electoral domin-

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ons at 5,000,000, and the revenues at about 2,000,000 ſterling. Upwards of 100,000 men are kept on foot in time of peace, which are ſaid to coſt more than half of the royal revenue. Theſe troops are under ſtrict diſcipline, very expert at their exerciſe, always in readineſs to march, and always complete. Each regiment has a particular diſtrict allotted for its quarters and raiſing recruits. The infantry are clothed in blue, and the horſe and dragoons in white; and both are required to hear a ſermon twice a day when in quarters or garriſons. In time of peace they are allowed, for ſeveral months in the year, to hire themſelves out, or to follow their buſineſs, either as burghers or peaſants, in the canton where they are quartered; but they are not allowed *to marry*. A conſiderable part of theſe troops are ſtationed in the Marche, particularly at Berlin and Potſdam. The corps of huſſars alone amount to about 10,000 men. Brandenburg is divided, in general, into the electoral and new Marches. The former is again ſubdivided into the old Marche, the Pregnitz, the middle Marche, and the Ucker Marche. The old Marche, which lies on the weſt ſide of the Elbe, between the river and Lunenburg, is about 50 miles in length, and in breadth about 30.

(3.) BRANDENBURGH, NEW, the capital of the circle of Stargard, in the duchy of Mecklenburg, and the largeſt town in the dominions of the D. of Mecklenburg-Strelitz. The houſes are neat, the ſtreets remarkably clean. It carries on a good trade in hops. Lon. 13. 22. E. Lat. 53. 40. N.

BRANDESTON, a town in the county of Suffolk, near Glemham.

BRANDEUM, in eccleſiaſtical writers, a linen cloth put over the tombs of St Peter and St Paul, and left there for ſome time; by which it is ſuppoſed to acquire a degree of ſanctity, ſo as to be worſhipped as a relic; and for that purpoſe is frequently ſent by the pope as a preſent to ſome prince. In this ſenſe, Brandeum amounts to the ſame with *ſanctuarium*, *ſudarium*, *orarium*, and *velum*. The uſe of brandea was introduced as a means of diffuſing and propagating the virtues and influences of relics, without moving or any way impairing the ſubſtance of them; the tranſlation of relics in early days being interdicted.

* BRANDGOOSE. *n. ſ.* A kind of wild fowl, leſs than a common gooſe, having its breaſt and wings of a dark colour. *Dict.*

BRAND HERRING, a ſpecies of herring caught by the Dutch.

BRANDING, in the face or hand, a puniſhment inflicted by law on various offences, by burning with a hot iron, after the offender hath been once admitted to benefit of clergy.

BRAND IRON; 1. a hot iron to brand a criminal: 2. an iron to ſet a veſſel upon over a fire.

* *To* BRANDISH. *v. a.* [from *brand*, a ſword.] 1. To wave, or ſhake, or flouriſh, as a weapon.—

Brave Macbeth,
Diſdaining fortune, with his *brandiſh'd* ſteel,
Like valour's minion, carved out his paſſage.
Shakeſpeare.

He ſaid, and *brandiſhing* at once his blade,
With eager place purſued the flaming ſhade.
Dryden.

Let me march their leader, not their prince;
And, at the head of your renown'd Cydonians,
Brandiſh this ſword. *Smith.*

2. To play with; to flouriſh.—He, who ſhall employ all the force of his reaſon, only in *brandiſhing* of ſyllogiſms, will diſcover very little. *Locke.*

BRANDLESHAM, a village in Lancaſhire, N. of Bury.

* BRANDLING. *n. ſ.* The name of a particular worm.—The dew-worm, which ſome alſo call the lob-worm, and the *brandling*, are the chief. *Walton.*

BRANDOLINUS, Aurelius, ſirnamed LIPPUS, from his being blear-eyed, was born at Florence in the 15th century, and was eſteemed a great orator, poet, and muſician. Matthias Corvinus, king of Hungary, invited him to teach oratory in his dominions; which he did many years at Buda and Strigonia with great ſucceſs. On his return to Florence, he took orders, and preached to the moſt crowded audiences. He died at Rome of the plague in 1498. He wrote ſeveral works which were eſteemed: particularly, 1. A commentary on St Paul's Epiſtles: 2. A Treatiſe *De Lege*: 3. Two Books of Chriſtian Paradoxes: 4. Three Books *De Ratione Scribendi*: 5. A Dialogue *De humanæ vitæ conditione, et tollenda corporum ægritudine*: dedicated to king Matthias: and, 6. The Scripture hiſtories in heroic verſe.

(1.) BRANDON, a town of Suffolk in England, ſeated on a little river Ouſe, over which it has a bridge, and a ferry at a mile's diſtance: whence it is divided into Brandon, and Brandon-ferry; which laſt has the moſt buſineſs, becauſe commodities are brought thither from the iſle of Ely. From this place the duke of Hamilton has his Britiſh title. Lon. 0. 55. E. Lat. 52. 30. N.

(2—7.) BRANDON, the name of 6 Engliſh villages, viz. 1. EAST, and 2. WEST, in Durham: 3. in Lincolnſhire, S. of Newark: 4. in Norfolkſhire, E. of Dereham: 5. in Shropſhire, E. of the river Temde: and 6. in Warwickſhire between Rugby and Coventry.

(8.) BRANDON HILL, in Kerry, Ireland.

BRANDRITH, 1. a trevet or other iron ſtand, whereon to ſet a veſſel over the fire: 2. a fence or rail about the mouth of a well.

BRANDSBURTON, a village in Yorkſhire, near Fordlingham.

BRAND SUNDAY, *Dimanche des Brandons*, in French eccleſiaſtical writers, denotes the firſt Sunday in Lent; ſo called on account of an ancient practice in the Lionnois, where the peaſants, in the night of this day, walked about their orchards, gardens, &c. with lighted torches, or fire-brands in their hands; in which plight they viſited every tree, and addreſſing themſelves to them one after another, threatened that if they did not bear fruit well the enſuing ſeaſon, they ſhould be cut down to the ground and burnt. This is evidently a relict of Paganiſm; the like having been practiſed by the ancient Romans in February.

BRANDT, Gerard, a learned proteſtant divine, born at Amſterdam in 1626, and ſucceſſively miniſter in ſeveral places of the Netherlands. He wrote ſome works which are eſteemed; particularly, The Hiſtory of the reformation of the Netherlands, 4 vols 4to; and the life of admiral Ruy-

ter;

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ter; both written in the Flemiſh to ue. He died at Rotterdam in 1685.

(1.)* BRANDY. *n.ſ.* contracted, from *brandewine*, or *burnt wine*.] A ſtrong liquor diſtilled from wine.—If your maſter lodgeth at inns, every dram of *brandy* extraordinary that you drink, raiſeth his character. *Swift's Footman.*

(2.) BRANDY is extracted from other liquors, as well as wine, by diſtillation. See DISTILLATION. It is ſpirituous and inflammable. Wine brandy, made in France, is eſteemed the beſt in Europe. It is made wherever wine is made; and wine that is pricked is preferred to good wine. The chief brandies for foreign trade, and thoſe accounted beſt, are the brandies of Bourdeaux, Rochelle, Cogniac, Charenton, Nantz, the iſle of Rhe, Orleans, and the ci-devant provinces of Blaſois, Poitou, Touraine, Anjou, Burgundy, and Champaign.

(3.)* BRANDY-WINE. The ſame with *brandy*.—It has been a common ſaying, A hair of the ſame dog; and thought, that *brandy-wine* is a common relief to ſuch. *Wiſeman.*

BRANE, the name of two rivers in S. Wales. 1. in Brecknockſhire; and, 2. in Caermarthenſhire.

BRANFORD, a town of the United States, in New-Haven county, Connecticut; ſeated on a ſmall ſtream that runs into Long-iſland ſound. It contains a church and above 10 houſes compactly built. It is about 8 miles SE. by E. from New-Haven, and 191 from Philadelphia. Lon. 1. 52. E. Lat. 41. 18. N.

* BRANGLE. *n.ſ.* [uncertainly derived.] Squabble; wrangle; litigious conteſt.—The payment of tythes is ſubject to many frauds, *brangles*, and other difficulties, not only from papiſts and diſſenters, but even from thoſe who profeſs themſelves proteſtants. *Swift.*

* *To* BRANGLE. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To wrangle; to ſquabble.—When polite converſing ſhall be improved, company will be no longer peſtered with dull ſtory-tellers, nor *brangling* diſputers. *Swift.*

* BRANGLEMENT. *n.ſ.* [from *brangle*.] The ſame with *brangle*.

BRANHAM, a town near Tadcaſter, Yorkſh

(1.) BRANK, an inſtrument uſed in Staffordſhire, for correcting ſcolding women. It is a ſort of head-piece, which opens and incloſes the head of the ſcold, while an iron, ſharp as a chiſſel, enters the mouth, and ſubdues the more dreadful weapon within. Thus harneſſed, the offender is led in triumph through the ſtreets. Dr Plott, in his hiſtory of Staffordſhire, gives a minute deſcription and figure of the inſtrument, which is there called a *ſcolding bridle*; and tells us, he looks upon it "as much to be preferred to the ducking-ſtool, which not only endangers the health of the party, but alſo gives the tongue liberty betwixt every dip; to neither of which this is at all liable." But with all due deference to Dr Plott, we would equally diſapprove of both. The morals of the people will never be amended by hardening their feelings againſt the ſufferings of others, however guilty or worthleſs. A good education will do more to reform the inferior claſſes, than all the ducking ſtools and ſcolding bridles, (we might add *Bridewells* and halters,) that ever were invented.

(2.)* BRANK. *n.ſ.* Buckwheat, or *brank*, is a grain very uſeful and advantageous in barren lands. *Mortimer.*

BRANKER, or BRANCKER, Thomas, an eminent mathematician of the 17th century, was born in Devonſhire, in 1636, and ſtudied at Exeter College, Oxford, where he took his degree of M. A. in 1658. His ſkill in mathematics and chemiſtry recommended him to Lord Brereton, who gave him the rectory of Tilſton. He was afterwards appointed maſter of the well-endowed ſchool at Macclesfield: where he died in 1676, aged 40. He wrote a Latin work *De Sphæra*; printed at Oxford in 1662; and a tranſlation of Rhonius's Algebra: Lond. 4to, 1668.

BRANKESTON, a village in Northumberland, between Flodden and the Tweed.

BRANKSEY, or BROWNSEA, a ſmall iſland of Dorſetſhire in the harbour of Pool.

BRANK URSINE, in botany. See ACANTHUS.

BRANLIN, in ichthyology, a ſpecies of ſalmon, with ſeveral tranſverſe black ſtreaks, reſembling the impreſſion of ſo many fingers.

BRANNODUNUM, in ancient geography, a town of Britain, on the Sinus Metaris. Under the Romans it had a garriſon of the Equites Dalmatiæ. It is now called BRANCASTER.

* BRANNY. *adj.* [from *bran*.] Having the appearance of bran.—It became ſerpiginous, and was, when I ſaw it, covered with white *branny* ſcales. *Wiſeman.*

BRANOGENIUM, or BRANONIUM, } a town of the Coritani, in the heart of Britain. From the diſtances in the Itinerary, Camden ſuppoſes it to be WORCESTER.

BRANSAUGH, a village in Northumberland, near Akelington.

BRANSBY, in Yorkſhire, S. of Hovingham.

BRANSCOMB, 3 m. S. of Culliton, Devonſh.

BRANSDALE, in Yorkſhire, near Baſedale.

BRANSELS, *n.ſ. obſ.* 1. brawls. *Spenſer. Bailey.* 2. A ſort of tune. *Aſh.*

BRANSFORD BRIDGE, on the Swift, Leiceſt.

BRANSKA, a town of Tranſylvania, ſituated on the river Mariſh; 25 miles S. of Weiſſenburgh. Lon. 23. 15. E. Lat. 46. 5. N.

BRANSPETH CASTLE, among the hills SW. of Durham, W. of the Wear.

BRANSTILL CASTLE, E. of Ledbury, Hereford.

BRANSTON, the name of 3 villages: viz. 1. near Lincoln: 2. in Norfolkſh. E. of Rapeham; 3. in Staffordſh. on the Trent, SW. of Burton.

BRANSWELL, in Lincolnſh. near Temple.

BRANT, a river in Angleſea.

BRANT-BROUGHTON, a town in Lincolnſhire.

BRANTETH WELL, a mineral ſpring in Dumfries-ſhire, which, though ſituated ſeveral yards deep in an extenſive moſs, contains a very ſtrong ſulphureous water, more powerful than that of Moffat, and uſed with great ſucceſs in ſcorbutic and ſcrophulous caſes.

BRANTHAM, a town near Deadham, Suffolk.

BRANTHINGHAM, a village in Yorkſhire, between S. Cave and Hull.

BRANTHINGTHORP in Leiceſterſhire.

BRANTHING-THORP-WESTCOT, near Leiceſter.

BRANTOFT, in Durham, near Gretham.

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BRANTON, 3 villages; 1. in Devonſh. near Raleigh: 2. in Northumberland, 6 miles W. of Alnwick: 3. in Weſtmoreland, NE. of Appleby.

BRANTSNAP, W. of Cuckfield, Suſſex.

BRAON, a river of Scotland, in Roſs-ſhire.

(1.) BRASAVOLUS, Antonius Muſa, M.D. and profeſſor of natural philoſophy, at Ferrara, flouriſhed in the middle of the 16th century. He wrote, 1. Commentaries on Hippocrates' Aphoriſms: 2. *Examen omnium ſimplicium*, quorum uſus eſt in publicis officinis: printed at Rome, 1536, and Lyons, 1544, 8vo. 3. A treatiſe on Venereal Diſeaſe; and ſeveral other medical works. He uſed the form of a dialogue, between himſelf and an apothecary. His ſtyle is clear and ſimple.

(2.) BRASAVOLUS, Jerom, the ſon of Antonius Muſa, (N° 1.) was alſo a phyſician and medical author. He wrote, An Expoſition of the firſt Book of Hippocrates; Ferrara, 4to, 1595: and A treatiſe *De officiis Medicis*.

BRASBOROUGH, a town in Lincolnſhire.

BRASCOT, a village in Leiceſterſhire.

BRASEM, in ichthyology, a name by which ſome have called an American fiſh of the SMARIS kind, more commonly known by its Braſilian name, ACARPEBA.

BRASEWELL, a village in Yorkſhire, 3 m. E. of Griſbone.

BRASIATOR, *n. ſ.* [old law Lat.] a brewer.

BRASIATRIX, *n. ſ. obſ.* a female brewer.

BRASIDAS, a celebrated general of the Lacedemonians, who flouriſhed A. A. C. 424. He defeated the Athenians by land and ſea; took many places, and rendered his country formidable to all the neighbouring ſtates. He conquered the Athenians on their attempting to ſurpriſe Amphipolis, but died of the wounds he received in that battle. See ATTICA, § 13, and LACEDEMON.

BRASIDIA, an anniverſary ſolemnity at Sparta, in memory of BRASIDAS. It was celebrated with ſacrifices and games, wherein none were permitted to contend but free-born Spartans. Whoever neglected to be preſent at the ſolemnity was fined.

* BRAISER. *n. ſ.* [from *braſs.*] 1. A manufacturer that works in braſs.—There is a fellow ſomewhat near the door, he ſhould be a *braſier* by his face. *Shakeſpeare.*—*Braſiers* that turn handirons, pots, kettles, &c. have their lathe made different from the common turners lathe. *Moxon.* 2. A pan to hold coals. [probably from *embraſer*, Fr.] It is thought they had no chimneys, but were warmed with coals on *braſiers*. *Arbuthnot.*

(1.) BRASIL, or BRAZIL, a large country of South America, being the eaſtermoſt part of that continent, lying between the equinoctial line and 35° Lat. S.; and between 35° and 60° Lon. W. It is about 1560 miles in length, and 1000 in breadth; but meaſuring along the coaſt, it is 2000 miles long, and including its windings 3000. It is bordered with mountains that open at due diſtances, and form good harbours where veſſels may lie in ſafety. It is bounded on the W. by Paraguay and Amazonia; on the SE. and N. by the Atlantic Ocean.

(2.) BRASIL, APPEARANCE, CLIMATE, PRODUCTIONS, &c. OF, The firſt aſpect of Braſil from the ſea is rather unfavourable, as it appears high, rough, and unequal; but on a more narrow inſpection, nothing can be more delightful, the eminences being covered with woods, and the valleys with the moſt refreſhing verdure. In ſo vaſt a tract of land, it cannot be imagined that the climate will be found at all equal, or the ſeaſons uniform. The northern provinces are ſubject to heavy rains, variable winds, tornadoes, ſtorms, and the utmoſt fury of the elements; while the ſoutherly regions are bleſſed with all the comforts which a fine fertile ſoil and temperate climate can afford. In ſome of the provinces the heat of the climate favours the generation of a great variety of poiſonous reptiles; ſome of which, as the LIBOYA, or *roebuck* ſnake, are ſaid to extend to the length of 30 feet, and to be 2 or 3 yards in circumference. The rattle ſnake and other reptiles of the ſame kind, grow likewiſe to an enormous ſize; and the ſerpent called IBIBABOKA is affirmed to be ſeven yards long, and half a yard in circumference, poſſeſſed too of a poiſon inſtantaneouſly fatal to the human race. Here alſo are ſcorpions, ant-bears, tygers, porcupines, jaronveras, and an animal called TAPIRASSOU, which is the production of a bull and an aſs, having a great reſemblance to both. No country on earth affords a greater number of beautiful birds, or greater variety of the moſt exquiſite fruits; but the chief commodities are Braſil wood, ebony, dyeing woods, ambergris, roſin, balſams, indigo, ſweetmeats, ſugar, tobacco, gold, diamonds, beautiful pebbles, cryſtal, emeralds, jaſper, and other precious ſtones; in all which the Portugueſe carry on an amazing trade. The gold and diamond mines are but a recent diſcovery: they were firſt opened in 1681; and have ſince yielded above five millions Sterling annually, of which ſum a fifth belongs to the crown. So plentiful are diamonds in this country, that the court of Portugal hath found it neceſſary to reſtrain their importation, to prevent too great a diminution of their value. They are neither ſo hard nor ſo clear as thoſe of the Eaſt Indies, nor do they ſparkle ſo much, but they are whiter. The Braſilian diamonds are ſold 10 per cent cheaper than the Oriental ones, ſuppoſing the weights to be equal. The largeſt diamond in the world was ſent from Braſil to the king of Portugal. It weighs 1680 carats, or 12¼ ounces; and has been valued at L.56,787,500.

(3.) BRASIL, HISTORY OF. Braſil was accidentally diſcovered by the Portugueſe in 1500.—Emanuel, king of Portugal, had equipped a ſquadron of 13 ſail, carrying 1200 ſoldiers and ſailors deſtined for the E. Indies, under the conduct of Peter Alvarez Cabral. This admiral quitting Liſbon on the 9th of March 1500, ſtruck out to ſea to avoid the coaſt of Guinea, and ſteered his courſe ſouthward, that he might the more eaſily turn the Cape of Good Hope, which projects a good way into the ocean. On the 24th of April, he got ſight of the continent of South America, which he judged to be a large iſland at ſome diſtance from the coaſt of Africa. Coaſting along for ſome time, he ventured to ſend a boat on ſhore; and was aſtoniſhed to obſerve the inhabitants entirely different from the Africans in features, hair, and

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and complexion. It was found, however, impracticable to ſeize upon any of the Indians, who retired with great celerity to the mountains on the approach of the Portugueſe; yet, as the ſailors had diſcovered a good harbour, the admiral thought proper to come to an anchor, and called the bay *Puerto Seguro*. Next day he ſent another boat on ſhore, and had the good fortune to lay hold on two of the natives, whom he clothed and treated kindly, and then diſmiſſed, to make a proper report to their countrymen. The ſtratagem had the deſired effect. The Indians having heard the relation of the priſoners, immediately crowded to the ſhore, ſinging, dancing, and ſounding horns of different kinds; which induced Cabral to land, and take poſſeſſion in the name of his ſovereign. As ſoon as the court of Liſbon had ordered a ſurvey to be taken of the harbours, bays, rivers, and coaſts of Braſil, and was convinced that the country afforded neither gold nor ſilver, they held it in ſuch contempt, that they ſent thither none but condemned criminals and abandoned women. Two ſhips were ſent every year from Portugal, to carry the refuſe of the kingdom to this new world, and to bring home parrots and woods for the dyers and cabinet makers. Ginger was afterwards added; but ſoon after prohibited, leſt it ſhould interfere with the ſale of the ſame article from India. In 1548, the Jews many of whom had taken refuge in Portugal, beginning to be perſecuted by the inquiſition, were ſtripped of their poſſeſſions, and baniſhed to Braſil. Here, however, they were not entirely forſaken. Many of them found kind relations and faithful friends; others, who were known to be men of probity and underſtanding, obtained money in advance from merchants of different nations with whom they had formerly had tranſactions. By the aſſiſtance of ſome enterpriſing men, they were enabled to cultivate ſugar canes, which they firſt procured from the iſland of Madeira.—Sugar, which till then had been uſed only in medicine, became an article of luxury. Princes and great men were eager to procure this new luxury. This circumſtance proved favourable to Braſil, and enabled it to extend its ſugar plantations.—The court of Liſbon, notwithſtanding its prejudices, began to be ſenſible, that a colony might be beneficial to the mother country, without producing gold or ſilver; and this ſettlement, which had been wholly left to the care of the coloniſts, was now thought to deſerve ſome kind of attention; and accordingly Thomas de Souza was ſent thither, in 1549, to regulate and ſuperintend it. This able governor began by reducing theſe men, who had hitherto lived in a ſtate of anarchy, into proper ſubordination, and bringing their ſcattered plantations cloſer together; after which he applied himſelf to acquire ſome information reſpecting the natives, with whom he knew he muſt be inceſſantly engaged either in traffic or war. This was no eaſy matter. Braſil was full of ſmall nations, ſome of which inhabited the foreſts, and others lived in the plains and along the rivers. Some had ſettled habitations; but the greater number of them led a roving life, and moſt of them had no intercourſe with each other. It is not to be ſuppoſed that ſuch a people would be at all diſpoſed to ſubmit to the yoke which the Portugueſe wanted to put upon them on their arriyal. At firſt they only declined all intercourſe with theſe ſtrangers: but finding themſelves purſued in order to be made ſlaves, and to be employed in the labours of the field, they reſolved to murder and devour all the Europeans they could ſeize upon. The relations of the ſavages, that were taken priſoners, alſo frequently attempted to reſcue them, and were ſometimes ſucceſsful; ſo that the Portugueſe were forced to attend to the double employments of labour and war. Sonza did not bring a ſufficient number of forces to change the ſituation of affairs. Indeed by building San Salvador, he gave a centre to the colony; but the honour of ſettling, extending, and making it really uſeful to the mother country, was reſerved for the Jeſuits who attended him. Theſe men, who for their arts of inſinuation and addreſs have been equalled by none, diſperſed themſelves among the Indians. When any of the miſſionaries were murdered, they were immediately replaced by others; and ſeeming to be inſpired only with ſentiments of peace and charity, the Indians, in proceſs of time, grew not only familiar with, but paſſionately fond of them. As the miſſionaries were too few in number to tranſact all the buſineſs themſelves, they frequently deputed ſome of the moſt intelligent Indians in their ſtead. Theſe men having diſtributed hatchets, knives, and looking-glaſſes, among the ſavages they met with, repreſented the Portugueſe as a harmleſs, humane, and good ſort of people. The proſperity of Braſil, which was viſible to all Europe, excited the envy of the French, Spaniards, and Dutch ſucceſſively. The latter attempted the conqueſt of the whole. Their admiral, Henry Lonk, arrived, in the beginning of the year 1630, with 46 men of war, on the coaſt of Fernambucca, one of the largeſt and beſt fortified captainſhips of theſe parts. He reduced it after ſeveral obſtinate engagements. The troops he left behind ſubdued Temaraca, Pareiba, and Rio Grande, in 1633, 1634, and 1635. Theſe, as well as Fernambucca, furniſhed annually a large quantity of ſugar, a great deal of wood for dyeing, and other commodities. The Dutch were ſo elated with the acquiſition of this wealth, that they determined to conquer all the Braſils, and entruſted Maurice of Naſſau with the conduct of this enterpriſe. That general reached the place of his deſtination in the beginning of 1637. He found the ſoldiers ſo well diſciplined, the commanders ſuch experienced men, and ſo much readineſs in all to engage, that he directly took the field. He was ſucceſſively oppoſed by Albuquerk, Barjola, Lewis Rocea de Borgia, and the Braſilian Cameron, the idol of his people, who was paſſionately fond of the Portugueſe, brave, active, cunning, and wanted no qualification neceſſary for a general, but to have learned the art of war under able commanders. Theſe ſeveral chiefs exerted their utmoſt efforts to defend the poſſeſſions that were under their protection; but their endeavours proved ineffectual. The Dutch ſeized upon Siara, Seregippe, and the greater part of Bahia. Seven of the 15 provinces which compoſed the colony had already ſubmitted to them, and they flattered themſelves that one or two cam-

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paigns would make them masters of the rest; when they were suddenly checked by the revolution, which banished Philip IV. and placed the duke of Bragazna on the throne. After this the Portuguese recovering their spirits, drove the Dutch out of Brasil, and have continued masters of it ever since.

(4.) BRASIL, ORIGINAL INHABITANTS OF. The Aborigines, or original natives of Brasil, chiefly inhabit the inland parts of the country; and are divided into different tribes, called Tapinamboes, Tobajaras, Petiguaras, Tapayas, &c. They speak different languages, but they all agree in wearing no cloathes. They are of a copper colour, with long coarse black hair on their heads, but without any on the other parts of their bodies, like the rest of the Americans. They are strong, lively and gay, and subject to few diseases. They adorn themselves with feathers, and are fond of feasts, at which they dance immoderately. They have no temples, nor any other signs of religion; and they make no scruple to marry their nearest relations. They have huts made of the branches of trees, and cover them with palm tree leaves. Their furniture consists chiefly in their hammocks, and dishes or cups, made of calibashes, painted without of a red colour, and black within. Their knives are made of a sort of stone and split canes: and they have baskets of different sizes, chiefly made of palm tree leaves. Their arms are bows, arrows, and wooden clubs. When they travel, they fasten their hammocks between two trees, and sleep all night in them.

(5.) BRASIL, PROVINCES OF. Brasil, is divided into the following provinces, viz. Paria, Maragnano, Siara, Rio Grande, Pareiba, Tamarica, Fernambucca, Seregippe, Bahia, Porto Seguro, Esperito Santo, Lio de Janeiro, Angra, St Vincent, and Del Rey. See these articles.

(6.) BRASIL, REVENUE AND TRADE OF. The crown revenue arising from this colony is estimated at two millions sterling in gold, besides the duties on merchandise imported from that quarter. This indeed is more than a fifth of the produce by the mines; but, every other consequent advantage considered, it probably does not much exceed the truth. The excessive confluence of the people to the Brasil colonies, not only enlarges the imports of gold, but what is of infinitely more importance to Europe in general, the exportation of the manufactures of this hemisphere. Great Britain sends woollen manufactures; such as fine broad medley cloths, fine Spanish cloths, scarlet and black cloths; serges, duroys, druggets, sagathies, shalloons, camblets, and Norwich stuffs; black Colchester bays; says, and perpetuanus called *long ells*; hats, stockings, and gloves. Holland, Germany, and France, chiefly export fine hollands, bone-lace, and fine thread; silk manufacture, pepper, lead, block tin, and other articles, are also sent from different countries. England likewise trades with Portugal, for the use of the Brasils, in copper and brass, wrought and unwrought pewter, and all kinds of hardware: all which articles have so enlarged the Portuguese trade, that, instead of 12 ships usually employed in the Brasil commerce, there are now never fewer than 100 sail of vessels constantly going and returning to those colonies. To all this may be added the vast slave trade carried on with the coast of Africa for the use of the Brasil colonies. Indeed the commerce of Brasil alone is sufficient to raise Portugal to a considerable height of naval power, as it maintains a constant nursery of seamen; yet a certain infatuation in the policy of the country has prevented that effect even amidst all these extraordinary advantages. All the ships in this trade, being under the direction of the government, have their appointed seasons for going and returning, under convoy of a certain number of men of war; nor can a single ship clear out or go, except with the fleet, but by a special licence from the king, which is seldom granted. It is plain, that such restriction must be prejudicial to the general commerce, though possibly the crown revenue may be guarded thereby. The fleets sail at the following periods: That to Rio de Janeiro sets sail in January; the fleet to Bahia, or the bay of All Saints, in February; and the third fleet, to Fernambucca, in the month of March.

(II. 1.) * BRASIL. BRAZIL. *n. s.* An American wood, commonly supposed to have been thus denominated, because first brought from Brasil: though Huet shews it had been known by that name many years before the discovery of that country; and the best sort comes from Fernambuc. It is used by turners, and takes a good polish; but chiefly in dying, though it gives but a spurious red. *Chambers.*

(2.) BRASIL WOOD is of a red colour, and very heavy. It is denominated according to the places from whence it is brought; Brasil of Fernambucca, Japan, Lamon, &c. For its description, &c. see CÆSALPINIA.

BRASILETTO, the same with Brasil wood.

BRASILIANS, the inhabitants of Brasil. See BRASIL, § 4.

BRASILIAN STONE, a species of stone found in Brasil, which is flexible. "No quality, (says Dr James Hutton, in his description of one of these stones,) is more inconsistent with the character of a stone than flexibility. A flexible stone, therefore, presents an idea, which naturally strikes us with surprise. For though, among mineral bodies, we find flexible substances of the stony kind, such as mica, mountain leather, and amianthus, these minerals owe their flexibility, either to their thinness or to the fibrous structure of their parts. Therefore, when a stone of any considerable thickness is said to have reflexibility, we are led to think, that here is something very extraordinary, and we wish to know, upon what depends that quality, no wise proper to a stone. Such, however, is the stone from Brasil, of which the Baron de Dietrich read a description in the Royal Academy of Sciences, in Jan. 1784. There is a specimen of a stone which corresponds with that description, inserted in the *Journal de Physique*, for 1784, (at present in the Museum of Mr Weir,) which belonged to the late Lord Gardenstone. The length of the stone, which I have examined, is 12 inches, the breadth about 5, and the thickness half an inch. When this stone is supported by the two ends, in a horizontal position, the middle

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dle part bends by its own weight, more than a quarter of an inch from the ſtraight line. This ſpecies of flexibility may certainly be made a proper object of ſcientifical inveſtigation." The Doctor adds, that the ſtone "has a certain flexibility to which neither the terms *ductile* nor *elaſtic*, will properly apply. The flexibility of this ſtone is ſo eaſy, compared with the rigidity of its ſubſtance, and its elaſticity ſo ſmall compared with its flexibility, that there muſt be in this body, ſome mechanical ſtructure, by which this unnatural degree of flexibility is produced, *i. e.* a flexibility, which is not inherited in the general ſubſtance of the body. Now the ſubſtance of this ſtone being chiefly quartz, the moſt rigid and inflexibile of all materials, and the ſtone, at the ſame time, bending in ſuch an eaſy manner, there is reaſon to conclude, that this riſes from no principle of flexibility in the general ſubſtance of the ſtone, but from ſome ſpecies of articulation in the ſtructure of it, or among its conſtituent parts, which, while it preſerves the component particles in one entire maſs, ſuffers the parts to move a certain ſpace in relation to each other." Dr Hutton then gives an account of different examinations he made by the microſcope, by ſplitting and by the blow-pipe; from which he concludes, that the "particles of quartz, which have little coheſion, are bound together by thin plates of tranſparent mica; and theſe connecting plates being flexible, this allows a certain motion of the rigid particles among themſelves, without the fracture or general ſeparation of the ſtone."

BRASINA, *n. ſ.* in old records, a brewhouſe.

* BRASING. *adj.* [from *braſs.*] Made of *braſs* It is now leſs properly written according to the pronunciation *brazen.*

BRASIUM, *n. ſ.* [old law Lat.] malt.

(1.) BRASLAU, a palatinate of Lithuania.

(2.) BRASLAU, or BRASLAW, } The capital of the Palatinate. (N° 1.) It is a large town, ſeated on a lake, 70 miles NE. of Wilma. Lon. 26. 5. E. Lat. 56. 20. N.

BRASMA, a name given by Dioſcorides and other ancient botaniſts, to a decayed or light kind of black pepper.

To BRASQUE, *v. a.* in chemiſtry, to line or coat the interior of a crucible. (*Crell's Chemical Journal.*) This word is ſaid by Leonhardi, in his German tranſlation of Macquer's Dictionary, to be already adopted by Engliſh chemiſts.

BRASQUED, *part. adj.* Lined; coated.

(1.) * BRASS. *n. ſ.* [*bras*, Sax. *prés*, Welch.] 1. A yellow metal, made by mixing copper with lapis calaminaris. It is uſed, in popular language, for any kind of metal in which copper has a part.

—*Braſs* is made of copper and calaminaris. *Bacon.*

Mens evil manners live in *braſs*, their virtues
We write in water. *Shakeſpare.*

Let others mold the running maſs
Of metals, and inform the breathing *braſs*.
Dryden.

2. Impudence.

(2.) BRASS, or as the French call it *yellow copper*, is alſo made of copper and zinc. See CHEMISTRY, INDEX. The firſt formation of braſs, as we are aſſured by ſcripture, was prior to the flood, and diſcovered in the 7th generation from Adam, (Gen. iv.) But the uſe of it was not, as is generally believed, and the Arundelian marbles aſſert, previous to the knowledge of iron. They were both firſt known in the ſame generation, and firſt wrought by the ſame diſcoverer. And the knowledge of them muſt have been equally carried over the world afterwards, with the ſpreading of the colonies of the Noachidæ. An acquaintance with the one or the other was abſolutely neceſſary to the coloniſts, in clearing away the wood about their ſettlements, and erecting houſes for their habitations. The ancient Britons, though acquainted from the remoteſt periods with the uſe of both theſe metals, remained long ignorant, that they were to be obtained in the iſland. Before this diſcovery, they imported all their iron and braſs from the continent. And when they had at length detected the former in their own hills, they continued to import the latter. In the earlieſt ages, whoſe manners have been delineated by hiſtory, the weapons of warriors were invariably framed of this factitious metal; and the moſt authentic of all the profane records of antiquity, the Arundelian marbles, for that reaſon, miſtakenly date the firſt diſcovery of iron a couple of centuries below the Trojan war. Every military nation is naturally ſtudious of brightneſs in its arms; and the Britons, particularly, gloreid in that of theirs. For this reaſon the nations ſtill fabricated their arms of braſs, even long after the Arundelian era for the diſcovery of iron; and the Britons continued to import it from the continent, though they had found iron to be a native of the country, and could have ſupplied themſelves with a ſufficient quantity of it. Mr Whitaker, in his *Hiſtory of Mancheſter*, ſuppoſes, that when the Britons derived their iron and braſs from the continent, they purchaſed the latter at an eaſier expence than the former. The Gauls had many large braſs works in Britain, but ſeem to have had very few iron forges. And this would naturally induce the Belgæ to be leſs diligent in their inquiry after the veins of copper and calamine at home, than for the courſes of the iron ore; though the one was equally diſcoverable in the iſland as the other, and lay equally within the Belgic regions of it. Braſs being thus cheaper than iron, they neceſſarily formed with it ſome domeſtic as well as military implements. Such were common among the Gauls; and ſuch were familiar to the Britons, either imported into the iſland, as ſome actually were, or manufactured within it, as others alſo aſſuredly were. The Britons had certain braſs foundaries erected among them, and minted money, and fabricated weapons of braſs. In this condition of the works, the Romans entered the iſland. And ſeeing ſo great a demand among the natives for this article, they would ſpeedily inſtruct them to diſcover the materials of it among themſelves. This muſt unavoidably have reſulted from the conqueſt of the Romans. The power of ſurpaſſing their new ſubjects with ſo unexpected a diſcovery would naturally ſtimulate the pride of the Roman intellect; and the deſire of obliging themſelves with ſo cheap a ſupply of that uſeful metal, ſtationary as they were in that kingdom, would alſo

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alſo equally actuate the ſelfiſhneſs of the Romans. The veins of copper and calamine would be eaſily found out by an experienced inquirer after them; and the former metal is therefore diſtinguiſhed among the Welſh, only by the Roman appellation of *cyprium*, *koppr*, or copper. And many founderies of braſs appear to have been eſtabliſhed in the iſland. Some had been erected before, one perhaps within the confines of every kingdom, and probably in the vicinity of every capital. One at leaſt would be neceſſary, in order to ſupply the armoury of the principality: and one perhaps was ſufficient for moſt of the Britiſh ſtates. But ſeveral appear now to have been ſettled in every kingdom, and one perhaps near every ſtationary town. Two have been diſcovered in the ſingle county of Eſſex, and within a narrow portion of it at Fifield and Danbury. And a third was placed upon Eaſterly Moor in Yorkſhire, 12 miles to the NW. of York, and in the neighbourhood of Iſurium or Aldborough.

(3.) BRASS, or BRAZEN, *adj.* See BRAZEN.

(4.) BRASS COLOUR, a colour prepared by the braziers and colour-men to imitate braſs. There are two ſorts of it; the red braſs or bronze, and the yellow or gilt braſs; the latter is made only of copper filings, the ſmalleſt and brighteſt that can be found; with the former they mix ſome red ochre, finely pulverized; they are both uſed with varniſh.—To make a fine braſs that will not take any ruſt or verdigris, it muſt be dried with a chafing diſh of coals as ſoon as it is applied.—The fineſt braſs colour is made with powder braſs imported from Germany, diluted into a varniſh, made and uſed after the following manner: The varniſh is compoſed 1 lb. 4 oz. of ſpirit of wine, 2 oz of gum-lac, and 2 oz. of ſandarac; theſe two laſt drugs are pulverized ſeparately, and afterwards put to diſſolve in ſpirit of wine, taking care to fill the bottle but half full. The varniſh being made, mix the quantity to be uſed with the pulverized braſs, and apply it with a ſmall bruſh to what is to be coloured. But too much muſt not be mixed at once, becauſe the varniſh being very apt to dry, there would not be time to employ it all ſoon enough; it is therefore better to make the mixture at ſeveral times. In this manner figures of plaſter are coloured, and looks as well as if they were of caſt braſs.

(5.) BRASS, CORINTHIAN, famous in antiquity, is a mixture of gold, ſilver, and copper. L. Mummius having ſacked and burnt the city of Corinth, A. A. C. 146, it is ſaid this metal was formed from the immenſe quantities of gold, ſilver, and copper, wherewith that city abounded, thus melted and run together by the violence of the conflagration.

(6.) BRASS LEAF is made of copper, beaten out into very thin plates, and afterwards rendered yellow. The German artiſts, particularly thoſe of Nuremberg and Augſburg, are ſaid to poſſeſs the beſt method of giving to theſe thin plates of copper a fine yellow colour like gold, by ſimply expoſing them to the fumes of zinc, without any real mixture of it with the metal. Theſe plates are cut into little pieces, and then beaten out fine like leaves of gold; after which they are put into books of coarſe paper, and ſold at a low price for the vulgar kinds of gilding. The parings or ſhreds of theſe very thin yellow leaves being well ground on a marble plate, are reduced to a powder ſimilar to gold; which ſerves to cover, by means of gum water or ſome other glutinous fluid, the ſurface of various mouldings or pieces of curious workmanſhip, giving them the appearance of real bronze, and even of fine gold, at a very trifling expence, becauſe the gold colour of this metallic powder may be eaſily raiſed and improved by ſtirring it on a wide earthen baſon over a ſlow fire.

(7.) BRASS LUMPS, a common name given by miners to the globular pyrites. See PYRITES.

(8.) BRASS THRICE CALCINED, in the glaſs trade, is a preparation which ſerves the glaſſmen to give many very beautiful colours to their metal. To prepare it, place thin plates of braſs on tiles on the feet of the furnace near the occhis; let it ſtand to be calcined there for 4 days, and it will become a black powder ſticking together in lumps. Powder this, ſift it fine, and recalciſe it 4 or 5 days more; it will not then ſtick together, but remain a looſe powder, of a ruſſet colour. This is to be calcined a 3d time in the ſame manner; but great care muſt be taken in the 3d calcination, that it be not overdone nor underdone; the way to be certain when it is right is, to try it ſeveral times in glaſs while melting. If it makes it, when well purified, to ſwell, boil, and riſe, it is properly calcined; if not, it requires longer time. This makes, according to the different proportion in which it is uſed, a ſea-green, an emerald-green, or a turcoiſe colour. Braſs, by long calcination alone, and without any mixture, affords a fine blue or green colour for glaſs; but they have a method of calcining it alſo with powdered brimſtone, ſo as to make it afford a red, a yellow, or a chalcedony colour, according to the quantity and other variations in the uſing it. The method of making the calcination is this: Cut thin plates of braſs into ſmall pieces with ſhears, and lay them ſtratum ſuper ſtratum, with alternate beds of powdered ſulphur, in a crucible; calcine this for 24 hours in a ſtrong fire; then powder and ſift the whole; and finally expoſe their powder upon tiles for 12 days to a reverberating furnace; at the end of this time, powder it fine, and keep it for uſe. The glaſs-makers have alſo a method of procuring a red powder from braſs, by a more ſimple calcination, which ſerves them for many colours. The method is this: They put ſmall and thin plates of braſs into the arches of the glaſs furnaces, and leave them there till they are ſufficiently calcined, which the heat in that place, not being enough to melt them, does in great perfection. The calcined matter powdered, is of a duſky red, and requires no farther preparation.

(1.) BRASSA, one of the Shetland iſles, lying in the ſound, (N° 2.) Lon. 0. 10. W. Lat. 60. 10. N.

(2.) BRASSA SOUND, an extenſive Sound, on the coaſt of Shetland, in which 1000 veſſels might be commodiouſly moored. It abounds with herrings. The Dutch have ſometimes had 2000 buſſes in it, in one ſummer.

BRASSADELLA, } or BRASSIDELLA, in bo-
FRASSATELLA, } tany, a name given by many authors to the ophioglo ſſum.

BRASSAW, or CRONSTAT, a ſtrong town of Tran-

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Tranſylvania, in Burezland; ſeated on the river Buxel. Lon. 25. 55. E. Lat. 46. 30. N.

BRASSE, in ichthyology, a ſpecies of PERCA.

(I) BRASSICA, CABBAGE: A genus of the ſiliquoſa order, and tetradynamia claſs of plants; ranking under the Siliquoſæ, in the natural method. The calyx is erect and converging; the ſeeds are globular; the gland between the ſhorter ſtamina and the piſtillum, and between the longer ones and the calyx. There are 12 ſpecies, viz.

1. BRASSICA ALPINA, with the radical leaves egg-ſhaped, and erect petals.

2. BRASSICA ARVENSIS, with ſcolloped leaves embracing the ſtem; the higheſt heart-ſhaped; and moſt entire.

3. BRASSICA CAMPESTRIS, with a ſlender root and ſtem, leaves uniform, heart-ſhaped, and ſeſſile.

4. BRASSICA CHINENSIS, with very entire oval leaves; the floral leaves lanceolated and embracing the ſtem; the calyxes longer than the claw of the petals.

5. BRASSICA ERUCA, with lyrated leaves, ſhaggy ſtem, and ſmooth capſules.

6. BRASSICA ERUCASTRUM, with runcinate leaves, a hiſpid ſtem, and poliſhed capſules. In theſe two ſpecies, and the VESICARIA, (N° 11.) the ſtyle is enſiform: In all the reſt it is obtuſe.

7. BRASSICA NAPUS, with the root ſtem ſpindle-ſhaped.

8. BRASSICA OLERACEA, with the radical ſtem growing columnar and fleſhy.

9. BRASSICA ORIENTALIS, with heart-ſhaped ſmooth leaves, embracing the ſtem, and four cornered capſules.

10. BRASSICA RASSA, with the radical ſtem growing orbicular, depreſſed, and fleſhy.

11. BRASSICA VESICARIA, with runcinate leaves, and hiſpid capſules covered with a tumid calyx.

12. BRASSICA VIOLACEA, with lanceolated, egg-ſhaped, ſmooth, undivided, and dentated leaves.

(II.) BRASSICÆ, CULTURE OF THE. The CAMPESTRIS, (N° 3.) never varies. It grows naturally on the ſea-ſhore, near Dover. It has a perennial branching ſtalk, in which it differs from all the other ſpecies. In very ſevere winters, when the other ſorts is deſtroyed, this is a neceſſary plant, for the moſt ſevere froſts do not injure it. The flower-ſtalks grow from the end of the branches, and ſpread out horizontally; but thoſe which ariſe from the centre of the plants grow erect, and ſeldom put out branches. The cauliflower has been much more improved in Britain than in any other part of Europe. In France they rarely have cauliflowers till Michaelmas, and Holland is generally ſupplied with them from Britain. In many parts of Germany there were none of them cultivated till within a few years paſt, and moſt parts of Europe are ſupplied with ſeeds from Britain. The CHINENSIS, (N° 4.) which is generally known, by the title of *rape* or *cole-ſeed*, is much cultivated in the iſle of Ely, and ſome other parts of England, for its ſeed, from which rape oil is drawn; and it hath alſo been cultivated of late years, in other places, for feeding cattle, to great advantage. The cole ſeed, when cultivated for feeding cattle, ſhould be ſown about the middle of June. The ground for this ſhould be prepared in the ſame manner as for turnips. The quantity of ſeeds for an acre of land is from 6 to 8 lb. and as the price of the ſeed is not great, ſo it is better to allow 8 lb. for if the plants are too cloſe in any part, they may be eaſily thinned when the ground is hoed, which muſt be performed in the ſame manner as is practiſed for turnips, with this difference only, of leaving theſe much nearer together; for as they have fibrous roots and ſlender ſtalks, ſo they do not require near ſo much room. Theſe plants ſhould have a ſecond hoeing about 5 or 6 weeks after the firſt, which, if well performed in dry weather, will entirely deſtroy the weeds, ſo they will require no farther culture. Where there is not an immediate want of food, theſe plants had better be kept as a reſerve for hard weather, or ſpring-feed, when there may be a ſcarcity of other green food. If the heads are cut of, and the ſtalks left in the ground, they will ſhoot again early in the ſpring, and produce a good ſecond crop in April; which may be either fed off, or permitted to run to ſeeds, as is the practice where this is cultivated for the ſeeds; but if the firſt is fed down, there ſhould be care taken that the cattle do not deſtroy their ſtems, or pull them out of the ground. As this plant is ſo hardy as not to be deſtroyed by froſt, ſo it is of great ſervice in hard weather for feeding ewes; for when the ground is ſo hard frozen that turnips cannot be taken up, theſe plants may be cut off for a conſtant ſupply. This will afford late food after the turnips are run to ſeed; and if it is afterwards permitted to ſtand for ſeed, one acre will produce as much as, at a moderate computation, will ſell for 5l. clear of charges. Partridges, pheaſants, turkeys, and moſt other fowls, are very fond of this plant; ſo that wherever it is cultivated, if there are any birds in the neighbourhood, they will conſtantly lie among theſe plants. The ſeeds of this plant are ſown in gardens for winter and ſpring ſallads, this being one of the ſmall ſallad herbs. The common white, red, flat, and long-ſided cabbages, are chiefly cultivated for autumn and winter uſe; the ſeeds of theſe ſorts muſt be ſown the beginning or middle of April, in beds of good freſh earth; and when the young plants have about 8 leaves, they ſhould be pricked out into ſhady borders, about 3 or 4 inches ſquare, that they may acquire ſtrength, and to prevent their growing long ſhanked. About the middle of June they muſt be tranſplanted out, where they are to remain. If they are planted for a full crop in a clear ſpot of ground, the diſtance from row to row ſhould be 3½ feet, and in the rows 2½ aſunder: if the ſeaſon ſhould prove dry when they are tranſplanted out, they muſt be watered every other evening until they have taken freſh root. Afterwards, as the plants advance in height, the earth ſhould be drawn about the ſtems with a hoe, which will keep it moiſt about their roots, and greatly ſtrengthen the plants. Theſe cabbages will ſome of them be fit for uſe ſoon after Michaelmas, and will continue until the end of February, if they are not deſtroyed by bad weather; to prevent which, the gardeners near London pull up their cabbages in November, and trench their ground up in ridges, laying their cabbages again their ridges as cloſe as poſſible on one ſide, carry-

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ing their ſtems in the ground: in this manner they let them remain till after Chriſtmas, when they cut them for the market; and although the outer part of the cabbage be decayed, (as is often the caſe in very wet or hard winters,) yet, if the cabbages were large and hard when laid, the inſide will remain ſound. The Ruſſian cabbage was formerly in much greater eſteem than at preſent, it being now only to be found in particular gentlemen's gardens, who cultivate it for their own uſe. This muſt be ſown late in the ſpring, and managed as thoſe before directed, only, that theſe muſt be ſooner planted out, and muſt have an open clear ſpot of ground, and require much leſs diſtance every way, as it is but a very ſmall hard cabbage. This ſort will not continue long before they will break and run up to ſeed. The early and ſugar-loaf cabbages are uſually ſown for ſummer uſe, and are what the gardeners about London commonly call *Michaelmas cabbages*. The ſeaſon for ſowing of theſe is about the end of July, or beginning of Auguſt, in an open ſpot of ground; and when the plants have got 8 leaves, they muſt be put into beds at about 3 or 4 inches diſtant every way, that they may grow ſtrong and ſhort ſhanked; and toward the end of October they ſhould be planted out: the diſtance that theſe require is, 3 feet row from row, and 2½ aſunder in the rows. The ground muſt be kept clean from weeds, and the earth drawn up about the plants. If they are of the early kind, they will turn in their leaves in May; when the gardeners near London, to obtain them a little ſooner, tie in their leaves cloſe with a ſlender oſier twig to blanch their middle; by which means they have them at leaſt a fortnight ſooner than they could have if they were left untied. The EARLY CABBAGE being the firſt, we ſhould plant the fewer of them, and a greater quantity of the ſugar loaf kind, which comes after them; for the early kind will not ſupply the kitchen long, generally cabbaging apace, and ſoon growing hard and burſting open; but the ſugar-loaf kind is ſlow in cabbaging; and being hollow, continues long. It may be planted out in February, and will ſucceed as well as if planted earlier; with this difference only, that they will be later before they cabbage. Some plants of the early kind ſhould be reſerved in a well ſheltered ſpot of ground to ſupply a defect; for in mild winters many of the plants are apt to run to ſeed, eſpecially when they are ſown too early, and in ſevere winters they are often deſtroyed. The SAVOY CABBAGES are propagated for winter uſe, being generally eſteemed the better when pinched by the froſt. They muſt be ſown about the end of April, and treated after the manner of the common white cabbage; only they may be planted cloſer; 2½ feet ſquare will be ſufficient. Theſe are always much better in an open ſituation, clear from trees and hedges; for in thoſe places they are apt to be eaten by caterpillars, &c. eſpecially if the autumn prove dry. The BROCCOLI may alſo be treated in the ſame manner, but need not be planted above one foot aſunder in rows of two feet wide; theſe are never eaten till the froſt has rendered them tender, being otherwiſe tough and bitter. The ſeeds of the broccoli, of which there are ſeveral varieties, viz. the Roman or purple, the Neapolitan or white, and the black broccoli, with ſome others, but the Roman is preferred to them all), ſhould be ſown about the end of May, or beginning of June; and when the plants are grown to have 8 leaves, tranſplant them into beds, like the common cabbage; and toward the end of July they will be fit to plant out; which ſhould be done into ſome well ſheltered ſpot of ground, but not under the drip of trees; about a foot and a half diſtant, in rows of two feet wide. The ſoil ought to be rather light than heavy: if they ſucceed well, (as they doubtleſs will, unleſs the winter prove extremely hard), they will begin to ſhew their ſmall heads, of a purple colour, about the end of December, and will continue eatable till the middle of April. The brown or black broccoli is by many perſons greatly eſteemed, though it doth not deſerve a place in the kitchen garden where the Roman broccoli can be obtained, which is much ſweeter, and will continue longer in ſeaſon. But the brown ſort is much hardier, ſo that it will thrive in the coldeſt ſituations, where the Roman broccoli is ſometimes deſtroyed. The brown ſort ſhould be ſown in the middle of May, and managed like the common cabbage, and ſhould be planted about 2½ feet aſunder. As they grow very tall, they ſhould have the earth drawn up to their ſtems as they advance in height. They do not form heads ſo perfect as the Roman broccoli; the ſtems and hearts of the plants are the parts which are eaten. The Roman broccoli (if well managed) will have large heads, which appear in the centre of the plants like cluſters of buds. Theſe heads ſhould be cut before they run up to ſeed, with about 4 or 5 inches of the ſtem; the ſkin of theſe ſtems ſhould be ſtripped off before they are boiled. After the firſt heads are cut off, there will be a great number of ſide ſhoots produced from the ſtems, which will have ſmall heads to them, but are full as well flavoured as the large. The Naples broccoli has white heads very like thoſe of the cauliflower, and eats ſo like it as not to be diſtinguiſhed from it.—Beſides this firſt crop of broccoli, (which is uſually ſown in the end of May,) it will be proper to ſow another crop the beginning of July, which will come in to ſupply the table the latter end of March and the beginning of April; and being very young, will be extremely tender and ſweet. To preſerve good ſeeds of this kind of broccoli, a few of the largeſt heads of the firſt crop ſhould be let remain to run up to ſeed, and all the under ſhoots ſhould be conſtantly ſtripped off, leaving only the main ſtem to flower and ſeed. If this be duly obſerved, and no other ſort of cabbage permitted to ſeed near them, the ſeeds will be as good as thoſe procured from abroad, and the ſort may be preſerved in perfection many years. The TURNIP ROOTED CABBAGE was formerly more cultivated in Britain than at preſent; other ſorts have been introduced which are much better flavoured. It is ſeldom good but in hard winters, which render it tender. At the end of June the plants ſhould be tranſplanted out where they are to remain, allowing them two feet diſtance every way, obſerving to water them, until they have taken root; and as their ſtems advance, the earth ſhould be drawn up to them with a hoe, which will preſerve a moiſ-

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a moiſture about their roots, and prevent their ſtems from drying and growing woody, ſo that the plants will grow more freely; but it ſhould not be drawn very high, for as it is a globular part of the ſtalk which is eaten, ſo that ſhould not be covered. In winter they will be fit for uſe, when they ſhould be cut off, and the ſtalks pulled out of the ground, being good for nothing after the ſtems are cut off. As food for cattle, however, the cultivation of this ſpecies deſerves particular attention. See RURAL ECONOMY. The CURLED COLEWORT, or Siberian brocoli, is now more generally eſteemed than the former, being extremely hardy, and always ſweeter in ſevere winters than in mild ſeaſons. This may be propagated by ſowing the ſeeds in the beginning of July; and when the plants are ſtrong enough they ſhould be planted in rows about a foot and a half aſunder, and ten inches diſtance in the rows. Theſe will be fit for uſe after Chriſtmas, and continue good until April. The MUSK CABBAGE may be propagated in the ſame manner as the common cabbage, and ſhould be allowed the ſame diſtance: it will be fit for uſe in October, November, and December; but if the winter proves hard, they will be deſtroyed much ſooner than the common ſort. The common COLEWORT, or Dorſetſhire kale, is now almoſt loſt near London, where their markets are uſually ſupplied with cabbage plants inſtead of them. The beſt method to cultivate this plant in the fields is, to ſow the ſeeds about the beginning of July, chooſing a moiſt ſeaſon, which will bring up the plants in about ten days or a fortnight; the quantity of ſeed for an acre of land is 9lb; when the plants have got 5 or 6 leaves they ſhould be hoed, as is practiſed for turnips, cutting down all the weeds from amongſt the plants, and alſo thinning the plants where they are too thick; but they ſhould be kept thicker than turnips, becauſe they are more in danger of being deſtroyed by the fly: this work ſhould be performed in dry weather, that the weeds may be killed. About ſix weeks after, the plants ſhould have a ſecond hoeing, which, if carefully performed in dry weather, will entirely deſtroy the weeds, and make the ground clean, ſo that they will require no farther culture. In ſpring they may be either drawn up and carried out to feed the cattle, or the cattle may be turned in to feed upon them: but the former method is to be preferred, becauſe there will be little waſte; whereas when the cattle are turned in amongſt the plants, they will tread down and deſtroy more than they eat, eſpecially if they are not fenced off by hurdles. The two laſt ſorts are varieties fit only for a botanic garden, being of no uſe. They are annual plants, and periſh when they have perfected their ſeeds. The beſt method to ſave the ſeeds of all the ſorts of cabbages is, about the end of November, to pull up ſome of the beſt cabbages, and carry them to ſome ſhed, where they ſhould be hung up 3 days by their ſtalks, that the water may drain from between their leaves. Then plant them in ſome border near a hedge or pale, quite down to the middle of the cabbage, leaving only the upper part of the cabbage above ground, obſerving to raiſe the earth above it, ſo that it may ſtand a little above the level of the ground: eſpecially if the ground is wet, they will require to be raiſed pretty much above the ſurface. If the winter ſhould prove very hard, lay a little ſtraw lightly upon them, to ſecure them from the froſt, taking it off as often as the weather proves mild, leaſt by keeping them too cloſe they ſhould rot. In ſpring they will ſhoot out ſtrongly and divide into a great number of ſmall branches. Therefore ſupport their ſtems, to prevent their being broken off by the wind: and if the weather ſhould be very hot and dry when they are in flower, refreſh them with water once a-week all over the branches, which will greatly promote their ſeeding, and preſerve them from mildew. When the pods begin to turn brown, cut off the extreme part of every ſhoot with the pods, which will ſtrengthen the ſeeds; for theſe ſeeds which grow near the top of the ſhoots, are very ſubject to run to ſeed before they cabbage. When the ſeeds begin to ripen, be particularly careful that the birds do not deſtroy it. The beſt method to prevent this, is to get a quantity of birdlime, and dawb over a parcel of ſlender twigs, which ſhould be faſtened at each end to ſtronger ſticks, and placed near the upper part of the ſeed in different places, ſo that the birds may alight upon them, and be faſtened thereto; where they ſhould be allowed to remain, to terrify the reſt. When the ſeed is fully ripe, cut it off; and after drying, threſh it out, and preſerve it in bags for uſe. In planting cabbages for ſeed, never plant more than one ſort in a place, or near one another: for example, never plant red and white cabbages near each other, nor Savoy with white or red cabbages; for they will, by the commixture of their farina, produce a mixture of kinds. See BOTANY, § 217. It is owing to this neglect, that the gardeners rarely ſave any good red cabbage ſeed in Britain, but are obliged to procure freſh ſeeds from abroad; whereas if they would plant red cabbages by themſelves for ſeed, and not ſuffer, any other to be near them, they might continue the kind as good in Britain as in any other part of the world. CAULIFLOWERS have of late years been ſo far improved in Britain, as to exceed in goodneſs and magnitude what are produced in moſt parts of Europe, and by the ſkill of the gardener are continued for ſeveral months together; but the moſt common ſeaſon for the great crop is in May, June, and July. Having procured a parcel of good ſeed, ſow it about the 21ſt of Auguſt, upon an old cucumber or melon bed, ſifting a little earth over the ſeeds, above a quarter of an inch thick; and if the weather ſhould prove extremely hot and dry, ſhade the beds with mats, to prevent the earth from drying too faſt, and give it gentle waterings occaſionally. In about a month after ſowing, the plants will be fit to prick out: therefore put ſome freſh earth upon the cucumber or melon beds; or where theſe are not to be had, ſome beds ſhould be made with a little new dung, but not hot, which ſhould be trodden down cloſe, to prevent the worms from getting through it.—Into this bed prick the young plants at about 2 inches ſquare, obſerving to ſhade and water them at firſt planting, but not too much after they are growing, nor ſuffer them to receive too much rain

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if the ſeaſon ſhould prove wet, which would be apt to make them *black ſhanked*, as the gardeners term it, or rotten in their ſtems. In this bed they ſhould continue till about the 39th Oct. when they muſt be removed into the place where they are to remain during the winter: which, for the firſt ſowing, is commonly under bell or hand glaſſes, to have early cauliflowers, and theſe ſhould be of an early kind: but to have a ſucceſſion during the ſeaſon, there ſhould be provided another more late kind, which ſhould be ſown 4 or 5 days after the other. To have very early cauliflowers, make choice of a good rich ſpot that is well defended from the NE. and W. winds, with hedges, pales, or walls; but the firſt are to be preferred, if made with reeds, becauſe the winds will not reverberate, as from pales or walls. This ground ſhould be well trenched, burying therein a good quantity of rotten dung; then level it, and if it be naturally a wet ſoil, raiſe it up in beds about 4½ or 3 feet broad, and 5 inches above the level of the ground; but if it is moderately dry, it need not be raiſed, then plant the plants, allowing about two feet ſix inches from glaſs to glaſs in the rows, always putting two good plants under each glaſs, which may be at about four inches from each other; and if they are deſigned for a full crop, they may be 3½ feet row from row. If ridges for cucumbers are to be made between the rows, (as is generally practiſed by the gardeners near London,) then make the rows about 8 feet aſunder, and the ground between them may be planted with cabbage plants, to be drawn off for coleworts in the ſpring. When they are planted, if the ground is very dry, give them a little water, and then ſet the glaſſes over them, which may remain quite cloſe over them till they have taken root, which will be in about a week or ten days, unleſs there ſhould be rain, in which caſe ſet off the glaſſes, that the plants may receive the benefit of it; and in about ten days after planting, provide a parcel of forked ſticks or bricks, to raiſe the glaſſes about 3 or 4 inches on the ſide towards the S. that the plants may have free air: in this manner the glaſſes ſhould remain over the plants night and day, unleſs in froſty weather, when they ſhould be ſet down as cloſe as poſſible; or if the weather ſhould prove very warm, the glaſſes may be kept off in the day-time, and put on only in the night, leſt, by keeping the glaſſes over them too much, they ſhould be drawn into flower at that ſeaſon; which is often the caſe in mild winters, eſpecially if unſkilfully managed. Toward the end of February, if the weather proves mild, prepare another good ſpot of ground, well dunged and trenched, to remove ſome of the plants into, from under the glaſſes: then allowing one of the moſt promiſing plants under each glaſs to remain, take away the other, by raiſing it up with a trowel, &c. ſo as to preſerve as much earth to the root as poſſible; but take care not to prejudice the roots of the plants which remain. Then plant theſe plants which are taken out at the diſtances before directed, and with a ſmall hoe, draw the earth up to the ſtems of the plants which were left under the glaſſes, taking great care not to let the earth fall into their hearts; and ſet the glaſſes over them again, raiſin the prous an inch or two higher than before, to give them more air, obſerving to take them off whenever there are any gentle ſhowers. If the plants grow ſo faſt as to fill the glaſſes with their leaves, raiſe the ground about them in a bed broad enough for the glaſſes to ſtand, about 4 inches high, which will give the plants a great deal of room, by raiſing the glaſſes ſo much higher when they are ſet over them. Thus they may be kept covered until April, which otherwiſe they could not, without prejudice to the leaves of the plants. After this, in mild ſoft weather ſet off the glaſſes, as well as in gentle ſhowers of rain; and begin to harden them by degrees to endure the open air. It is adviſable, however, to let the glaſſes remain over them as long as poſſible, if the nights be froſty; but the glaſſes muſt not remain in very hot ſunſhine, leſt the heat burn or ſcald them. Sometimes large quantities of plants have been ſo hurt by this, as never to be worth any thing after. If the plants have ſucceeded well, toward the end of April ſome of them will begin to fruit. They muſt be therefore examined carefully every other day, and when the flower plainly appears, break down ſome of the inner leaves over it to guard from the ſun, which would make the flower yellow and unſightly; and when the flower is at its full bigneſs (which may be known by its outſide parting as if it would run,) draw it out of the ground. If they are deſigned for preſent uſe, cut them out of their leaves; but if for keeping, preſerve their leaves about them, and put them into a cool place. The beſt time for pulling them is a morning, before the ſun has exhaled the moiſture; for cauliflowers pulled in the heat of the day loſe that firmneſs which they naturally have, and become tough. With regard to our ſecond crop, the plants being raiſed and managed as directed for the early crop, until the end of Oct. prepare ſome beds either to be covered with glaſs frames, or arched over with hoops, to be covered with mats, &c. Theſe beds ſhould have ſome dung laid at the bottom, about ſix inches or a foot thick, according to the ſize of the plants; for if they are ſmall, the bed ſhould be thicker of dung to bring them forward, and ſo *vice verſa*. This dung ſhould be beat down cloſe with a fork, in order to prevent the worms from finding their way through it; then lay ſome good freſh earth about 4 or 5 inches thick thereon, in which plant the plants about two inches and a half ſquare, obſerving to ſhade and water them until they have taken new root; but do not keep the coverings cloſe, for the warmth of the dung will occaſion a great damp in the bed, which, if pent in, will much injure the plants. When they have taken root, give them as much free air as poſſible, by keeping the glaſſes off in the day-time if the weather will permit; and in the night or at ſuch times as the glaſſes require to be kept on, raiſe them up with props to let in freſh air, unleſs in froſty weather; when the glaſſes ſhould be covered with mats, ſtraw, &c. but this is not to be done but in very hard froſts. Alſo obſerve to guard them againſt great rain, which in winter is very hurtful to them; but in mild weather, if the glaſſes are kept on, they ſhould be propped to admit freſh air; and if the under leaves grow yellow and decay, be ſure to pick them off; for when

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when the plants are kept close, these decayed leaves render the inclosed air very noxious; and the plants perspiring pretty much at that time, are often destroyed in vast quantities. In the beginning of February, if the weather be mild, begin to harden the plants by degrees, that they may be prepared for transplantation: the ground where the cauliflowers are to be planted out, (which should be quite open from trees, &c. and rather moist than dry,) having been well dunged and dug, should be sown with radishes a week or fortnight before planting out the cauliflowers. For if there are not some radishes amongst them, and the month of May should prove hot and dry, as it sometimes happens, the fly will seize the cauliflowers, and eat their leaves full of holes; whereas, if there are radishes upon the spot, the flies will take to them, and never meddle with the cauliflowers so long as they last. The gardeners near London mix spinach with their radish-seed, and thus have a double crop; which is an advantage where ground is dear, or where persons are straitened for room; otherwise it is as well to have only one crop amongst the cauliflowers, that they may be cleared in time. When the season is good, about the middle of February begin to plant out the cauliflowers; the distance generally allowed by the gardeners near London, (who plant cucumbers, &c. between their cauliflowers to succeed them,) is every other row 4½ feet, and the intermediate rows 2½ distant in the rows; so that in the latter end of May or beginning of June (when the radishes and spinach are cleared off,) they put in seeds of cucumbers for pickling, in the middle of the wide rows, at 3¼ feet apart; and in the narrow rows plant cabbage for winter use, at 2 feet 2 inches distance, so that these stand each of them exactly in the middle of the square between 4 cauliflower plants; and these after the cauliflowers are gone off, will have full room to grow, and the crop be hereby continued in a succession through the whole season. Many people water cauliflower plants in summer; but the gardeners near London have almost wholly laid aside this practice, finding a deal of trouble and charge to little purpose; for if the ground be so very dry as not to produce tolerable good cauliflowers without water, it seldom happens that watering of them makes them much better; and when once they have been watered, if it is not constantly continued, it had been much better for them if they never had any; and if it be done in the middle of the day, it rather helps to scald them; so that, upon the whole, if care be taken to keep the earth drawn up to their stems, and clear them from every thing that grows near them, that they may have free open air, they will succeed better without than with water, where any of these cautions are not strictly observed. In order to have a 3d crop of cauliflowers, make a slender hot bed in February, in which you should sow the seeds, covering them a quarter of an inch thick with light mould, and covering the bed with glass frames. When the plants are come up, and have got 4 or 5 leaves, prepare another hot-bed to prick them into, which may be about two inches square; and in the beginning of April harden them by degrees, to fit them for transplanting, which should be done the middle of that month at the distance directed for the 2d crop, and must be managed accordingly: these (if the soil is moist where they are planted, or the season cool and moist) will produce good cauliflowers about a month after the 2d crop is gone, whereby their season will be greatly prolonged. A 4th crop of cauliflowers may also be raised by sowing the seed about the 23d of May; and being transplanted, as before directed, will produce good cauliflowers in a kindly season and good soil after Michaelmas, and continue through October and November, and if the season permit often a great part of December.

(III.) BRASSICÆ, QUALITIES, &c. OF THE. All the species of cabbage are said to be hard of digestion, to afford little nourishment, and to produce flatulencies, though probably on no very good foundation. They tend strongly to putrefaction, and run into this state sooner than almost any other vegetable; when putrefied, their smell is likewise the most offensive, greatly resembling that of putrefied animal substances. A decoction of them is said to loosen the belly. Of all these plants cauliflower is reckoned the easiest of digestion. The white is the most fetid, and the red most emollient and laxative; a decoction of this last is recommended for softening acrimonious humours in some disorders of the breast, and in hoarseness. The red cabbage is chiefly used for pickling. In some countries they bury the white cabbage when full grown in the autumn, and thus preserve it all winter. The Germans cut them to pieces, and, along with some aromatic herbs and salt, press them close down in a tub where they soon ferment, and are eaten under the name of SOUR-CROUT. See that article.

BRASSICAVIT, } or BRACHICAVIT, in the
BRASSICOURT, } manege, is a horse whose fore-legs are naturally bended archwise: so called by way of distinction from an arched horse whose legs are bowed by hard labour.

BRASSIDELIC ART, a term used by Paracelsus, for a method of curing wounds by the application of the herbs BRASSIDELLA, on the fresh wound.

BRASSIDELLA. See BRASSADELLA.

* BRASSINESS. *n. f.* [from *brassy*.] An appearance like brass; some quality of brass.

* BRASSY. *adj.* [from *brass*.] 1. Partaking of brass. The part in which they lie, is near black, with some sparks of a *brassy* pyrites in it. *Woodward.* 2. Hard as brass.—

Losses,
Enough to press a royal merchant down,
And pluck commiseration of his state
From *brassy* bosoms, and rough hearts of flint.
Shakespeare.

3. Impudent.

* BRAST. *particip. adj.* [from *burst*.] Burst; broken. Obsolete.—

There creature never past,
That back returned without heavenly grace,
But dreadful furies which their chains have *brast*,
And damned sprights sent forth to make ill men aghast. *Spenser.*

To BRAST, *v. a. obs.* to break. *Chaucer.*

BRASTED, a village in Kent, NE. of Westram. It has fairs, May 23d and Ascension day.

(1.) * BRAT. *n. f.* [its etymology is uncertain;

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bratt, in Saxon, ſignifies a blanket; from which, perhaps, the modern ſignification may have come.] 1. A child, ſo called in contempt.

He leads them like a thing
Made by ſome other deity than nature,
That ſhapes men better; and they follow him,
Againſt us *brats*, with no leſs confidence,
Than boys purſuing ſummer butterflies. *Shakeſ.*

This *brat* is none of mine:
Hence with it, and, together with the dam,
Commit them to the fire. *Shakeſ.*

The friends, that got the *brats*, were poiſon'd too;
In this ſad caſe what could our vermin do?
Roſcommon.

—Jupiter ſummoned all the birds and beaſts before him, with their *brats* and little ones, to ſee which of them had the prettieſt children. *L'Eſtrange.*—I ſhall live to ſee the invifible lady, to whom I was obliged, and whom I never beheld, ſince ſhe was a *brat* in hanging-ſleeves. *Swift.*—

I give command to kill or ſave,
Can grant ten thouſand pounds a year,
And make a beggar's *brat* a peer. *Swift.*

2. The progeny; the offspring.—The two late conſpiracies were the *brats* and offspring of two contrary factions. *South.*

(2.) BRAT, *n. ſ. obſ.* a coarſe apron. *Chaue.*

BRATAG, the name of a ſmall reptile in the pariſh of Kirkmichael, in Banffſhire, mentioned by the rev. Mr Grant, in his account of that pariſh, as "covered with a downy hair, alternately ſpotted into black and white."—"If cattle, (he adds,) happen to eat it, they generally ſwell, and ſometimes die. It has the ſame effect upon ſheep." *Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc. Vol.* XII. *p.* 450.

BRATFORTON, a village in Worceſterſhire, E. of Eveſham.

BRATHWAITE, or BRAITHWAITE, two Engliſh villages; 1. in Cumberland, E. of Inglewood Foreſt: 2. in Keſwick, at the foot of the mountain road to Cockermouth.

BRATHWELL, in Yorkſhire, near Ticking.

BRATLEY, in Lancaſh. near Weſtmoreland.

BRATOFT, in Lincolnſhire, NE. of Spilſby.

BRATTLEBOROUGH, a poſt town of the United States, in Windham county, Vermont, agreeably ſituated on the SW. ſide of Weſt river; about 5 m. above its confluence with the Connecticut. It contains about 20 dwellings compactly built, and a congregational church. It is 37 m. E. of Bennington, and 312 from Philadelphia. Lon. 2. 29. E. Lat. 42. 52. N.

BRATTLEBY, near Scampton, Lincolnſh.

BRATTON, 3 villages; viz. 1. in Shropſhire, E. of Little Wenlock; 2. in ditto, S. of Apley-Caſtle: and 3. in Somerſetſh. near Wincaunton.

BRATTON CASTLE, E. of Weſtbury, Wiltſhire.

BRATTON-CLOVELLY, in Devonſhire, W. of Okehampton.

BRATTON-FLEMING, in ditto, near Chumley.

BRAVA, a ſea port of Abyſſinia.

* BRAVADO. *n. ſ.* [from *bravada*, Span.] A boaſt; a brag.—

Spain, to make good the *bravando*,
Names it the invincible Armado. *Anonymous.*

BRAUBACH, a town of Germany, in Weteravia.

(1.) * BRAVE. *adj.* [*brave*, Fr.] 1. Courageous; daring; bold; generous; high-ſpirited.—An Egyptian ſoothſayer made Antonius believe, that his genius, which otherways was *brave* and confident, was, in the preſence of Octavius Cæſar, poor and cowardly. *Bacon.*—

From armed foes to bring a royal bribe,
Shows your *brave* heart victorious as your eyes.
Waller.

2. Gallant; having a noble mein; lofty; graceful.—

I'll prove the prettier fellow of the two,
And wear my dagger with a *braver* grace. *Shakeſ.*

3. Magnificent; grand.—

Rings put upon his fingers,
And *brave* attendants near him, when he wakes;
Would not the beggar then forget himſelf?
Shakeſpeare.

But whoſoe'er it was nature deſign'd
Firſt a *brave* place, and then as *brave* a mind.
Denham.

4. Excellent; noble: it is an indeterminate word, uſed to expreſs the ſuperabundance of any valuable quality in men or things.—

Let not old age diſgrace my high deſire,
O heavenly ſoul in human ſhape contain'd;
Old wood inflam'd doth yield the *braveſt* fire,
When younger doth in ſmoke his virtue ſpend.
Sidney.

—If there be iron ore, and mills, iron is a *brave* commodity where wood aboundeth. *Bacon.*—If a ſtateſman has not this ſcience, he muſt be ſubject to a *braver* man than himſelf, whoſe province it is to direct all his actions to this end. *Digby.*

(2.) * BRAVE. *n. ſ.* [*brave*, Fr] 1. A hector; a man daring beyond decency or diſcretion.—

Hot *braves*, like thee, may fight, but know not well
To manage this, the laſt great ſtake. *Dryden.*

Morat's too inſolent, too much a *brave*,
His courage to his envy is a ſlave. *Dryden.*

2. A boaſt; a challenge; a defiance.—

There end thy *brave*, and turn thy face in peace;
We grant that thou canſt outſcold us. *Shakeſ.*

* *To* BRAVE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To defy; to challenge; to ſet at defiance.—

He upbraids Iago, that he made him
Brave me upon the watch. *Shakeſ.*

My nobles leave me, and my ſtate is *brav'd*,
Ev'n at my gates, with ranks of foreign powers.
Shakeſpeare.

The ills of love, not thoſe of fate I fear;
Theſe I can *brave*, but thoſe I cannot bear.
Dryden.

Like a rock unmov'd, a rock that *braves*
The raging tempeſt, and the riſing waves. *Dryd.*

2. To carry a boaſting appearance of.—Both particular perſons and factions are apt enough to flatter themſelves, or, at leaſt, to *brave* that which they believe not. *Bacon.*

* BRAVELY. *adv.* [from *brave*.] In a brave manner; courageouſly; gallantly; ſplendidly.—Martin Swart, with his Germans, performed *bravely*. *Bacon.*—

No fire, nor foe, nor fate, nor night,
The Trojan hero did affright,
Who *bravely* twice renew'd the fight.
Denham.

Your

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Your valour *bravely* did th' aſſault ſuſtain,
And fill'd the motes and ditches with the ſlain.
Dryden.

* BRAVERY. *n. ſ.* [from *brave.*] 1. Courage; magnanimity; generoſity; gallantry.—It denotes no great *bravery* of mind, to do that out of a deſire of fame, which we could not be prompted to do by a generous paſſion for the glory of him that made us. *Spectator.*—

Juba, to all the *bravery* of a hero,
Adds ſofteſt love, and more than female ſweetneſs. *Addiſon.*

2. Splendour; magnificence.—

Where all the *bravery* that eye may ſee,
And all the happineſs that heart deſire,
Is to be found. *Spenſer.*

3. Show; oſtentation.—Let princes chooſe miniſters more ſenſible of duty than of riſing, and ſuch as love buſineſs rather upon conſcience than upon *bravery*. *Bacon.* 4. Bravado; boaſt.—Never could man, with more unmanlike *bravery*, uſe his tongue to her diſgrace, which lately had ſung ſonnets of her praiſes. *Sidney.*—For a *bravery* upon this occaſion of power, they crowned their new king in the cathedral church of Dublin. *Bacon.*—There are thoſe that make it a point of *bravery*, to bid defiance to the oracles of divine revelation. *L'Eſtrange.*

BRAUGHING, a town in Hertfordſhire, on the E. ſide of the Roman road, called *Ermine ſtreet*, which leads to Cambridge. It is 2 miles N. of Puckeridge, and 31 from London. It has a fair on Whit-Monday.

BRAULIO, one of the Alpine mountains, in the country of the Griſons.

BRAULS, Indian cloths with blue and white ſtripes. They are otherwiſe called *turbants*, becauſe they ſerve to cover thoſe ornaments of the head, particularly on the coaſt of Africa.

BURAN, or BRAUNIUS, George, archdeacon of Dortmund, and dean of Notre Dame in Gradibus at Cologne. He publiſhed a Latin oration againſt the prieſts guilty of fornication; he alſo wrote the life of Jeſus Chriſt, that of the Holy Virgin, and a controverſial treatiſe againſt the Proteſtants: but his chief work is the *Theatrum Urbium*, in ſeveral volumes folio.

BRAUNA, BRAUNAU, BRAUNAW, } or BRANAU, a town of Germany, in Bavaria, ſeated on the river Inn. It has a ſtrong fortreſs: notwithſtanding which, it was taken by the Auſtrians in 1743. Lon. 13. 3. E. Lat. 48. 10. N.

(1.) BRAUNSBURG, a town of Poland, in Regal Pruſſia, with a very commodious harbour, belonging to the king of Pruſſia. It is ſeated near the Baltic ſea. Lon. 20. E. Lat. 54. 15. N.

(2.) BRAUNSBURG, a trading town of Poliſh Pruſſia, in Ermeland. It is populous, and ſubject to its own biſhop.

BRAUNSFELD, or BRAUNSFIELD, } a town of Germany, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, and county of Solmes, with a handſome palace. Lon. 8. 32. E. Lat. 50. 22. N.

BRAUNSFORD, a town 3 miles from Worceſter.

BRAUNSTON, 3 villages, 1. near Leiceſter: 2. in Leiceſterſhire, between Waltham on the Would and Belvoir Caſtle; and, 3. in Rutlandſhire, near Okeham-Soke.

(1.) BRAVO, a town of Africa, on the coaſt of Ajan, with a pretty good harbour. It is independant, and lies about 30 miles from Magadoxo. Lon. 41. 35. E. Lat. 1. 0. N.

(2.) BRAVO, one of the Cape de Verd iſlands, on the coaſt of Africa, remarkable for its excellent wines, and inhabited by Portugueſe. The land is very high, and conſiſts of mountains which look like pyramids. It abounds in Indian corn, gourds, water melons, potatoes, horſes, aſſes, and hogs. There is alſo plenty of fiſh on the coaſt, and the iſland produces ſalt-petre. Lon. 25. 35. W. Lat. 14. 10. N.

(3.) * BRAVO. *n. ſ.* [*bravo*, Ital.] A man who murders for hire.—For boldneſs, like the *bravoes* and banditti, is ſeldom employed but on deſperate ſervices. *Government of the Tongue.*—

No *bravoes* here profeſs the bloody trade,
Nor is the church the murd'rer's refuge made.
Gay.

BRAURON, in ancient geography, a town of Attica, near Athens, where the famous ſtatue of Diana, brought from Scythia Taurica, was preſerved.

(1.) BRAURONIA, an epithet of Diana, from the above place, where her feſtival was held. See laſt and next articles.

(2.) BRAURONIA, in Grecian antiquity, a feſtival in honour of Diana. Brauronia was celebrated once in 5 years, and managed by ten men, called, Βραυρωνιοι. The victim ſacrificed was a goat, and it was cuſtomary for certain men to ſing one of Homer's Iliads. The moſt remarkable perſons at this ſolemnity were young virgins, in yellow gowns, conſecrated to Diana. It was unlawful for any of them to be above 10 or under 5 years of age.

* BRAWL. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] Quarrel; noiſe; ſcurrility.—He findeth, that controverſies thereby are made but *brawls*; and therefore wiſheth, that, in ſome lawful aſſembly of churches, all theſe ſtrifes may be decided. *Hooker.*—

Never ſince that middle ſummer's ſpring
Met we on hill, in dale, foreſt, or mead,
But with thy *brawls* thou haſt diſturb'd our ſport. *Shakeſpeare.*

That bonum is an animal,
Made good with ſtout polemick *brawl*.
Hudibras.

* *To* BRAWL. *v. n.* [*brouiller*, or *brauler*, Fr.] 1. To quarrel noiſily and indecently.—

She troubled was, alas! that it might be,
With tedious *brawlings* of her parents dear.
Sidney.

Here comes a man of comfort, whoſe advice
Hath often ſtill'd my *brawling* diſcontent.
Shakeſpeare.

How now, Sir John! what, are you *brawling* here?
Does this become your place, your time, your buſineſs. *Shakeſpeare's Henry IV.*
Their batt'ring cannon charged to the mouths,
Till their foul-fearing clamours have *brawl'd* down
The flinty ribs of this contemptuous city.
Shakeſpeare.

In

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In council she gives licence to her tongue
Loquacious, *brawling*, ever in the wrong.
Dryden.

—Leave all noisy contests, all immodest clamours, *brawling* language, and especially all personal scandal and scurrility, to the meanest part of the vulgar world. *Watts.* 2. To speak loud and indecently.—

His divisions, as the times do *brawl*,
Are in three heads; one pow'r against the French,
And one against Glendower. *Shakespeare.*

3. To make a noise. This is little used.—

As he lay along
Under an oak, whose antique root peeps out
Upon the brook that *brawls* along this wood.
Shakespeare.

* BRAWLER. *n. f.* [from *brawl.*] A wrangler: a quarrelsome noisy fellow.—An advocate may incur the censure of the court, for being a *brawler* in court, on purpose to lengthen out the cause. *Ayliffe.*

(1.) * BRAWN. *n. f.* [of uncertain etymology.] 1. The fleshy or musculous part of the body.—The *brawn* of the arm must appear full, shadowed on one side, then shew the wrist-bone thereof. *Peacham.*—

But most their looks on the black monarch bend,
His rising muscles and his *brawn* commend;
His double biting ax, and beamy spear,
Each asking a gigantick force to tear. *Dryden.*

2. The arm, so called from its being musculous.—

I'll hide my silver beard in a gold beaver,
And in my vantbrace put this wither'd *brawn*.
Shakespeare.

I had purpose
Once more to hew thy target from thy *brawn*.
Shakespeare.

3. Bulk; muscular strength.—

The boist'rous hands are then of use, when I,
With this directing head, those hands apply;
Brawn without brain is thine. *Dryden.*

4. The flesh of a boar.—The best age or the boar is from two to five years old at which time it is best to geld him, or sell him for *brawn*. *Mortimer.* 5. A boar.

(2.) BRAWN is applied to the flesh of a boar when souced or pickled; for which end the boar should be old; because the older he is, the more horny will the brawn be. The method of preparing brawn is as follows: The boar being killed, it is the sides only without the legs, that are made brawn; the bones of which are to be taken out, and then the flesh sprinkled with salt, and laid in a tray, that the blood may drain off: Then it is to be salted a little, and rolled up as hard as possible. The length of the collar of brawn should be as much as one side of the boar will bear, so that when rolled up it will be nine or ten inches diameter. The collar thus rolled up, is boiled in a copper, or large kettle, till it is so tender, that a straw can be run through it; then it is set aside, till it is thoroughly cold and put it into the following pickle: To every gallon of water, put a handful or two of salt, and as much wheat-bran: Boil them together, then drain the bran as clear as you can from the liquor; and when the liquor is quite cold, put the brawn into it.

* BRAWNER. *n. f.* [from *brawn.*] A boar killed for the table.—

At Christmas time be careful of your fame,
See the old tenant's table be the same;
Then if you would send up the *brawner* head,
Sweet rosemary and bays around it spread.
King.

* BRAWNINESS. *n. f.* [from *brawny.*] Strength; hardness.—This *brawniness* and insensibility of mind, is the best armour against the common evils and accidents of life. *Locke.*

BRAWNSTOD, a town near Lincoln.

* BRAWNY. *adj.* [from *brawn.*] Muscular; fleshy; bulky; of great muscles and strength.—

The *brawny* fool, who did his vigour boast,
In that presuming confidence was lost. *Dryden.*

The native energy
Turns all into the substance of the tree,
Starves and destroys the fruit, is only made
For *brawny* bulk, and for a barren shade.
Dryden.

BRAXFIELD, a district in Lanarkshire, belonging to the Lord Justice Clerk, ornamented with his Lordship's seat, as well as with many romantic rocks and woods; near the fall of Dundaff Lin, and Mr David Dale's cotton works.

(1.) BRAXTED MAGNA, and (2.) BRAXTED PARVA, } Two villages in Essex, NE. of Witham.

BRAXY, or BRACKS, a disease incident to sheep, supposed to arise from excess of blood. It attacks them in autumn, and the most lusty and vigorous of the flock fall a prey to it. It kills in two hours from the time it is first observed. It is computed that one forth die of it. Dr Anderson's prescription, tobacco oil, has been applied with success as a remedy; and bleeding in summer has been found an effectual preventive.

(1.) BRAY, a port town of Ireland, in the county of Wicklow, and province of Leinster, seated on St George's channel, 10 miles S. of Dublin, and 13 N. of Wicklow. Lon. 6. 1. W. Lat. 53. 11. N.

(2.) BRAY, a river in Devonshire.

(3.) BRAY, a town in Berkshire, on the Thames, a mile from Maidenhead; famous in song for its changeable Vicar, who, having been twice a papist and twice a protestant in the reigns of Henry VIII. Edward VI. Mary and Elizabeth, was accused of being a *turn-coat*; but replied that he always stuck fast to his principle, which was, to *live and die Vicar of Bray*.

(4.) * BRAY. *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. Voice of an ass. 2. Harsh sound.—

Boist'rous untun'd drums,
And harsh resounding trumpets dreadful *bray*.
Shakespeare.

(5.) BRAY, Sir Reginald, a celebrated architect and politician, was the 2d son of Sir Richard Bray, one of the privy council to K. Henry VI. Sir Reginald was instrumental in the advancement of K. Henry VII. to the throne of England; and was greatly in favour with him. His skill in architecture appears from Henry VII's chapel at Westminster, and the chapel of St George at Windsor, as he had a principal concern in building the former, and finishing the latter, to which he was also a liberal benefactor. In the middle of the S. aile is a spa-

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a ſpacious chapel built by him, and ſtill called by his name. He died in 1501; and was interred in the above chapel, probably under the ſtone where Dr Waterland lies; for, on opening the vault of that gentleman, who died in 1740, a leaden coffin of ancient form was found, which, by other appearances, was judged to be that of Sir Reginald, and was, by order of the dean, immediately arched over.

(6.) BRAY, Thomas, D. D. an eminent, learned, and pious divine, born at Marton, in Shropſhire, in 1656, and educated at Oxford. He was vicar of Over-Whitacre, in Warwickſhire: and in 1690, rector of Sheldon, where he compoſed his *Catechetical Lectures*; which procured him ſuch reputation, that Dr Compton, biſhop of London, pitched upon him as a proper perſon to model the infant church of Maryland, and eſtabliſh it upon a ſolid foundation; and for that purpoſe he was inveſted with the office of commiſſary. He now engaged in ſeveral noble undertakings. He procured ſums to be raiſed for purchaſing ſmall libraries for the uſe of the poor miniſters in ſeveral parts of the plantations; and to promote this deſign, publiſhed two books: one entitled *Bibliotheca parochialis*, or a ſcheme of ſuch theological and other heads as ſeem requiſite to be peruſed or occaſionally conſulted by the clergy, together with a catalogue of books which may be profitably read on each of thoſe points; the other, *Apoſtolical charity, its nature and excellency conſidered*. He endeavoured to get a fund eſtabliſhed for the propagation of the goſpel, eſpecially among the Indians; and by his means a patent was obtained for erecting the corporation called *The ſociety for propagating the goſpel*. He procured relief for priſoners; and formed the plan of the ſociety for the reformation of manners, charity ſchools, &c. He wrote, 1. Martyrology, or papal uſurpation, in one vol. fol.; 2. *Directorium miſſionarium*; and other works. He died in 1730, aged 73.

(7.) BRAY SUR SEINE, a town of France, in the department of Aube, and ci-devant province of Champagne. It is ſeated on the Seine, 16 m. N. of Sens. Lon. 3. 26. E. Lat. 48. 25. N.

(8.) BRAY SUR SOMME, a town of France, in the department of Somme, the ci-devant province of Picardy, ſeated on the Somme.

(1.) * *To* BRAY. *v. a.* [*bracan*, Sax. *braier*, Fr.] To pound, or grind ſmall.—

I'll burſt him; I will bray
His bones as in a mortar. *Chapman.*

—Except you would *bray* Chriſtendom in a mortar, and mould it into a new paſte, there is no poſſibility of a holy war. *Bacon.*

(2.) * *To* BRAY. *v. n.* [*braire*, Fr. *barrio*, Lat.] To make a noiſe as an aſs.—

Laugh, and they
Return it louder than an aſs can *bray*. *Dryden.*

—'Agad if he ſhould hear the lion roar, he'd cudgel him into an aſs, and to his primitive *braying*. *Congreve.* 2. To make an offenſive, harſh or diſagreeable noiſe.—

What, ſhall our feaſt be kept with ſlaughter'd men?
Shall *braying* trumpets, and loud churliſh drums,
Clamours of hell, be meaſures to our pomp? *Shakeſpeare.*

Arms on armour claſhing, *bray'd*
Horrible diſcord. *Milton.*

BRAYAN, a river in Pembrokeſhire.

* BRAYER. *n. ſ.* [from *bray.*] 1. One that brays like an aſs.—

Hold! cry'd the queen; a cat-call each ſhall win;
Equal your merits, equal is your din!
But that this well diſputed game may end,
Sound forth my *brayers!* and the welkin rend. *Pope.*

2. [With printers; from *To bray*, or *beat.*] An inſtrument to temper the ink.

BRAYFIELD-COULD, a village in Buckinghamſhire, near Oulney.

BRAY-HIGH, in Devonſhire, 4 m. E. of Barnſtaple.

BRAYLE, among ſportſmen, a piece of leather ſlit to put upon a hawk's wing, to tie it up.

BRAYNE, a village in Somerſetſhire on the coaſt, S. of the river Axe.

BRAYNSFORD, a hamlet in Worceſterſhire.

BRAYTON, two villages: 1. in Cumberland, near Aſpatria: 2. in Yorkſhire, S. of Selby.

BRAYWICK, in Berks, near Maidenhead.

* *To* BRAZE. *v. a.* [from *braſs.*] 1. To ſolder with braſs.—If the nut be not caſt in braſs, but only hath a worm *brazed* into it, this niceneſs is not ſo abſolutely neceſſary, becauſe that worm is firſt turned up, and bowed into the grooves of the ſpindle, and you may try that before it is *brazed* in the nut. *Moxon.* 2. To harden to impudence.—I have ſo often bluſhed to acknowledge him, that now I am *braz'd* to it. *Shakeſpeare's King Lear.*—

If damned cuſtom hath not *braz'd* it ſo,
That it is proof and bulwark againſt ſenſe. *Shak.*

BRAZED, in heraldry, a term for 3 cheverons, one claſping another.

* BRAZEN. *adj.* [from *braſs.*] 1. Made of braſs. It was anciently and properly written *braſen*.—Get alſo a ſmall pair of *brazen* compaſſes, and a fine ruler; for taking the diſtance. *Peacham.*

A bough his *brazen* helmet did ſuſtain;
His heavier arms lay ſcatter'd on the plain. *Dryd.*

2. Proceeding from braſs: a poetical uſe.—

Trumpeters
With *brazen* din blaſt you the city's ear,
Make mingle with your rattling tabourines. *Shak.*

3. Impudent.

* *To* BRAZEN. *v. n.* To be impudent; to bully.—When I reprimanded him for his tricks, he would talk ſaucily, lye, and *brazen* it out, as if he had done nothing amiſs. *Arbuthnot.*

BRAZEN AGE. See AGE, § 2.

BRAZEN DISH, among miners, is the ſtandard by which the other diſhes are gauged, and is kept in the king's hall.

* BRAZENFACE. *n. ſ.* [from *brazen* and *face.*] An impudent wench: in low language.—You do, if you ſuſpect me in any diſhoneſty.—Well ſaid, *brazenface*; hold it out. *Shakeſpeare.*

* BRAZENFACED. *adj.* [from *brazenface.*] Impudent; ſhameleſs.—What a *brazenfaced* varlet art thou to deny thou knoweſt me? Is it two days

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days ago, since I tript up thy heels, and beat thee before the king? *Shakespeare.*—

Quick-witted, *brazen-fac'd*, with fluent tongues,
Patient of labours, and dissembling wrongs. *Dryd.*

* BRAZENNESS. *n. s.* [from *brazen.*] 1. Appearing like brass. 2. Impudence.

BRAZEN SEA, in Jewish antiquity, one of the sacred utensils in the temple of Solomon. See *Plate* XLVI. *fig.* 7. It was cast in the plain of Jordan, and removed from thence into the inner court of the temple; where it was placed upon 12 oxen, 3 of which looked towards each quarter of the world. It was 10 cubits from the one brim to the other, 5 cubits in height, and 30 cubits in circumference; and contained 3000 baths. The brim was perfectly round, and so it continued in the two upper cubits; but below the brim, in the 3 lower cubits, it was square. It was a hand-breadth thick, and the brim was wrought like the brim of a cup, with flowers of lilies. About the body of this huge vessel there were two borders of engravings being the heads of oxen in demi-relief; out of which some suppose the water issued, and that they were made as cocks and conveyances for that purpose. This brazen sea, was designed for the priests to wash in, before they performed the service of the temple. The supply of water was through a pipe out of the well Etam; though some are of opinion, that it was constantly supplied with water by the Gibeonites.

(1.) * BRAZIER. *n. s.* See BRASIER.——The halfpence and farthings in England, if you should sell them to the *brazier*, you would not lose above a penny in a shilling. *Swift.*

(2.) BRAZIER, an artificer who makes and deals in all kinds of brass ware. This trade, as exercised in Britain, may be reckoned a branch of the smithery, though the braziers seldom keep forges, except for brazing or soldering, and tinning the insides of their vessels, which they work up chiefly out of copper and brass prepared rough to their hands. Many carry on the sale trade to a great extent, dealing in all sorts of iron and steel, as well as in copper and brass goods. Of late they have dealt much in what is called *French plate*, a sort of white metal, silvered and polished to such a degree, that it is not easily distinguished from real silver.

BRAZIL. See BRASIL.

BRAZILIAN STONE. See BRASILIAN STONE.

(1.) BRAZING, the soldering two pieces of iron together by melting thin plates of brass between the pieces that are to be joined. If the work be very fine, as when two leaves of a broken saw are to be brazed together, they cover it with pulverized borax, melted with water, that it may incorporate with the brass powder, which is added to it: The piece is then exposed to the fire without touching the coals, and heated till the brass runs.

(2.) BRAZING is also the joining two pieces of iron together by beating them hot, the one upon the other, which is used for large pieces by farriers, &c.

BRAZRA, BRAZZA, or (1.) BRAZZO, an island on the coast of Dalmatia, in the gulph of Venice, opposite to Spalatro, and subject to Venice. Lon. 18. 15. E. Lat. 43. 6. N.

(2.) BRAZZO, a town in the above island.

BREACAN, GULF OF, lies on the W. coast of Argyllshire, between the islands Jura and Scarba. "The sound between these two islands (says the rev. Mr Francis Stewart,) is narrow, and, forming a communication between the Atlantic and the internal sea on the coast of Argyll, the rapidity and violence of the tides are tremendous. The gulf is most awful with the flowing tide; in stormy weather, it exhibits an aspect in which a great deal of the terrible is blended. Vast openings are formed in which one would think the bottom might be seen: Immense bodies of water tumble headlong, as over a precipice; then rebounding from the abyss meet the torrents from above; they dash together with inconceivable impetuosity, and rise foaming to a prodigious height above their surface. The noise of their conflict is heard through the surrounding islands. This gulf is an object of as great terror to the modern, as Scylla and Charybdis were to the ancient mariners. It is industriously avoided by all who navigate these sounds. There are instances however of vessels being drawn into it." *Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc.* xii. 326.

(1.) * BREACH. *n. s.* [from *break*; *breche*, Fr.] 1. The act of breaking any thing.—

This tempest
Dashing the garment of this peace, aboded
The sudden *breach* on't. *Shakespeare.*

2. The state of being broken.—

O you kind gods!
Cure this great *breach* in his abused nature.
Shakespeare.

3. A gap in a fortification made by a battery.—The wall was blown up in two places; by which *breach* the Turks seeking to have entered, made bloody fight. *Knolles.*—

Till mad with rage upon the *breach* he fir'd,
Slew friends and foes, and in the smoke retir'd.
Dryden.

4. The violation of a law or contract.—That oath would sure contain them greatly, or the *breach* of it bring them to shorter vengeance. *Spenser.*—What are those *breaches* of the law of nature and nations, which do forefeit all right in a nation to govern? *Bacon.*——*Breach* of duty towards our neighbours, still involves in it a *breach* of duty towards God. *South.*—The laws of the gospel are the only standing rules of morality; and the penalties affixed by God to the *breach* of those laws, the only guards that can effectually restrain men within the true bounds of decency and virtue. *Rogers.* 5. The opening in a coast.—

But th' heedful boatman strongly forth did stretch
His brawny arms, and all his body strain,
That th'utmost sandy *breach* they shortly fetch,
While the dread danger does behind remain.
Spenser.

6. Difference; quarrel; separation of kindness.—It would have been long before the jealousies and *breaches* between the armies would have been composed. *Clarendon.* 7. Infraction; injury.—This *breach* upon kingly power was without precedent. *Clarendon.*

(2.) BREACH, in fortification, (§ 1. *def.* 3.) is made by the cannon or mines of the besiegers, in order to make an attack upon the place. To make the

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the attack more difficult, the beſieged ſow the breach with crow-feet, or ſtop it with *chevaux de frize*.—A practicable breach, is that where the men may mount and make a lodgment, and ought to be 15 or 20 fathoms wide. The beſiegers make their way to it, by covering themſelves with gabions, earth-bags, &c.

(3.) BREACH, in lands. (See § 1. *def.* 5.) Inundations, or overflowings of lands, are frequently owing to breaches in the dikes or ſea-banks. Dagenham breach is famous; it was made in 1707, by a failure of the Thames wall in a very high tide. The force wherewith it burſt in upon the neighbouring level tore up a large channel or paſſage for water 100 yards wide, and in ſome places 20 feet deep, by which a multitude of ſubterraneous trees that had been buried many ages before were laid bare.

(4.) BREACH, in law. (See § 1. *def.* 4.) In an action, the breach muſt be aſſigned: And this aſſignment muſt not be general, but particular, as, in an action of covenant for not repairing houſes, it ought to be aſſigned particularly what is the want of reparation: and in ſuch certain manner, that the defendant may take an iſſue.

(1.) * BREAD. *n. ſ.* [*bread*, Sax.] 1. Food made of ground corn.—Mankind have found the means to make grain into *bread*, the lighteſt and propereſt aliment for human bodies. *Arbuthnot.*—

Bread, that decaying man with ſtrength ſupplies,
And gen'rous wine, which thoughtful ſorrow flies. *Pope.*

2. Food in general, ſuch as nature requires: to *get bread*, implies, to get ſufficient for ſupport without luxury.—In the ſweat of thy face thou ſhalt eat *bread*. *Geneſis.*—If pretenders were not ſupported by the ſimplicity of the inquiſitive fools, the trade would not find them *bread*. *L'Eſtrange.*

This dowager on whom my tale I found,
A ſimple ſober life in patience led,
And had but juſt enough to buy her *bread*.
Dryden.

When I ſubmit to ſuch indignities,
Make a me citizen, a ſenator of Rome;
To ſell my country, with my voice, for *bread*.
Philips.

—I neither have been bred a ſcholar, a ſoldier, nor to any kind of buſineſs; this creates uneaſineſs in my mind, fearing I ſhall in time want *bread*. *Spectator.* 3. Support of life at large.—God is pleaſed to try our patience by the ingratitude of thoſe who, having eaten of our *bread*, have lift up themſelves againſt us. *K. Charles.*—

But ſometimes virtue ſtarves, while vice is fed;
What then? is the reward of virtue *bread*? *Pope.*

(2.) BREAD may be farther defined, a maſs of dough kneaded and baked in an oven. See BAKER, BAKING, and BARM. The grains of all vegetables are almoſt entirely compoſed of ſubſtances very proper for the nouriſhment of animals; and amongſt the different grains, thoſe which contain a farinaceous matter are the moſt agreeable and moſt nutritive.

(3.) BREAD, ANCIENT AND MODERN METHODS OF MAKING. Man, who appears to be deſigned by nature to eat of all ſubſtances which are capable of nouriſhing him, and ſtill more of vegetables than animals, has, from time immemorial, and in all parts of the earth, uſed farinaceous grains as the principal baſis of his food: but as theſe grains cannot be without difficulty eaten by men in their natural ſtate, they have gradually found means not only to extract the farinaceous part, the only nutritive part of theſe grains, but alſo to prepare it ſo that it becomes a very agreeable and wholeſome aliment, ſuch as the bread we now generally eat. Nothing appears ſo eaſy at firſt ſight as to grind corn, to make a paſte with the flour and water, and to bake this paſte in an oven. Moſt people who enjoy the advantages of the fineſt human inventions, without reflecting on the labour it has coſt to complete them, think all theſe operations common and trivial. It appears certain, however, that for a long time men no otherwiſe prepared their corn than by boiling and forming compact viſcous cakes, not very agreeable to the taſte, and of difficult digeſtion, before they were able to make bread of good taſte and quality, as we have now. It was neceſſary to invent ingenious machines for grinding corn, and ſeparating the pure flour with little trouble and labour; and that inquiries, or rather ſome happy chance, which ſome obſerving perſon availed himſelf of, ſhould diſcover, that flour, mixed with a certain quantity of water, is ſuſceptible of a fermentation which almoſt entirely deſtroys its viſcidity, heightens its taſte, and renders it proper to make a light bread, very agreeable to the taſte, and of eaſy digeſtion. This eſſential operation, on which the good quality of bread depends, is entirely a chemical proceſs. It would redound to the honour of the ancient chemiſts, could we attribute to them ſo important a diſcovery; but, it is too probable that they had no ſhare in it. They were ſo much engaged in other purſuits that bread and other common objects, ſeemed to them of little importance. They hoped to make gold; but what is gold in compariſon with bread? However that be, to the fortunate invention of raiſing the paſte before baking we owe the perfection of the art of making bread. This operation conſiſts in keeping ſome paſte or dough, till by a peculiar ſpirituous fermentation it ſwells, rarefies, and acquires a ſmell and taſte quick, pungent, ſpirituous, ſomewhat ſour, and rather diſagreeable. This fermented dough is well worked with ſome freſh dough, which is by that mixture and moderate heat diſpoſed to a ſimilar but leſs advanced fermentation than that above mentioned. By this fermentation the dough is attenuated, and divided; air is introduced, which being incapable of diſengaging itſelf from the tenacious and ſolid paſte, forms in it ſmall cavities, raiſes and ſwells it. Hence the ſmall quantity of fermented paſte which diſpoſes the reſt to ferment, is called LEAVEN, from the French, *lever*, to raiſe. When the dough is thus raiſed, it is in a proper ſtate to be put into the oven; where, while it is baked, it dilates itſelf ſtill more by the rarefaction of the air, and of the ſpirituous ſubſtance it contains, and it forms a bread full of eyes or cavities; conſequently light, and entirely different from the heavy, compact, viſcous, and indigeſted maſſes made by baking unfermented dough. The invention of beer, or wine of grains, furniſhes a new matter uſeful in the

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making of bread. This matter is the froth which forms upon the ſurface of theſe liquors during fermentation. When it is mixed with dough, it raiſes it better and more quickly than ordinary leaven. It is called YEST or BARM. By means of this, the fineſt lighteſt bread is made. It often happens, that bread made with leaven dough has a ſouriſh and not agreeable taſte; which may proceed from too great a quantity of leaven, or from leaven in which the fermentation has advanced too far. This inconvenience does not happen to bread made with yeſt; becauſe the fermentation of this ſubſtance is not too far advanced, or becauſe more attention is given to that finer bread. It may be aſked, Why, ſince dough is capable of fermenting ſpontaneouſly and ſingly, as we ſee from the leaven, a ſubſtance is added to diſpoſe it to ferment? The reaſon is, That all the parts of a fermenting ſubſtance do not ferment at once, nor to the ſame degree; ſo that ſome parts of this ſubſtance have finiſhed their fermentation, while others have not yet begun. The fermentable liquors which contain much ſugar, as hydromel, and muſt of wines, give proofs of this; for after they have become very vinous, they have ſtill a diſtinct ſaccharine taſte: But all ſaccharine matter is ſtill ſuſceptible of fermentation: and, in fact, if vinous hydromel, or muſt, or even new beer, is diſtilled, ſo that all their ardent ſpirit ſhall be ſeparated, and the reſiduums diluted with water, a ſecond fermentation will take place, and a new quantity of ardent ſpirit will be formed. The ſame thing happens to dough, and ſtill more ſenſibly, from its viſcoſity and want of fluidity; ſo that if it be left to ferment alone, without the help of leaven, as the fermentation proceeds very ſlowly and ſucceſſively, the parts which ferment firſt will have become ſour and vapid before all the reſt be ſufficiently attenuated and changed, by which the bread will acquire a diſagreeable taſte. A mixture of a ſmall quantity of leaven with dough effectually prevents this inconvenience; becauſe the effect of this leaven, and of all fermenting ſubſtances, is to diſpoſe to a ſimilar fermentation all matters capable of it, with which they mixed; or rather, by means of leaven, the fermentation of all the parts of ſuch ſubſtances is effected more nearly at the ſame time. Bread well raiſed and baked differs from unfermented bread, not only in being leſs compact, lighter, and of a more agreeable taſte, but alſo in being more eaſily miſcible with water, with which it does not form a viſcous maſs, which circumſtance is of great importance in digeſtion.

(4.) BREAD, ANCIENT VARIETIES OF. Among the ancients we meet with various denominations of bread; 1. *Panis ſiligineus*, called alſo, *mundus*, *athleticus*, *ijungia*, *coliphius*, and *robys*, anſwering to our white bread; being made of the pureſt flour of the beſt wheat, and only uſed by the richer ſort. 2. *Panis ſecundus* or *ſecundarius*, called alſo *ſimilaceus* or *ſimilagineus*, the next in purity; being made of fine flour, only all the bran not ſifted out. 3. *Autopyrus*, called alſo *ſyncomiſtus* and *conſulaneus*, made of the whole ſubſtance of the wheat, without either retrenching the finer flour or coarſe bran anſwering to our houſehold bread. 4. *Cacabaceus*, apparently the ſame with what was otherwiſe denominated *ſordidus*, as being given to dogs; *furfuraceus*, *furfureus*, or *furfurativus*, becauſe made in great part of bran; and, in the middle age, *biſſus*, on account of its brownneſs; ſometimes alſo *leibo*. There were other ſorts of bread, denominated from the manner in which they were made, or the uſes they were applied to; as, 1. The *militaris*, which was prepared by the ſoldiers and officers in camp with their own hands: for which purpoſe ſome had hand-mills, others pounded the corn in a mortar, and baked it on the coals. 2. *Clibanites*, bread baked in an oven, by way of contradiſtinction from that baked on the hearth or under the embers. 3. *Panis ſubcineritius*, or *ſub cinere coctus*; ſometimes alſo *reverſatus*, becauſe it was to be turned in the baking. 4. *Nauticus*, anſwering to our ſea-biſcuit, and denominated accordingly *bis coctus*, becauſe baked ſeveral times over to make it keep the longer. Other kinds of bread were denominated from their qualities and accidents; as, 1. The *panis ficcus*, that which had been long baked; ſuch as were the *bis coctus*, naval and buccellated bread. 2. *Madidus*, a ſort made of rye or bear, ſometimes alſo made of fine flour, wherewith they ſmeared their faces, by way of a coſmetic, to render them ſmooth. 3. *Acidus*, or ſour bread, which was acidulated with vinegar. 4. *Azymus*, unleavened or unfermented bread.

(5.) BREAD, ASSIZE OF. See ASSIZE, § 1. *def.* 6. The price and weight of bread is regulated by the magiſtrates according to the price of wheat. We have divers tables of the weights of the loaves both of wheat, wheaten, and houſehold bread, at every price of wheat. If bread want once ounce in 36, the baker formerly was to ſuffer the pillory; now to forfeit 5s. for every ounce wanting; and for every defect leſs than an ounce, 2s. 6d. ſuch bread being complained of and weighed before a magiſtrate within 24 hours after it is baked or expoſed to ſale within the bills of mortality, or within 3 days in any other place. Bread loſes weight by keeping; in ſome experiments recited by Bartholine, the diminution was near $\frac{1}{4}$ in 6 months.

(6.) BREAD, CASSADA. See JATROPHA.

(7.) BREAD, EARTH. In the German Ephemerides, for 1764, we have the following account of a kind of bread made in earth. "In the lordſhip of Moſcaw in the Upper Luſatia, a ſort of white earth is found, of which the poor, urged by the calamities of the wars which raged in thoſe parts, make bread. It is taken out of a hill where they formerly worked at ſaltpetre. When the ſun has ſomewhat warmed this earth, it cracks, and ſmall white globules proceed from it as meal; it does not ferment alone, but only when mixed with meal. Mr Sarlitz, a Saxon gentleman, informed us, that he has ſeen perſons who in a great meaſure lived upon it for ſome time. He aſſures us that he procured bread to be made of this earth alone, and of different mixtures of earth and meals; and that he even kept ſome of this bread by him upwards of ſix years: he further ſays, a Spaniard told him, that this earth is alſo found near Gerone in Catalonia."

(8.) BREAD, GENERAL USE OF, ACCOUNTED FOR. The late learned Dr Cullen obſerves, that without

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without bread, or ſomewhat of a ſimilar nature, no nation is known to live. Thus the Laplanders, having no corn of their own, make a ſort of bread of dried fiſhes, and of the inner rind of the pine, which ſeems to be uſed, not ſo much for their nouriſhment, as for ſupplying a dry food.—For this mankind ſeem to have an univerſal appetite, rejecting bland, ſlippery, and mucilaginous foods. This is not commonly accounted for, but ſeems to depend on very ſimple principles. The preparation of our food depends on the mixture of the animal fluids in every ſtage. Among others the ſaliva is neceſſary, which requires dry food as a neceſſary ſtimulus to draw it forth, as bland, ſlippery, fluid aliments are too inert, and make too ſhort ſtay in the mouth, to produce this effect, or to cauſe a ſufficient degree of manducation to emulge that liquor. For this reaſon we commonly uſe dry bread along with animal food, which otherwiſe would be too quickly ſwallowed. For blending the oil and water of our food, nothing is ſo fit as bread, aſſiſted by a previous manducation. For which purpoſe, bread is of like neceſſity in the ſtomach, as it is proper that a ſubſtance of ſolid conſiſtence ſhould be long retained there. Now the animal fluids muſt be mixed with our aliments, in order to change the aceſcency it undergoes. But liquid foods would not attain this end, whereas the ſolid ſtimulates and emulges the glands of the ſtomach. The bread then appears to be exceedingly proper, being bulky without too much ſolidity, and firm without difficulty of ſolution.

(9.) BREAD, HORSE, is made of wheat, oats, and beans; to which ſometimes are added aniſeed, gentian, liquorice, fenugreek, eggs, and ale; and ſometimes rye and white wine are uſed. For race horſes 5 ſorts of bread are uſually given with ſucceſs, for the 2d, 3d, and 4th nights feeding: they are all made of beans and wheat worked with barm; the difference conſiſting chiefly in the proportion of the two former. In the firſt kind, 3 times the quantity of beans is uſed to 1 of wheat; in the 2d equal quantities of both; in the 3d, 3 times the quantity of wheat to one of beans.

(10.) BREAD, MEDICAL QUALITIES OF. Beſides the alimentary, bread has alſo medical qualities.—Decoctions, creams, and jellies of bread, are directed in ſome diſpenſaries. Bread carefully toaſted, and infuſed or lightly boiled in water, imparts a deep colour, and a ſufficiently agreeable reſtringent taſte. This liquor, taken as common drink, has done good ſervice in a weak and lax ſtate of the ſtomach and inteſtines; and in bilious vomiting and purging, or the cholera morbus: examples are related in the Edinburgh eſſays of ſeveral caſes of this kind cured by it, without the uſe of any other medicine.—In Weſtphalia there is a very coarſe bread eaten, which ſtill retains the opprobrious name given it by a French traveller of BONPOURNICKEL, *i. e.* good for his horſe *Nickel*. It is the ſame with what the Romans called *panis furfuraceus*, or *panis impurus*, from its not being cleanſed from the huſk; and *panis ater*, from the blackneſs of its colour: though we learn from Pliny, that the Romans for 300 years knew no other bread. The Germans make two ſorts of waters by diſtillation from this bread; the one with, the other without, the addition of a ſpirituous liquor; to both which great virtues are aſcribed. That without any thing ſpirituous, is made out of the juice of craw-fiſh, may-dew, roſe-water, nutmegs, and ſaffron, diſtilled from a large quantity of this bread. This is eſteemed a great reſtorative, and given in hectic habits. The other is diſtilled from this bread and Rheniſh wine, with nutmegs and cinnamon. This is given in all the diſorders of the ſtomach, vomiting, loſs of appetite, and other complaints of the ſame kind: and beſides theſe, there is a ſpirit diſtilled from it by the retort in the dry way, which, when ſeparated from its fetid oil, is eſteemed a powerful ſudorific, and very valuable medicine in removing impurities of the blood. Bread is alſo medicinal, applied *externally*, as is commonly known. Mr Boyle aſſures us he drew a menſtruum from bread ſtronger than aquafortis, and which would act even upon glaſs itſelf. *Boyle's Phil. Works abridged*, vol. I. p. 34. 40. and vol. III. p. 572.

(11.) BREAD, MODERN VARIETIES OF. The French have a great variety of bread, as queens bread, alamode bread, bread de Segovie, de Gentillay, quality bread, &c. all prepared in peculiar manners by the bakers of Paris, though ſome of theſe names are now doubtleſs changed. The bread of Goneſſe excels all others, on account of the waters at Goneſſe. It is light and full of eyes, which are the marks of its goodneſs. *Pain de menage*, is that which each family bakes for itſelf. *Pain d' epice*, ſpice bread, denotes bread baked and iced over with the ſcum taken off ſugar in refining; houſes; it is ſometimes alſo made with honey and other ſorts of ſeaſoning, and anſwers to what the ancients called *panis meliitus*. Among us, bread is chiefly divided into *white*, *wheaten*, and *houſehold*; differing only in degrees of purity. In the firſt, all the bran is ſeparated; in the 2d only the coarſer; in the 3d none at all: ſo that fine bread is made only of flour: wheaten bread, of flour and a mixture of the finer bran; and houſehold, of the whole ſubſtance of the grain, without taking out either the courſe bran or fine flour. We alſo meet with SYMNEL bread, MANCHET, or roll bread, and French bread: which are only ſo many denominations of the fineſt and whiteſt bread, made of the pureſt flour; except that in *ill-roll* bread there is an addition of milk: and in French bread, of eggs and butter alſo. In Lancaſhire, and ſeveral of the northern counties of England, they have ſeveral ſorts of oaten bread; as, 1. The BANNOCK, which is an oat cake, kneaded only with water, and baked on the embers. 2. *Clap* bread, which is made into thin hard cakes. 3. *Bitchineſs* bread, which is made of thin batter, and made into thin ſoft oat cakes. 4. *Riddle* cakes, which are thick and four, have but little leaven, and are kneaded ſtiff. And 5. *Jannock*, which is oaten bread made up into loaves. 6. *Peaſe bread*, is alſo much uſed in many parts of Scotland; conſiſting either wholly of the flour of peaſe, or of this and oat-meal mixed: the dough, ſometimes leavened, ſometimes only made with water, is formed either in bannocks or cakes, and baked over the embers; or baked into what they call *baps*, i. e. a kind of flattiſh rolls, baked in the

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oven. In the ſtatute of aſſize of bread and ale, 51 Hen. III, mention is made of waſtel-bread, cocket-bread, and bread of treet; which anſwer to the three kinds of bread now in uſe, called *white*, *wheaten*, and *houſehold* bread. In religious houſes, they formerly diſtinguiſhed bread by the names *panis armigerorum*, Eſquires bread; *panis conventualis*, monks bread; *panis puerorum*, boys bread; and *panis famulorum*, or *panis ſervientalis*, ſervants bread. A like diſtribution obtained in the houſeholds of nobles and princes; where, however, we find ſome other denominations; as *panis nuncius*, meſſengers bread; that given to meſſengers as a reward of their labour; *panis curialis*, court bread; that allowed by the lord for the maintenance of his houſehold; *eleemoſynary* bread, that diſtributed to the poor by way of alms.

(12.) BREAD, NUTRITIVE PART OF, INVESTIGATED. M. Beccari of the Bolognian academy has diſcovered in the flour of wheat two diſtinct ſubſtances. The one he terms an *animal* or GLUTINOUS matter; the other an AMYLACEOUS matter or *vegetable paſte*. The GLUTEN has been ſuppoſed to be the nutritive part of corn, from its not diſſolving unleſs in vegetable acids; from its aſſuming a ſpongy form in boiling water; from its ſuppoſed analogy to the animal lymph; and, laſtly, from the ſimilitude which the products it affords, on a chemical analyſis, bear to thoſe obtained from animal ſubſtances. M. Parmentier, however, from various experiments, was led to conclude, with the celebrated Model of Peterſburg, that the gluten or animal matter of Beccari exiſts in the bran, and is not the nutritive part of the wheat. Having made experiments with four different kinds of flour, it appeared that the quantity of animal matter was always proportioned to the coarſeneſs of the flour. Hence, were this gluten the nutritive part, the coarſeſt bread, or that which contained moſt bran, would afford the greateſt quantity of nouriſhment. The contrary of this, however, is now known to be the fact. The amylaceous part, or, as ſome have termed it, the FECULA, of wheat and other vegetables, is a peculiar gum, not ſoluble in ſpirit of wine, vinegar, or cold water. It contains more acid, and leſs water, than the ordinary gums. It is found in many of thoſe plants that make the nouriſhment of men and other animals. Hence M. Parmentier concludes it to be the nutritive matter.—Though we are not to conſider the glutinous matter as the nutritious part of vegetables, yet it is a very neceſſary ingredient. It is that which preſerves the coheſion of the paſte in fermenting bread; it is that which forms the viſcid pellicle, and ſtops the air in fermentation; gives the ſavoury taſte to bread; occaſions it to be light, to ferment, and which forms the ſmall cells ſeen in it. It is found eſpecially near the cortical part of the grain; and this accounts for its being found in the greateſt quantity in coarſe brown meal. It is this gluten which renders wheat a ſuperior aliment to the other grains and roots.

(13.) BREAD, SACRAMENTAL, in the proteſtant churches, is common leavened bread, in conformity to the ancient practice. In the Romiſh maſs, azymous, or unleavened bread, is uſed, particularly in the Gallican church, where a ſort is provided for this purpoſe called *pain a chanter*, made of the pureſt wheaten flour preſſed between two iron plates graven like wafer-moulds, being firſt rubbed with white wax to prevent the paſte from ſticking. The Greeks obſerve divers ceremonies in their making the eucharift bread. It is neceſſary the perſon who bakes it have not lain with his wife the day before; or, if it be a woman, that ſhe have not converſed with her huſband.—The Abyſſinians have an apartment in their churches for this purpoſe, being a kind of ſacriſty. F. Sirmond, in his diſquiſition on azymous bread, ſhows from the council of Toledo, that anciently there were as many ceremonies uſed in the Latin church, in the preparations of their unleavened bread, as are ſtill retained in the eaſtern churches. He cites the example of queen Radegonda, who diſtributed with her own hands in the church, the bread which ſhe herſelf had made. It appears alſo from the diſpute of Cardinal Humbert againſt the Greeks, that in the Latin church no bread was uſed for the eucharift, but what was taken out of the ſacriſty, and had been made by the deacons, ſubdeacons, and even prieſts, who rehearſed ſeveral pſalms during the proceſs. Eccleſiaſtical writers enumerate other ſpecies of bread allotted for purpoſes of religion; as, 1. *Calendarius*, that anciently offered to the prieſt at the kalends. 2. *Prebendarius*, the ſame with *capitularis*, that diſtributed daily to each prebendary or canon. 4. *Benedictus*, that uſually given to catechumens before baptiſm, in lieu of the euchariſtic bread, which they were incapable of partaking of. The *panis benedictus*, was called alſo *panagium* and *eulogium*, being a ſort of bread bleſſed and conſecrated by the prieſt, whereby to prepare the catechumens for the reception of the body of Chriſt. The ſame was uſed afterwards not only by catechumens, but by believers themſelves, as a token of their mutual communion and friendſhip. Its origin is dated from the 5th century, at the council of Nantz. In the Gallican church we ſtill find *panis benedictus*, *pain benit*, uſed for that offered for benediction, and afterwards diſtributed to pious perſons who attend divine ſervice in chapels. 4. Conſecrated bread is a piece of wax, paſte, or even earth, over which ſeveral ceremonies have been performed with benedictions, &c. to be ſent in an *Agnus Dei*, or relic-box, and preſented for veneration. 5. Unleavened bread, *panis azymus*. The Jews eat no other bread during their paſſover; and exact ſearch was made in every houſe, to ſee that no leavened bread was left. The uſage was introduced in memory of their haſty departure from Egypt, when they had not leiſure to bake leavened. 6. Shew-bread was that offered to God every Sabbath-day, being placed on the golden table in the holy of holies.

(14.) BREAD, SAGO. See SAGO.

(15.) BREAD, SUBSTITUTES FOR. It is for the intereſt of the community that the food of the poor ſhould be as various as poſſible, that, in time of dearth and ſcarcity of the ordinary kinds, they may not be without ready and cheap reſources. To the diſcovery of ſuch reſources ſeveral benevolent philoſophers having ſucceſsfully turned their inquiries, we ſhall lay before the reader the reſult of their experiments.

I. BREAD,

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I. BREADD OF POTATOES. Potatoes, ſkinned, cut into thin ſlices, and put between papers, will dry in a heat ſomewhat leſs than 35° of Reaumur's thermometer; and, when thus dried, they will preſerve their white colour. By this proceſs they loſe about two thirds of their weight, and they may then be reduced to fine powder. A little of this powder thrown upon the fire ſends out a ſmoke, accompanied with a ſmell reſembling burnt bread. As this ſmell is perceived from all farinaceous vegetables when treated in the ſame manner, M. Parmentier thinks it may be conſidered as the characteriſtic of the preſence of an amylaceous matter. This ſmell does not, however, he obſerves, ariſe from the amylaceous or fibrous part ſeparately, but from both taken together. The powder of potatoes, obtained as deſcribed above, has the ſmell and taſte of wheat; and, like it, is devoured by rats and mice; but, even when moſt finely powdered, it has not the feel or brightneſs of the flour of wheat; although, on a chemical analyſis it yields the ſame products. It is alſo nutritious, and keeps well for a long time. Finding ſo great a ſimilarity between the meal of wheat and that of potatoes, M. Parmentier next endeavoured to make bread of them when mixed in different proportions. His trials were made with $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{1}{3}$, $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{2}{3}$ of the potatoe-meal, the remainder being flour from wheat. Theſe proportions, with the addition of a little ſalt and yeſt, yielded bread which was well taſted, but which had fermented little, was brown, and covered with hard brown cruſts. Bread made from the meal of potatoes alone, with the addition of ſalt and yeſt, was eatable, but very heavy, unfermented, and exceedingly brown. This bread, from the meal of potatoes alone, was apt to crumble into powder. To give it more adhefion, he mixed with the meal a decoction of bran, or a mixture of honey and water; either of which made it lighter and more fermented; it obtained alſo a cruſt of a golden colour, became well taſted, and ſufficiently adhefive. M. Permentier obtained bread alſo, well fermented, and of a good colour and taſte, from a mixture of raw potatoe-pulp with meal of wheat, or potatoe-meal, with the addition of yeſt and ſalt. Potatoes, when uſed for making bread, are not readily diſpoſed to ferment, without which, bread is very inſipid, and not eaſily digeſted. But M. Parmentier found, from a variety of experiments, that good bread might be made from equal quantities of flour and potatoe-meal. He concludes, therefore, with recommending the mixture of potatoes, in times of ſcarcity, with the flour of wheat, inſtead of employing, rye, barley, or oats, as has frequently been done. When grain is altogether wanting, he recommends the uſe of bread made from a mixture of the amylaceous powder of potatoes and of their pulp, this mixture being fermented with leaven or with honey. The meal of this root, when diluted with hot water, acquires a tenacious and gluey conſiſtence. However fair the meal of potatoes may be, it always gives a grey colour to the bread made by mixing it with the flour of wheat; but a mixture of the pulp of potatoes with the flour of wheat does not produce brown coloured bread. M. Parmentier made bread, very much like that of wheat, by a mixture of the following 4 ſubſtances, viz. 4 ounces of amylaceous powder of potatoes, one dram of mucilage extracted from barley, one dram of the bran of rye, and a dram and a half of glutinous matter dried and powdered.

II. BREAD OF SEVERAL OTHER VEGETABLES. Although horſe cheſnut has not hitherto been employed, yet it is certain that wholeſome bread, without any bitterneſs, may be obtained from it. M. Parmentier adviſes, that the fruit, after the ſkin is taken off, and the juice preſſed from it, be made into a paſte. This maſs muſt be diluted in water, and then ſtrained through a ſieve. A milky-coloured liquor is thus ſeparated, which, on ſtanding, depoſites a fine powder. This, being dried, is without either ſmell or taſte, and very fit for aliment; the maſs from which it is procured retaining the bitterneſs of the fruit. The roots of the bryona, treated in the ſame manner, yielded a ſimilar white powder. By the ſame treatment alſo, fine, white, inſipid, inodorous powders may be procured from the roots of the iris, gladiolus, ranunculus, fumaria, arum, dracunculus, mandragora, colchicum, filipendula, and helleborus; plants which grow ſpontaneouſly, and in great abundance. Bread has frequently been made of acorns, and to this day, in ſome countries, they are in common uſe. The method of preparation, which M. Parmentier recommends, is, that they be deprived of their cover by boiling, then dried and powdered, and afterwards baked in the ſame manner as the flour of wheat. When fully ripe, and made into a paſte, they were deprived of their aſtringency by merely preſſing their juice from them. The maſs remaining after the preſſure, when dried, was eaſily reduced to a fine powder by no means diſagreeable. The gramen caninum arvenſe, in its appearance approaches to corn; and ſome naturaliſts have conſidered it as the original ſpecies from which all our grain is produced. Its roots are ſweet-taſted, and have long been employed in making ptiſans. In the preparation of them for bread, it is only neceſſary that the roots ſhould be cleanſed, cut ſmall, dried, and pounded. This powder, M. Parmentier obſerves, does not diſſolve in cold water or ſpirits; but it does in boiling water, which it renders thick and cloudy, and, upon cooling, the whole maſs obtains a gelatinous conſiſtence. Upon a chemical analyſis, it yields an acid empyreumatic oil, which poſſeſſes a ſingular odour, reſembling that which is perceived on burning the plant. The ſpongy reſiduum, calcined in the air, gives a fixed alkali. Theſe properties inconteſtibly prove, that it contains an amylaceous matter ſimilar to that of grain, which appears to be the nutritive part of vegetables. This amylaceous matter, formed into a jelly and diffuſed in water, keeps for a long time without ſuffering any change; it then turns acid, and at length putrefies. The amylaceous matter of acrid and poiſonous plants, although innocent and nutritive, cannot be converted into bread without the addition of ſome mucilaginous ſubſtance. In times of great ſcarcity, common bran will anſwer the purpoſe; but when potatoes are to be had, the addition of a proper proportion of theſe is to be preferred. M. Parmentier gives an account of the bread which he obtained from the amylaceous

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amylaceous powders of the different vegetables mentioned above, with the addition of potatoes, and a ſmall quantity of common leaven of grain. This bread appeared in general to be well fermented; it was of a good white colour, and free from any diſagreeable odour; but to the taſte, it was ſomewhat inſipid; which, however, he imagines, might have been corrected by the addition of a proper quantity of ſalt. As the reſources againſt ſcarcity here pointed out can be procured only at particular ſeaſons, the author propoſes a method for preſerving the matter thus obtained. For this purpoſe, he adviſes that bread, prepared in the manner mentioned above, ſhould be carefully dried, reduced to powder, and then kept in a cloſe caſk. By this means he is of opinion that it may be preſerved for a very long time, and will always be ready to make an agreeable and wholeſome panada by the addition of a little butter and ſalt. M. Parmentier, in order to diſcover the degree of power wherewith this alimentary powder nouriſhed, made himſelf the ſubject of experiment; and found, that 3 ounces of it for dinner, and as much for ſupper, made into panada with water, was a ſufficient quantity of aliment for a day. From his diſcharge by ſtool while he uſed it, he had reaſon to believe that it is almoſt totally alimentary. He concludes with recommending it not only as uſeful in times of ſcarcity, but as a proper ſubſtitute for ſea-biſcuit, and as a ſpecies of food well adapted for armies and hoſpitals.

III. BREAD OF TURNIPS. The following cheap method of making wholeſome bread is recommended in a letter in the *Muſæum Ruſticum et Commerciale*. "At the time I tried this method, bread was very dear, inſomuch that the poor people, in the country where I live, can hardly afford themſelves half a meal a day. This put me upon conſulting whether ſome cheaper method might not be found than making it of wheat-meal. Turnips were at that time very plentiful. I had a number of them pulled, waſhed clean, pared, and boiled; when they were become ſoft enough to maſh, I had the greateſt part of the water preſſed out of them, and afterwards had them mixed with an equal quantity in weight of coarſe wheat meal; the dough was then made in the uſual manner, with yeſt or barm, ſalt, water, &c. It roſe very well in the trough; and after being well kneaded, was formed into loaves, and put into the oven to be baked. I had at the ſame time ſome other bread made with common meal in the ordinary way. I baked my turnip bread rather longer than the other. When they were drawn from the oven, I cauſed a loaf of each ſort to be cut; and found, on examination, the turnip-bread was ſweeter than the other, to the full as light and as white, but had a little taſte (though nowiſe diſagreeable) of the turnip. Twelve hours afterwards I taſted my turnip-bread again, when I found the taſte of the turnip in it ſcarce perceivable, and the ſmell quite gone off. On examining it when it had been baked 24 hours, had I not known there were turnips in its compoſition, I ſhould not have imagined it: it had, it is true, a peculiar ſweetiſh taſte, but by no means diſagreeable; on the contrary, I rather preferred it to the bread made of wheat-meal alone. After it had been baked 48 hours, it underwent another examination, when it appeared to me to be rather ſuperior to the other; it eat freſher and moiſter, and had not at all abated in its good qualities; to be ſhort, it was ſtill very good after a week; and, as far as I could ſee, kept as well as the bread made of common wheat-meal. In my trials of this bread by the taſte, I was not ſatisfied with eating it by itſelf; I had ſome of it ſpread with butter; I taſted it with cheeſe; I ate of it toaſted and buttered, and finally in boiled milk and in ſoup: in all theſe forms it was very palatable and good."

(16.) BREAD VALUED FOR ITS AGE. Bartholinus aſſures us, that in Norway they make bread which keeps 30 or 40 years; and that they are there fonder of their old hard bread, than elſewhere of new or ſoft; ſince the older it is, the more agreeable it grows. For their great feaſts, particular care is taken to have the oldeſt bread; ſo that at the chriſtening of a child, they have uſually bread which had been baked perhaps at the chriſtening of his grandfather! It is made of barley and oat-meal baked between two hollow ſtones.

BRADEALBANE. See BRAIDALBIN.

BREAD, BEE'S. See BEE-BREAD.

* BREAD-CHIPPER. *n. ſ.* [from *bread* and *chip*.] One that chips bread; a baker's ſervant; an under-butler.—No abuſe, Hal, on my honour; no abuſe.——Not to diſpraiſe me, and call me pantler, and *bread-chipper*, and I know not what? *Shakeſpeare.*

* BREAD-CORN. *n. ſ.* [from *bread* and *corn*.] Corn of which bread is made.—There was not one drop of beer in the town; the bread, and *bread-corn*, ſufficed not for ſix days. *Hayward.*—When it is ripe, they gather it, and, bruiſing it among *bread-corn*, they put it into a veſſel, and keep it as food for their ſlaves. *Broome.*

To BREADE. *v. n. obſ.* to ſpread.

(1.) * BREAD-ROOM. *n. ſ.* [In a ſhip.] A part of the hold ſeparated by a bulk head from the reſt, where the bread and biſket for the men are kept.

(2.) *A* BREAD-ROOM ſhould be jointed and cauldked in the boards, and even lined with tin plates or mats. It ſhould alſo be well warmed with charcoal for ſeveral days before the biſket is put into it; for nothing is more injurious to the bread than moiſture.

(1.) * BREADTH. *n. ſ.* [from *brad*, broad, Saxon.] The meaſure of any plain ſuperficies from ſide to ſide.—There is in Ticinum, a church that hath windows only from above: it is in length an hundred feet, in *breadth* twenty, and in height near fifty; having a door in the midſt. *Bacon.*—The river Ganges, according unto later relations, if not in length, yet in *breadth* and depth, may excell it. *Brown.*—

Then all approach the ſlain with vaſt ſuprize,
Admire on what a *breadth* of earth he lies. *Dryd.*

—In our Gothic cathedrals, the narrowneſs of the arch makes it riſe in height; the lowneſs opens it in *breadth*. *Addiſon.*

(2.) BREADTH, in geometry, one of three dimenſions of bodies, which multiplied into their length conſtitutes a ſurface.

BREAD TREE. See ARTOCARPUS, § 1—5.

BREAGE,

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BREAGE, a village in Cornwall, 3 miles NW. of Helſton.

* BREAK. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. State of being broken; opening.—From the *break* of day until noon, the roaring of the cannon never ceaſed. *Knolles.*—

For now, and ſince firſt *break* of day, the fiend,
Mere ſerpent in appearance, forth was come.
Milton.

—They muſt be drawn from far, and without *breaks*, to avoid the multiplicity of lines. *Dryden.*—The ſight of it would be quite loſt, did it not ſometimes diſcover itſelf through the *breaks* and openings of the woods that grow about it. *Addiſon.* 2. A pauſe; an interruption. 3. A line drawn, noting that the ſenſe is ſuſpended.—

All modern traſh is
Set forth with numerous *breaks* and daſhes.
Swift.

(1.) * *To* BREAK. *v. a.* pret. I *broke*, or *brake*; part. paſſ. *broke*, or *broken*. [*breccan*, Sax.] 1. To part by violence.—When I *brake* the five loaves among five thouſand, how many baſkets of fragments took ye up? *Mark.*—Let us *break* their bands aſunder, and caſt away their cords from us. *Pſalms.*—A bruiſed reed ſhall he not *break*. *Iſa.*—

See, ſaid the fire, how ſoon its done;
The ſticks he then *brake* one by one:
So ſtrong you'll be in friendſhip ty'd;
So quickly *brake*, if you divide. *Swift.*

2. To burſt, or open by force.—

O could we *break* our way by force. *Milton.*—Moſes tells us, that the fountains of the earth were *broke* open, or clove aſunder. *Burnet's Theory.*

Into my hands he forc'd the tempting gold,
While I with modeſt ſtruggling *broke* his hold.
Gay.

3. To pierce; to divide, as light divides darkneſs.

By a dim winking lamp which feebly *broke*
The gloomy vapour, he lay ſtretch'd along.
Dryden.

4. To deſtroy by violence.—This is the fabrick, which, when God *breaketh* down, none can build up again. *Burnet's Theory.* 5. To batter; to make breaches or gaps in.—

I'd give bay Curtal and his furniture,
My mouth no more were *broken* than theſe boys,
And writ as little beard. *Shakeſpeare.*

6. To cruſh or deſtroy the ſtrength of the body.—

O father abbot!
An old man, *broken* with the ſtorms of ſtate,
Is come to lay his weary bones among ye;
Give him a little earth for charity. *Shakeſpeare.*

The breaking of that parliament
Broke him; as that diſhoneſt victory
At Chæronea, fatal to liberty,
Kill'd with report that old man eloquent. *Milt.*

—Have not ſome of his voices weaken'd his body, and *broke* his health? have not others diſſipated his eſtate and reduced him to want? *Tillotſon.* 7. To ſink or appal the ſpirit.—The defeat of that day was much greater than it then appeared to be; and it even *broke* the heart of his army. *Clarend.*—

I'll brave her to her face;
I'll give my anger its free courſe againſt her:
Thou ſhalt ſee, Phœnix, how I'll *break* her pride. *Phillips.*

8. To cruſh; to ſhatter.—

Your hopes without are vaniſh'd into ſmoke;
Your captains taken, and your armies *broke*.
Dryden.

9. To weaken mental faculties.—

Oppreſt nature ſleeps;
This reſt might yet have balm'd thy *broken* ſenſes,
Which, if conveniency will not allow,
Stand in hard cure. *Shakeſpeare.*

—If any dabbler in poetry dares venture upon the experiment, he will only *break* his brains. *Felton.* 10. To tame: to train to obedience; to enure to docility.—What boots it to *break* a colt, and to let him ſtraight run looſe at random? *Spenſer.*—

Why, then, thou can'ſt not *break* her to the lute.—
—Why, no; for ſhe hath broke the lute to me.
Shakeſpeare.

So fed before he's *broke*, he'll bear
Too great a ſtomach patiently to feel
The laſhing whip, or chew the curbing ſteel.
May.

That hot mouth'd beaſt that bears againſt the curb,
Hard to be *broken* even by lawful kings. *Dryd.*

No ſports but what belong to war they know,
To *break* the ſtubborn colt, to bend the bow.
Dryden.

Virtues like theſe,
Make human nature ſhine, reform the ſoul,
And *break* our fierce barbarians into men. *Add.*

Behold young Juba, the Numidian prince,
With how much care he forms himſelf to glory,
And *breaks* the fierceneſs of his native temper.
Addiſon.

11. To make bankrupt.—

The king's grown bankrupt, like a *broken* man.
Shakeſpeare.

For this few know themſelves: for merchants *broke*,
View their eſtate with diſcontent and pain.
Davies.

With arts like theſe, rich Matho, when he ſpeaks
Attracts all fees, and little lawyers *breaks*.
Dryden.

—A command or call to be liberal, all of a ſudden impoveriſhes the rich, *breaks* the merchant, and ſhuts up every private man's exchequer. *South.* 12. To diſcard; to diſmiſs.—I ſee a great officer *broken*. *Swift.* 13. To crack or open the ſkin, ſo as that the blood comes.—She could have run and waddled all about, even the day before ſhe *broke* her brow; and then my huſband took up the child. *Shakeſpeare.*—

Weak ſoul! and blindly to deſtruction led:
She break her heart! ſhe'll ſooner *break* your head.
Dryden.

14. To make a ſwelling or impoſthume open. 15. To violate a contract or promiſe.—

Lovers *break* not hours,
Unleſs it be to come before their time. *Shakeſp.*

Pardon this fault, and, by my ſoul I ſwear,
I never more will *break* an oath with thee.
Shakeſpeare.

Did not our worthies of the houſe,
Before they *broke* the peace, *break* vows? *Hyd.*

16. To

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16. To infringe a law.—

Unhappy man! to *break* the pious laws
Of nature, pleading in his children's cauſe.
Dryden.

17. To ſtop: to make ceaſe.—*Break* their talk, miſtreſs Quickly; my kinſman ſhall ſpeak for himſelf. *Shakeſpeare.* 18. To intercept.—Spirit of wine, mingled with common water, yet ſo as if the firſt fall be *broken*, by means of a ſop, or otherwiſe, it ſtayeth above. *Bacon.*—

Think not my ſenſe of virtue is ſo ſmall;
I'll rather leap down firſt, and *break* your fall.
Dryden.

As one condemn'd to leap a precipice,
Who ſees before his eyes the depth below,
Stops ſhort, and looks about for ſome kind ſhrub,
To *break* his dreadful fall. *Dryden.*

She held my hand, the deſtin'd blow to *break*,
Then from her roſy lips began to ſpeak. *Dryd.*

19. To interrupt.—

Some ſolitary cloiſter will I chooſe,
Coarſe my attire, and ſhort ſhall be my ſleep.
Broke by the melancholy midnight bell. *Dryd.*

—The father was ſo moved, that he could only command his voice, *broke* with ſighs and ſobbings, ſo far as to bid her proceed. *Addiſon.*—

The poor ſhade, ſhiv'ring ſtands, and muſt not *break*
His painful ſilence, till the mortal ſpeak. *Tickell.*

Sometimes in *broken* words he ſighed his care,
Look'd pale and trembled when he view'd the fair. *Gay.*

20. To ſeparate company.—Did not Paul and Barnabas diſpute with that vehemence, that they were forced to *break* company? *Atterbury.* 21. To diſſolve any union.—It is great folly, as well as injuſtice, to *break* off ſo noble a relation. *Collier.* 22. To reform: with *of*.—The French were not quite *broken of* it, until ſome time after they became chriſtians. *Grew.* 23. To open ſomething new; to propound ſomething by an overture; as if a ſeal were opened.—When any new thing ſhall be propounded, no counſellor ſhould ſuddenly deliver any poſitive opinion, but only hear it, and, at the moſt, but to *break* it, at firſt, that it may be the better underſtood at the next meeting. *Bacon.*—

I, who much deſired to know
Of whence ſhe was, yet fearful how to *break*
My mind, adventur'd humbly thus to ſpeak.
Dryden.

24. *To break the back.* To ſtrain or diſlocate the vertebræ with too heavy burdens.—

I'd rather crack my ſinews, *break my back*,
Than you ſhould ſuch diſhonour undergo.
Shakeſpeare.

25. *To break the back.* To diſable one's fortune.—

O, many,
Have *broke their backs*, with laying manors on 'em,
For this great journey. *Shakeſpeare.*

26. *To break a deer.* To cut it up at table. 27. *To break faſt.* To eat the firſt time in the day. 28. *To break ground.* To plow.—When price of corn falleth, men generally give over ſurplus tillage, and *break* no more *ground* than will ſerve to ſupply their own turn. *Carew.*—The huſbandman muſt firſt *break the land*, before it be made capable of good ſeed. *Davies.* 29. *To break ground.* To open trenches. 30. *To break the heart.* To deſtroy with grief.—

Good my lord, enter here.———
—Will't *break my heart?*———
I'd rather *break mine own.* *Shakeſpeare.*

Should not all relations bear a part?
It were enough to *break a ſingle heart.* *Dryden.*

31. *To break a jeſt.* To utter a jeſt unexpected. 32. *To break the neck.* To lux, or put out the neck joints.—I had as lief thou didſt *break his neck*, as his fingers. *Shakeſpeare.* 33. *To break off.* To put a ſudden ſtop; to interrupt. 34. *To break off.* To preclude by ſome obſtacle ſuddenly interpoſed.

To check the ſtarts and ſallies of the ſoul,
And *break off* all its commerce with the tongue.
Addiſon.

35. *To break up.* To diſſolve; to put a ſudden end to.—

Who cannot reſt till he good fellows find;
He *breaks up* houſe, turns out of doors his mind.
Herbert.

—He threatened, that the tradeſmen would beat out his teeth, if he did not retire, and *break up* the meeting. *Arbuthnot.* 36. *To break up.* To open; to lay open.—Shells being lodged among mineral matter, when this comes to be *broke up*, it exhibits impreſſions of the ſhells. *Woodward.* 37. *To break up.* To ſeparate or diſband.—After taking the ſtrong city of Belgrade, Solyman returning to Conſtantinople, *broke up* his army, and there lay ſtill the whole year following. *Knolles.* 38. *To break upon the wheel.* To puniſh by ſtretching a criminal upon the wheel, and breaking his bones with bats. 39. *To break wind.* To give vent to wind in the body.

(2.) * *To* BREAK. *v. n.* 1. To part in two.—

Give ſorrow words, the grief that does not ſpeak,
Whiſpers the o'erfraught heart, and bids it *break.*
Shakeſpeare.

2. To burſt.—

The clouds are ſtill above; and, while I ſpeak,
A ſecond deluge o'er our heads may *break.* *Dryd.*

The Roman camp
Hangs o'er us black and threatning, like a ſtorm
Juſt *breaking* on our heads. *Dryden.*

3. To ſpread by daſhing, as waves on a rock.—

At laſt a falling billow ſtops his breath,
Breaks o'er his head, and whelms him underneath. *Dryden.*

—He could compare the confuſion of a multitude to that tumult in the Icarian ſea, daſhing and *breaking* among its crowd of iſlands. *Pope.* 4. To break as a ſwelling; to open, and diſcharge matter.—Some hidden abſceſs in the meſentery, *breaking* ſome few days after, was diſcovered to be an apoſteme. *Harvey.*—Aſk one who hath ſubdued his natural rage, how he likes the change, and undoubtedly he will tell you, that it is no leſs happy than the eaſe of a *broken* impoſtume, as the painful gathering and filling of it. *Decay of Piety.* 5. To open as the morning.—

The day *breaks* not, it is my heart,
Becauſe that I and you muſt part,
Stay, or elſe my joys will die,
And periſh in their infancy. *Donne.*

—When

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—When a man thinks of any thing in the darkneſs of the night, whatever deep impreſſions it may make in his mind, they are apt to vaniſh as the day *breaks* about him. *Addiſon.* 6. To burſt forth; to exclaim.—

Every man,
After the hideous ſtorm that follow'd was
A thing inſpir'd; and, not conſulting, *broke*
Into a general prophecy. *Shakeſpeare.*

7. To become bankrupt.—I did mean, indeed, to pay you with this; which, if like an ill venture, it come unluckily home, I *break*, and you, my gentle creditors, loſe. *Shakeſp.* —He that puts all upon adventures, doth oftentimes *break*, and come to poverty. *Bacon.*—

Cutler ſaw tenants *break*, and houſes fall,
For very want he could not build a wall. *Pope.*

8. To decline in health and ſtrength —

Yet thus, methinks, I hear them ſpeak;
See how the dean begins to *break*:
Poor gentleman! he droops apace. *Swift.*

9. To iſſue out with vehemence —

Whoſe wounds, yet freſh, with bloody hands he ſtrook,
While from his breaſt the dreadful accents *broke.* *Pope.*

10. To make way with ſome kind of ſuddenneſs, impetuoſity, or violence.—Calamities may be nearer at hand, and readieſt to *break* in ſuddenly upon us, which we, in regard of times or circumſtances, may imagine to be fartheſt off. *Hooker.*—The three mighty men *broke* through the hoſt of the Philiſtines. 2 *Samuel.*—They came into Judah, and *brake* into it. 2 *Chronicles.*—Or who ſhut up the ſee within doors, when it *brake* forth, as if it had iſſued out of the womb? *Job.*—

This, this is he: ſoftly awhile,
Let us not *break* in upon him. *Milton.*

—He reſolved, that Balfour ſhould uſe his utmoſt endeavour to *break* through with his whole body of horſe. *Clarendon.*—When the channel of a river is overcharged with water, more than it can deliver, it neceſſarily *breaks* over the banks, to make itſelf room. *Hale.*—

Sometimes his anger *breaks* thro' all diſguiſes,
And ſpares not gods nor men. *Denham.*
Till thro' thoſe clouds the ſon of knowledge *brake*,
And Europe from her lethargy did wake. *Denh.*
O! could'ſt thou *break* thro' fate's ſevere decree,
A new Marcellus ſhould ariſe in thee. *Dryden.*
At length I've acted my ſevereſt part;
I ſee the woman *breaking* in upon me,
And melt about my heart, my tears will flow. *Addiſon.*
How does the luſtre of our father's actions,
Through the dark cloud of ills that cover him,
Break out, and burn with more triumphant blaze! *Addiſon.*
And yet, methinks, a beam of light, *breaks* in
On my departing ſoul. *Addiſon.*

—There are ſome, who, ſtruck with the uſefulneſs of theſe charities, *break* through all the difficulties and obſtructions that now lie in the way towards advancing them. *Atterbury* —

Almighty power, by whoſe wiſe command,
Helpleſs, forlorn, uncertain here I ſtand;
Take this faint glimmering of thyſelf away,
Or *break* into my ſoul with perfect day! *Arbuth.*

See heav'n its ſparkling portals wide diſplay,
And *break* upon thee in a flood of day! *Pope.*

—I muſt here pay the laſt duty of friendſhip, wherever ſhe is, though I *break* through the whole plan of life which I have formed in my mind. *Swift.* 11. To come to an explanation.—But perceiving this great alteration in his friend, he thought fit to *break* with him thereof. *Sidney.*—

Stay with me a while;
I am to *break* with thee of ſome affairs,
That touch me near. *Shakeſpeare.*

Break with them, gentle love,
About the drawing as many of their hundreds
Into the plot, as can. *Ben Jonſon.*

12. To fall out; to be friends no longer.—

Be not afraid to *break*
With murd'rer's, and traitors, for the ſaving
A life ſo near and neceſſary to you,
As is your country's. *Ben Jonſon.*

—To *break* upon the ſcore of danger or expence, is to be mean and narrow-ſpirited. *Collier.*—

Sighing, he ſays, we muſt certainly *break*,
And my cruel unkindneſs compels him to ſpeak. *Prior.*

13. *To break from.* To go away with ſome vehemence.—

How didſt thou ſcorn life's meaner charms,
Thou who could'ſt *break from* Laura's arms? *Roſcommon.*

Thus radient *from* the circling croud he *broke*;
And thus with manly majeſty he ſpoke. *Dryd.*

—This cuſtom makes bigots and ſcepticks; and thoſe that *break from* it, are in danger of hereſy, *Locke.* 14. *To break in.* To enter unexpectedly, without proper preparation —The doctor is a pedant, that, with a deep voice, and a magiſterial air, *breaks in* upon converſation, and drives down all before him. *Addiſon.* 15. *To break looſe.* To eſcape from captivity.—

Who would not, finding way, *break looſe* from hell,
And boldly venture to whatever place,
Fartheſt from pain? *Milton.*

16. *To break looſe.* To ſhake off reſtraint.—If we deal falſely in covenant with God, and *break looſe* from all our engagements, to him, we releaſe God from all the promiſes he has made to us. *Tillotſon.*

17. *To break off.* To deſiſt ſuddenly —Do not peremptorily *break off*, in any buſineſs, in a fit of anger; but howſoever you ſhew bitterneſs, do not act any thing that is not revocable. *Bacon.*—Pius Quintus, at the very time when that memorable victory was won by the Chriſtians at Lepanto, being then hearing of cauſes in conſiſtory, *broke off* ſuddenly, and ſaid to thoſe about him, It is now more time we ſhould give thanks to God *Bacon.* —When you begin to conſider, whether you may ſafely take one draught more, let that be accounted a ſign late enough to *break off*. *Taylor.* 18. *To break off from.* To part from with violence.—

I muſt *from* this enchanting queen *break off*.
Shakeſpeare.

19. *To break out.* To diſcover itſelf in ſudden effects.—

Let not our ſpark of filthy luſtful fire
Break out, that may her ſacred peace moleſt. *Spenſ.*

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—They ſmother and keep down the flame of the miſchief, ſo as it may not *break out* in their time of government; what comes afterwards, they care not. *Spenſer.*—Such a deal of wonder is *broken out* within this hour, that ballad makers cannot be able to expreſs it. *Shakeſp.*—As fire *breaks out* of flint by percuſſion, ſo wiſdom and truth iſſueth out by the agitation of argument. *Howel.*—

Fully ripe, his ſwelling fate *breaks out*,
And hurries him to mighty miſchiefs on. *Dryd.*

All turn'd their ſides, and to each other ſpoke;
I ſaw their words *break out* in fire and ſmoke.
Dryden.

Like a ball of fire, the further thrown,
Still with a greater blaze ſhe ſhone,
And her bright ſoul *broke out* on ev'ry ſide. *Milt.*

—There can be no greater labour, than to be always diſſembling; there being ſo many ways by which a ſmother'd truth is apt to blaze, and *break out*. *South.*—There are men of concealed fire, that doth not *break out* in the ordinary circumſtances of life. *Addiſon.*—A violent fever *broke out* in the place, which ſwept away great multitudes. *Addiſ.* 20. *To break out.* To have eruptions from the body, as puſtules or ſores. 21. *To break out.* To become diſſolute.—He *broke* not *out* into his great exceſſes, while he was reſtrained by the councils and authority of Seneca. *Dryd.* 22. *To break up.* To ceaſe; to intermit.—It is credibly affirmed, that, upon that very day when the river firſt riſeth, great plagues in Cairo uſe ſuddenly to *break up*. *Bacon's Natural Hiſt.* 23. *To break up.* To diſſolve itſelf.—Theſe, and the like conceits, when men have cleared their underſtanding, by the light of experience, will ſcatter and *break up*, like miſt. *Bacon.*—The ſpeedy depredation of air upon watery moiſture, and verſion of the ſame into air, appeareth in nothing more viſible than the ſudden diſcharge or vaniſhing of a little cloud of breath, or vapour, from glaſs, or any poliſhed body; for the miſtineſs ſcattereth, and *breaketh up* ſuddenly. *Bacon.*—But, ere he came near it, the pillar and croſs of light *brake up*, and caſt itſelf abroad, as it were, into a firmament of many ſtars. *Bacon.*—What we obtain by converſation, is oftentimes loſt again, as ſoon as the company *breaks up*, or, at leaſt, when the day vaniſhes. *Watts.* 24. *To break up.* To begin holidays; to be diſmiſſed from buſineſs.—

Our army is diſpers'd already:
Like youthful ſteers unyok'd, they took their courſe
Eaſt, weſt, north, ſouth: or, like a ſchool *broke up*,
Each hurries towards his home and ſporting-place.
Shakeſpeare.

25. *To break with.* To part friendſhip with any.—

There is a ſlave whom we have put in priſon,
Reports, the Volſcians, with two ſeveral powers,
Are entered in the Roman territories.—
—Go ſee this rumourer whipt. It cannot be,
The Volſcians dare *break with* us. *Shakeſp.*

—Can there be any thing of friendſhip in ſnares, hooks, and trepans? Whoſoever *breaks with* his friend upon ſuch terms, has enough to warrant him in ſo doing, both before God and man. *South.*

Invent ſome apt pretence,
To *break with* Bertran. *Dryden.*

26. It is to be obſerved of this extenſive and perplexed *verb*, that in all its ſignifications, whether *active* or *neutral*, it has ſome reference to its primitive meaning, by implying either detriment, ſuddenneſs, violence, or ſeparation. It is uſed often with additional particles, *up*, *out*, *in*, *off*, *forth*, to modify its ſignification.

(3.) *To* BREAK A HORSE, among ſportſmen, is to make him light upon the hand in trotting, in order to make him fit for a gallop. To break a horſe for hunting, is to ſupple him, to make him take the habit of running.

(1.) * BREAKER. *n. ſ.* [from *break*.] 1. He that breaks any thing.—

Cardinal, I'll be no *breaker* of the law. *Shak.*—If the churches were not employed to be places to hear God's law, there would be need of them, to be priſons for the *breakers* of the laws of men. *South.* 2. A wave broken by rocks or ſand banks: a term of navigation.

(2.) BREAKERS, (§ 1. *def.* 2.) are diſtinguiſhed both by their appearance and ſound, as they cover that part of the ſea with a perpetual foam, and produce a hoarſe and terrible roaring, very different from what the waves uſually have in a deeper bottom. When a ſhip is unhappily driven among breakers, it is hardly poſſible to ſave her, as every billow that heaves her upward ſerves to daſh her down with additional force when it breaks over the rocks or ſands beneath it.

* BREAKFAST. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. The firſt meal in the day.—The duke was at *breakfaſt*, the laſt of his repaſts in this world. *Wotton.* 2. The thing eaten at the firſt meal.—Hope is a good *breakfaſt*, but it is a bad ſupper. *Bacon.*—A good piece of bread would be often the beſt *breakfaſt* for my young maſter. *Locke.* 3. A meal or food in general.—

Had I been ſeized by a hungry lion,
I would have been a *breakfaſt* to the beaſt.
Shakeſpears.

I lay me down to gaſp my lateſt breath,
The wolves will get a *breakfaſt* by my death,
Yet ſcarce enough their hunger to ſupply. *Dryd.*

* *To* BREAKFAST. *v. n.* [from *break* and *faſt*.] To eat the firſt meal in the day.—

As ſoon as Phœbus's rays inſpect us,
Firſt, Sir, I read, and then I *breakfaſt*. *Prior.*

(1.) BREAKING. See BANKRUPT.

(2.) BREAKING BULK, in ſea language, means unlading part of the cargo.

* BREAKNECK, *n. ſ.* [from *break* and *neck*.] A fall in which the neck is broken; a ſteep place endangering the neck.—

I muſt
Forſake the court; to do't or no, is certain
To me a *breakneck*. *Shakeſpeare.*

* BREAKPROMISE. *n. ſ.* [from *break* and *promiſe*.] One that makes a practice of breaking his promiſe.—I will think you the moſt atheiſtical *breakpromiſe*, and the moſt hollow lover. *Shakeſ.*

(1.) BREAKSPEAR, a village in Middleſex, near Uxbridge.

(2.) BREAKSPEAR, Nicholas. See ADRIAN IV.

* BREAKVOW. *n. ſ.* [from *break* and *vow*.] He that practiſeth the breach of vows.—

That daily *breakvow*, he that wins of all,
Of kings, of beggars, old men, young men, maids.
Shakeſpeare.

BREAK-

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BREAK-WATER. *n. ſ.* The hulk of an old veſſel ſunk at the entrance of a harbour to break the force of the ſea. *Aſh.*

(1.) BREAM, a village in Glouceſterſhire, in the pariſh of Newland.

(2.) * BREAM. *n. ſ.* [*brame*, Fr. *cyprinus latus*, Lat.] The name of a fiſh.—The *bream* being at full growth, is a large fiſh; he will breed both in rivers and ponds, but loves beſt to live in ponds. He is, by *Geſner*, taken to be more elegant than wholeſome. He is long in growing, but breeds exceedingly in a water that pleaſes him, and in many ponds, ſo faſt as to overſtock them, and ſtarve the other fiſh. He is very broad, with a forked tail, and his ſcales ſet in excellent order. He hath large eyes, and a narrow ſucking mouth, two ſets of teeth, and a lozing bone, to help his grinders. The male is obſerved to have two large melts, and the female two large bags of eggs or ſpawn. *Walton's Angler.*—

A broad *bream*, to pleaſe ſome curious taſte,
While yet alive in boiling water caſt,
Vex'd with unwonted heat, boils, flings about.
Waller.

(3.) BREAM, in ichthyology. See CYPRINUS.

To BREAM, *v. a.* to burn off the filth, ſuch as graſs, ooze, ſhells, or ſea-weed, from a ſhip's bottom, that has gathered to it in a voyage, or by lying long in a harbour. It is performed by holding kindled furze, faggots, or the like, to the bottom, ſo that the flame incorporating with the pitch, ſulphur, &c. that had formerly covered it, immediately looſens and throws off whatever filth may have adhered to the planks. After this, the bottom is covered anew with a compoſition of ſulphur, tallow, &c. which not only makes it ſmooth and ſlippery, ſo as to divide the fluid more readily, but alſo poiſons and deſtroys thoſe worms which eat through the planks in the courſe of a voyage. Breaming may be performed either when the ſhip lies a-ground after the tide has ebbed from her, or by docking, or by careening.

BREAMISH, a river in Northumberland.

BREARIDGE, a village in Northumberland, near Winchester.

BREARTON, two villages; 1. in Durham, SW. of Hartlepool: 2. in Yorkſhire, 4 miles N. of Knaresborough.

(1.) * BREAST. *n. ſ.* [*breoſt*, Saxon.] 1. The middle part of the human body, between the neck and the belly.—

No, traytreſs, angry Love replies,
She's hid ſomewhere about they *breaſt*,
A place nor God nor man denies,
For Venus' dove the proper neſt. *Prior.*

2. The dugs or teats of women which contain the milk.—They pluck the fatherleſs from the *breaſt*. *Job*, xxiv. 9. 3. Breaſt was anciently taken for the power of ſinging.—

The better *breaſt*,
The leſſer reſt. *Fuſſer on Singing Boys.*

4. The part of a beaſt that is under the neck, between the forelegs, 5. The diſpoſition of the mind.—

I not by wants, or fears, or age oppreſt,
Stem the wild torrent with a dauntleſs *breaſt*.
Dryden.

6. The heart; the conſcience.—

Needleſs was written law, where none oppreſt;
The law of man was written in his *breaſt*.
Dryden's Ovid.

7. The ſeat of the paſſions.—

Margarita firſt poſſeſs'd,
If I remember well, my *breaſt*. *Cowley.*
Each in his *breaſt* the ſecret ſorrow kept,
And thought it ſafe to laugh, tho' Cæſar wept.
Rowe.

(2.) BREAST, in anatomy, the fore parts of the thorax. See ANATOMY, § 336.

(3.) BREASTS, MAMMÆ, in anatomy. See ANATOMY, INDEX. The breaſts are uſually two; though we alſo meet with inſtances of *trimammiæ*, or women with 3 breaſts, and even ſome with 4, all yielding milk alike. See *Barthol. Act. Med.* p. 171. *Caſt. Lex. Med.* p. 728. *Cabrol. Obſerv.* 7. *Blaſ. Com. ad. Veſling.* p. 133.

(4.) BREAST, SMITING THE, is an expreſſion of penitence. In the Romiſh church, the prieſt beats his breaſt in rehearſing the general confeſſion at the beginning of the maſs.

* *To* BREAST. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To meet in front; to oppoſe breaſt to breaſt.—

The threaden ſails
Draw the huge bottoms thro' the furrow'd ſea,
Breaſting the lofty ſurge. *Shakeſ. Henry V.*
The hardy Swiſs
Breaſts the keen air, and carols, as he goes.
Goldſmith.

(1.) * BREASTBONE. *n. ſ.* [from *breaſt* and *bone*.] The bone of the breaſt; the ſternum.—The belly ſhall be eminent by ſhadowing the flank, and under the *breaſtbone*. *Peacham.*

(2.) BREASTBONE. See ANATOMY, § 144.

* BREASTCASKET. *n. ſ.* [from *breaſt* and *caſket*.] With mariners. The largeſt and longeſt caſkets, which are a ſort of ſtrings placed in the middle of the yard.

* BREASTFAST. *n. ſ.* [from *breaſt* and *faſt*. In a ſhip.] A rope faſtened to ſome part of her forward on, to hold head to a warp, or the like. *Harris.*

* BREASTHIGH. *adj.* [from *breaſt* and *high*.] Up to the breaſt. The river itſelf gave way unto her, ſo that ſhe was ſtraight *breaſthigh*. *Sidney.*—

Lay madam Partlet baſking in the ſun,
Breaſthigh in ſand. *Dryden's Fables.*

(1.) * BREASTHOOKS. *n. ſ.* [from *breaſt* and *hook*.] With ſhipwrights.—The compaſſing timbers before, that help to ſtrengthen the ſtem, and all the forepart of the ſhip. *Harris.*

(2.) BREAST-HOOKS, in ſhip building, are thick pieces of timber incurvated into the form of knees. They are placed at different heights directly acroſs the ſtem, ſo as to unite it with the bows on each ſide. The breaſt-hooks are ſtrongly connected to the ſtem and hawſe-pieces by tree-nails, and by bolts driven from without through the planks and hawſe-pieces, and the whole thickneſs of the breaſt-hooks, upon whoſe inſide thoſe bolts are forelocked or clinched upon rings. They are uſually about $\frac{1}{4}$ thicker, and twice as long, as the knees of the decks they ſupport.

* BREASTKNOT. *n. ſ.* [from *breaſt* and *knot*.] A knot or bunch of ribbands worn by women on the breaſt.—Our ladies have ſtill faces, and our men hearts, why may we not hope for the ſame atchieve-

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atchievements from the influences of this *breast-knot*. *Addison's Freeholder*.

BREAST-PAIN, called by the Italians *granderza di petto*, is a diſtemper in horſes proceeding from ſuperfluity of blood and other groſs humours, which being diſſolved by ſome extreme and diſorderly heat, reſort downward to the *breaſt*, and pain them extremely. The ſign of the breaſt-pain are, a ſtiff, ſtaggering, and weak going with his fore-legs, beſides, that he can hardly, if at all, bow his head to the ground.

(1.) * BREAST-PLATE. *n.* . [from *breaſt* and *plate*.] Armour for the breaſt.—

What ſtronger *breaſtplate* than a heart untainted?

Thrice is he arm'd that hath his quarrel juſt.
Shakeſpeare.

'Gainſt ſhield, helm, *breaſtplate*, and, inſtead of thoſe,

Five ſharp ſmooth ſtones from the next brook he choſe. *Cowl.*

—This venerable champion will come into the field, armed only with a pocket-piſtol, before his old ruſty *breaſtplate* could be ſecured, and his cracked headpiece mended. *Swift*

(2.) BREAST-PLATE, in Jewiſh antiquity, a part of the ſacerdotal veſtments anciently worn by the high prieſts. It was a ſolded piece of the ſame rich embroidered ſtuff of which the *ephod* was made: and it was ſet with 12 precious ſtones, on each of which was engraven the name of one of the tribes. They were ſet in 4 rows, 3 in each row; and were divided from each other by the little golden ſquares or partitions in which they were ſet. See *Plate* XLVI. *fig.* 8. This breaſt-plate was faſtened at the 4 corners; thoſe on the top to each ſhoulder by a golden hook or ring at the end of a wreathed chain; and thoſe below, to the girdle of the ephod, by two ſtrings or ribbons, which had likewiſe two rings and hooks. This ornament was never to be ſevered from the prieſtly garment; and it was called the *memorial*, to put the high-prieſt in mind how dear thoſe tribes ought to be to him, whoſe names he wore on his breaſt. It is alſo called the *breaſt plate of judgment*, becauſe it had the divine oracle of *Urim and Thummim* annexed to it. See URIM AND THUMMIM.

(3.) BREAST PLATE, in the manege, the ſtrap of leather that runs from one ſide of the ſaddle to the other, over the horſe's breaſt, in order to keep the ſaddle tight, and hinder it from ſliding backwards.

(4.) BREAST-PLATES, for armour, (§ 1.) are ſaid to have been originally made of hides, or hemp twiſted into ſmall cords, but afterwards of braſs, iron, or other metals; which were ſometimes ſo exquiſitely hardened, as to be proof againſt the greateſt force.

* BREAST PLOUGH. *n. ſ.* [from *breaſt* and *plough*.] A plough uſed for paring turf, driven by the breaſt.—The *breaſtplough* which a man ſhoves before him. *Mortimer*.

* BREAST ROPES. *n. ſ.* [from *breaſt* and *rope*.] In a ſhip. Thoſe ropes which faſten the yards to the parrels, and, with the parrels, hold the yards faſt to the maſt. *Harris*.

(1.) * BREASTWORK. *n. ſ.* [from *breaſt* and *work*. Works thrown up as high as the breaſt of the defendants; the ſame with *parapet*.—Sir John Aſtley caſt up *breaſtworks*, and made a redoubt for the defence of his men. *Clarendon*.

(2.) BREAST-WORK OF A SHIP, a ſort of balluſtrade or fence compoſed of rails or mouldings, and often decorated with ſculpture; it terminates the quarter-deck and poop at the fore-ends, and incloſes the fore-caſtle both before and behind.

(1.) * BREATH *n. ſ.* [*breathe*, Sax.] 1. The air drawn in and ejected out of the body by living animals.—

Whither are they vanquiſh'd?
Into the air: and what ſeem'd corporal
Melted, as *breath* into the wind. *Shakeſp. Macb.*

2. Life.—

No man has more contempt than I of *breath*;
But whence haſt thou the pow'r to give me death? *Dryden.*

3. The ſtate or power of breathing freely; oppoſed to the condition in which a man is breathleſs and ſpent.—

At other times, he caſts to ſue the chace
Of ſwift wild beaſts, or run on foot a race,
T' enlarge his *breath*, large breath in arms moſt needful,
Or elſe by wreſtling, to wax ſtrong and heedful. *Spenſer.*

What is your difference? ſpeak —
I am ſcarce in *breath*, my lord. *Shak. K. Lear.*

Spaniards, take *breath*; ſome reſpite I'll afford;
My cauſe is more advantage than your ſword. *Dryden.*

Our ſwords ſo wholly did the fates employ,
That they, at length, grew weary to deſtroy;
Refus'd the work we brought, and, out of *breath*,
Made ſorrow and deſpair attend for death. *Dryden's Aureng.*

4. Reſpite; pauſe; relaxation.—

Give me ſome *breath*, ſome little pauſe, dear lord,
Before I poſitively ſpeak. *Shakeſp. Richard* III.

5. Breeze; moving air.—

Vent all thy paſſion, and I'll ſtand its ſhock,
Calm and unruffled as a ſummer's ſea,
When not a *breath* of wind flies o'er its ſurface. *Addiſon's Cato.*

6. A ſingle act; an inſtant.—

You menace me, and court me in a *breath*,
Your Cupid looks as dreadfully as death. *Dryd.*

(2.) BREATH, THE-LAST. The ancients were very watchful over the laſt breath of dying perſons, which the neareſt relations, as the mother, father, brother, or the like, received in their mouths.

* BREATHABLE. *adj* [from *breath*.] That may be breathed; as, *breathable* air.

(1.) * *To* BREATHE. *v. a.* 1. To inſpire, or inhale into one's own body, and eject or expire out of it.—

They wiſh to live,
Their pains and poverty deſire to bear,
To view the light of heav'n, and *breathe* the vital air. *Dryden.*

—They here began to *breathe* a moſt delicious kind of æther, and ſaw all the fields about them covered with a kind of purple light. *Tatler.*

2. To inject by breathing: with *into*.—He *breathed into* us the breath of life, a vital active ſpirit; whoſe

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Horns of the Bos Arnee.

Fig.1.

Fig.2.

B.Quadro.

Fig.3. 4. 5. 6.

Fig.7.
BRAZEN SEA OR LAVER

Fig.10.
Buy-rope & Anchor.

Fig.9.
Brenta

Fig.8.
Breast-Plate of the Jewish High Priest.

Bos ARNEE Fig12.

Byſon

Fig.11.

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whose motions, he expects, should own the dignity of its original. *Decay of Piety.*—

I would be young, be handsome, be belov'd,
Could I but *breathe* myself *into* Adraſtus. *Dryd.*

3. To expire; to eject by breathing: with *out.*—She is called, by ancient authors, the tenth muſe; and, by Plutarch, is compared to Cacus, the ſon of Vulcan, who *breathed out* nothing but flame. *Spectator.* 4. To exerciſe: to keep in breath.—

Thy greyhounds are as ſwift as *breathed* ſtags. *Shakeſpeare.*

5. To inſpire; to move or actuate by breath.—

The artful youth proceed to form the quire;
They *breathe* the flute, or ſtrike the vocal wire. *Prior.*

6. To exhale; to ſend out as breath.—

His altar *breathes*
Ambroſial odours, and ambroſial flow'rs. *Milton's Paradiſe Loſt.*

7. To utter privately.—

I have tow'rd heav'n *breath'd* a ſecret vow,
To live in pray'r and contemplation. *Shakeſpeare's Merchant of Venice.*

8. To give air or vent to.—

The ready cure to cool the raging pain,
Is underneath the foot to *breathe* a vein. *Dryden's Virgil.*

(2.) * *To* BREATHE. *v. n.* [from *breath.*] 1. To draw in and throw out the air by the lungs; to inſpire and expire.—

He ſate return'd, the grace of glory paſt,
New to his friends embrace, had *breath'd* his laſt. *Pope.*

2. To live.—

Let him *breathe*, between the heav'ns and earth,
A private man in Athens. *Shak. Ant. and Cleop.*

3. To take breath; to reſt.—He preſently follow'd the victory ſo hot upon the Scots, that he ſuffered them not to *breathe*, or gather themſelves together again. *Spenſer's State of Ireland.*—

Three times they *breath'd*, and three times did they drink,
Upon agreement. *Shakeſpeare's Henry* IV.

Reſt, that gives all men life, gave him his death,
And too much *breathing* put him out of breath. *Milton.*

When France had *breath'd*, after inteſtine broils,
And peace and conqueſt crown'd her foreign toils. *Roſcommon.*

4. To paſs as air.—

Shall I not then be ſtifled in the vault,
To whoſe foul mouth no healthſome air *breathes* in,
And there be ſtrangl'd ere my Romeo comes? *Shakeſpeare.*

* BREATHER. *n. ſ.* [from *breathe.*] 1. One that breathes, or lives.—

She ſhows a body rather than a life,
A ſtatue than a *breather*. *Shak. Ant. and Cleop.*
—I will chide no *breather* in the world but myſelf. *Shakeſpeare.* 2. One that utters any thing.—

No particular ſcandal once can touch,
But it confounds the *breather*. *Sh. Meaſ for Meaſ.*

3. Inſpirer; one that animates or infuſes by inſpiration.—

The *breather* of all life does now expire:
His milder father ſummons him away. *Norris.*

(1.) * BREATHING *n. ſ.* [from *breathe.*] 1. Aſpiration; ſecret prayer.—

While to high heav'n his pious *breathings* turn'd,
Weeping he hop'd, and ſacrificing mourn'd. *Prior.*

2. Breathing place; vent.—

The warmth diſtends the chinks, and makes
New *breathings*, whence new nouriſhment ſhe takes. *Dryden.*

(2.) BREATHING, DIFFICULTY OF. See DYSPNOEA.

* BREATHLESS. *adj.* [from *breath.*] 1. Out of breath; ſpent with labour.—

Well knew
The prince, with patience and ſufferance ſly,
So haſty heat ſoon cooled to ſubdue;
Tho' when he *breathleſs* wax, that battle 'gan renew. *Fairy Queen.*

I remember, when the fight was done,
When I was dry with rage, and extreme toil,
Breathleſs, and faint, leaning upon my ſword,
Came there a certain lord. *Shakeſp. Henry* IV.
—Many ſo ſtrained themſelves in their race, that they fell down *breathleſs* and dead. *Hayward.*—

Breathleſs, and tir'd, is all my fury ſpent?
Or does my glutted ſpleen at length relent? *Dryden's Æneid.*

2. Dead.—

Kneeling before this ruin of ſweet life,
And breathing to this *breathleſs* excellence,
The incenſe of a vow, a holy vow. *Shak. K. John.*

Yielding to the ſentence, *breathleſs* thou
And pale ſhalt lie, as what thou burieſt now. *Prior.*

BREBAC, or BREBAGTARSKIN, } a hill of Scotland, in Sutherlandſhire.

BREBEUF, George DE, a French poet born at Torigna, in 1618. He was chiefly diſtinguiſhed by a tranſlation of Lucan, which though abounding in bombaſt and falſe brilliances, was long admired; and procured great promiſes of advancement to the author, from Cardinal Mazarine, who died, however, without fulfilling them. But the beſt of his works, is the 1ſt *book of Lucan Traveſtied*, which is an ingenious ſatire upon the Great, whom he deſcribes as never loſing ſight for a moment of their rank and dignity, and upon the meanneſs and ſervility of thoſe who ſubmit to flatter them as gods. He is ſaid to have had a fever that laſted above 20 years. He died in 1661, aged 43.

BREBINCE, or BOURBINCE, a river of France, which iſſues from the lake Longpendu, in the ci-devant province of Burgundy.

BRECCA, *n. ſ.* in old records, a breach.

(1.) BRECHIN, a pariſh of Scotland, in Forfarſhire, extending about 7½ m. from E. to W. in length, and nearly as much in breadth from N. to S. It riſes gradually on each ſide of the S. Eſk, which ſometimes overflows the low ground; and the S. ſide of that river, W. from the bridge, is ornamented with a large plantation of trees. The ground on both ſides is rocky, and abounds in free-ſtone. The climate is dry and in general healthy. The population is doubled within theſe 100 years. By the rev. Mr Bruce's report to Sir J. Sinclair, it was about 5000 in 1791; which was

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was 1819 above that of 1755. A considerable quantity of oats and barley is exported, and meal is sometimes imported by Messrs Gillies and Co. whose spirited exertions have been of great benefit to the town, (See N° 2.) and parish.

(2.) BRECHIN, a town in the above parish (N° 1.) seated on the declivity of a hill; whence the name is probably derived, *brae* in the Scots dialect signifying a declivity; though others derive it from the Gaelic word *braechin*, fern. It consists of one large handsome street and two smaller. At the foot of the town is a long row of houses independent of it, built on ground held in feu from the Northesk family. Brechin was a rich bishopric founded by David I. about A. D. 1150. At the Reformation, its revenues, in money and in kind, amounted to 700 l. a year; but were reduced to 150 l. chiefly by the alienation of lands and tythes by Alexander Campbell, the first Protestant bishop, to his chieftain the earl of Argyle. The Culdees had a convent here. Their abbot Leod was witness to the grant made by king David to his new abbey of Dunfermline. In after times, they gave way to the Mathurines or Red Friars. Here was likewise an hospital called *Maison de Dieu*, founded in 1256, by William de Brechin, for the repose of the souls of the kings William and Alexander; of John earl of Chester, and his brother Huntingdon; of Henry his father, and Juliana his mother. Albinus, bishop of Brechin, in the reign of Alexander II. was witness to the grant. By the walls which are yet standing, behind the W. end of the chief street, it appears to have been an elegant little building. The cathedral is a Gothic pile, supported by 12 pillars; is in length 166 feet, in breadth 61: part is ruinous, and part serves as the parish church. The W. end of one of the ailes is entire: its door is Gothic, and the arch consists of many mouldings; the window of it is neat tracery. The steeple is a handsome tower, 120 feet high; the 4 lower windows in form of long narrow openings; the belfry windows adorned with that species of opening called the *quatrefoil*; the top battlemented, out of which rises a handsome spier.—At a small distance from the aile stands one of those singular round towers whose use has so long baffled the conjectures of antiquaries. These towers appear to have been peculiar to North Britain and Ireland: in the latter they are common: in the former very few now exist. That at Brechin stood originally detached from other buildings. It is at present joined near the bottom by a low additional aile to the church, which takes in about a sixth of its circumference. From this aile there is an entrance into it of modern date, approachable by a few steps, for the use of the ringers; two handsome bells are placed in it, which are got at by means of six ladders placed on wooden semicircular floors, each resting on the circular abutments withinside of the tower. The height from the ground to the roof is 80 feet; the inner diameter, within a few feet of the bottom, is 8 feet; the thickness of the wall at that part, 7 feet 2 inches; so that the whole diameter is 15 feet 2 inches; the circumference very near 48 feet; the inner diameter at top is 8 feet 7 inches; the thickness of the walls 4 feet 6 inches; the circumference, 38 feet 8 inches; which proportion gives the building an inexpressible elegance: the top is roofed with an octagonal spire 23 feet high, which makes the whole 103. In this spire are 4 windows placed alternate on the sides, resting on the top of the tower; near the top of the tower are four others facing the 4 cardinal points: near the bottom are two arches one within another, in relief; on the top of the utmost is a crucifixion: between the mouldings of the utmost and inner are 2 figures one of the virgin Mary; the other of St John, the cup, and lamb. On each corner of the bottom of this arch is a figure of certain beasts; one possibly the Caledonian bear; and the other with a long snout, the boar. The stone work within the inner arch has a small slit or peep-hole, but without the appearance of there having been a door within any modern period: yet there might have been one originally; for the filling up consists of larger stones than the rest of this curious rotund. The whole is built with the most elegant masonry, which Mr Gough observed to be composed of 60 courses.—This tower hath often been observed to vibrate with a high wind. The castle of Brechin was built on an eminence, a little S. of the town; it underwent a long siege in 1303; was gallantly defended against the English under Edward III.; and, notwithstanding all the efforts of that potent prince, the brave governor Sir Thomas Maule, ancestor of the present Mr Maule of Panmure, held out this small fortress for 20 days, till he was slain by a stone cast from an engine on the 20th of August, when the place was instantly surrendered. The family of Panmure have now a noble house on the side of the old castle.—Brechin is also remarkable for a battle fought near it, in consequence of the rebellion raised in 1452, on account of the murder of the earl of Douglas in Stirling castle. The victory fell to the royalists under the earl of Huntly. The malecontents were headed by the earl of Crawford, who, retiring to his castle of Finhaven, in the frenzy of disgrace declared, that he would willingly pass 7 years in hell, to obtain the glory that fell to the share of his antagonist. Brechin is a royal borough, and with 4 others sends a member to parliament. It lies about 8 miles from the harbour of Montrose; and the tide flows within two miles of the town; to which a canal might be made, which would be of great service in conveying down the corn of the country for exportation. Most of the merchants deal in linen and yarn, of which great quantities are sold every market day. This trade gives employment to great numbers of women, who all spin with two handed wheels. Brechin has also a bleachfield, and a considerable tannery; besides strong ale and porter breweries, which furnish excellent liquor. It is 64 miles NE. from Edinburgh. Lon. 2. 18. E. Lat. 56. 40. N.

BRECHINIA, the ancient name of BRECKNOCK-SHIRE.

BRECKE, *n. s.* a breach; a gap. *Chaucer.*

BRECKENHAUGH, a place in Ayrshire, in the parish of Dunlop, "one of the finest natural objects, (says Mr Brisbane the minister) to be met with;—for, walking upon level ground, which seems to be of considerable extent in all directions, we come, without expecting it, to the top of the hill,

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hill, where we are ſtruck with the greatneſs of the height and the grandeur of the valley below. In this ſituation we feel every thing which the magnificent can inſpire; not without a wiſh to retire from it with all convenient ſpeed." *Stat. Acc.*

BRECKNOCK, or BRECON, a large town of S. Wales, and capital of Brecknockſhire. It is called by the Welch *Aber-Hondey*, and is ſeated at the confluence of the Hondey and the Uſk, over which there is a handſome ſtone bridge. It is an ancient place, containing 3 churches, one of which is collegiate, and is ſeated at the W. end of the town. The houſes are well built. It had formerly a ſtately caſtle, and a ſtrong wall, through which there were 3 gates, that are all demoliſhed. It ſends one member to parliament. It is well inhabited, and has a conſiderable woollen manufactory. The markets are well ſupplied with cattle, corn, and proviſions. It is 34 miles NW. by W. of Monmouth, and 162 W. by N. of London. Lon. 3. 22. W. Lat. 51. 54. N.

BRECKNOCK MEER, a large lake 2 miles E. of Brecknock, called by the Welch *Llyn Savaddan*. It is 2 miles in length, and nearly the ſame in breadth. It contains plenty of otters, tench, perch, and eels.

BRECKNOCKSHIRE, a county of Wales, bounded by Radnorſhire, on the N.; Cardiganſhire and Caermarthenſhire on the W.; Herefordſhire and Monmouthſhire, on the E.; and by Glamorganſhire and Monmouthſhire, on the S. It is 39 miles long, 27 broad, and about 100 in circumference; containing 600,000 acres, and 36,000 inhabitants. It is ſurrounded with hills, which renders the air in the valleys pretty temperate. The ſoil on the hills is very ſtony, but the ſtreams deſcending from thence into the valleys render them fruitful both in corn and graſs. The chief commodities are corn, cattle, fiſh, and otter's fur; there are alſo manufactures of cloth and ſtockings. The principle rivers are the Uſk, the Wye, and the Yrvon. The chief towns are Brecknock, Bealt, and Hay. This county ſends a member to parliament. It is in the dioceſe of Landaff; contains 61 pariſhes, and 4 market towns; and is divided into ſix hundreds.

BRECON. See BRECKNOCK.

* BRED. *particip. paſſ.* [from *To breed.*] Their malice was *bred* in them, and their cogitation would never be changed. *Wiſdom*, xii. 10.

(1.) BREDA, a city of Holland, the capital of Dutch Brabant. It is a large, populous, well built city, regularly fortified in the modern way, and is one of the ſtrongeſt places on the Dutch frontiers. It is ſeated on the river Merck, in a marſhy country, which may be overflowed and rendered inacceſſible to an army. It is 4000 paces in circumference, and contains upwards of 2000 houſes. The town is of a triangular figure, and the ramparts are all planted round with elms.—At every angle there is a gate built with brick. The great church is a noble ſtructure, and has a fine ſpire 362 feet high. The mauſoleum of Augelbert II. count of Naſſau, is a curious piece adorned with ſeveral ſtatues and inſcriptions. In 1577, the garriſon delivered this city to the States General; but it was retaken in 1581 by Cloude de Barlaimont, aſſiſted by the baron de Freſin, who was priſoner in it. In 1590, prince Maurice took it again from the Spaniards. In 1625 it was inveſted by the Marquis of Spinola: when it endured a ſiege, ſo extraordinary, that it is worthy of a particular detail. The citadel was ſurrounded by a ditch of prodigious depth filled with water, and a ſtrong wall defended by 3 great baſtions. The arſenal was extenſive and contained vaſt quantities of arms and military ſtores. Spinola, acquainted with its ſtrength, reſolved to reduce it by famine, as attended with leaſt danger to his army; and accordingly began with drawing trenches around, for the ſpace of 4 miles, and erecting forts and redoubts at certain diſtances.—On the other hand, the garriſon, conſiſting of 7000 infantry, and ſeveral troops of horſe, compoſed of Engliſh, French, and Dutch ſoldiers, took the moſt vigorous meaſures for their defence. The Engliſh were under the command of Col. Morgan; who had diſtinguiſhed his valour in the ſervice of the ſtates: the French were directed by Col. de Hauterive; and the troops were under Col. Lohre; though the whole received their inſtructions from Juſtin de Naſſau, the governor. The firſt advantage was gained by Baglioni, who ſeized a large convoy of proviſions and ſtores coming up the river. This loſs reduced the beſieged to a ſtated allowance of bread; and was followed by the death of Prince Maurice, from whom they were in hopes of relief. Meanwhile Spinola proſecuted the ſiege with the utmoſt vigour. On his puſhing his trenches near the baſtions, the beſieged began a terrible fire, and kept it up with ſuch vehemence, that Spinola hoped they muſt ſoon ſurrender for want of ammunition. But here he formed a falſe judgment. Juſtin, finding he could not accompliſh his purpoſe by firing, reſolved to try the effect of water. With this view, he ſtopped up the courſe of the river Merck; and having formed a large baſon of water, opened the ſluices, overflowed the whole country, and ſwept away men horſes, and houſes, in one torrent. Its chief force fell upon Spinola's quarters, and he exerted his utmoſt ability to counteract its effects. He dug large pits, and cut out ditches to receive the water; but theſe being filled, and the whole ground covered over, ſo as to appear one uniform maſs of water, ſerved only to entrap his cavalry. The inundation was augmented by the rains; a mortality among his ſoldiers and horſes enſued; and of his whole army, he had ſcarce 12,000 men fit for ſervice by December. With this ſmall body lines of vaſt extent were to be defended, the works to be advanced, the ſallies from the garriſon repulſed, and proviſions to be conveyed into the camp, while Spinola himſelf was confined to a ſick bed. In the garriſon an epidemical diſeaſe and ſcarcity likewiſe prevailed; but the excellent regulations made, and ſtrictly obſerved, enabled the town to hold out 3 or 4 months beyond the time expected. The magiſtrates bought the corn for the bakers; obliging them to ſell the bread to the inhabitants and garriſon at a price affixed. Various other prudent regulations were eſtabliſhed, ſcarce equalled in hiſtory, all evincing the ſteadineſs, ſagacity, courage, and ability, of Juſtin de Naſſau. A kind of rivalſhip appeared between him and Spinola, who

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who ſhould beſt fulfil his duty. The Spaniſh general cauſed himſelf to be carried about the works in a litter; he inſpected and directed every thing; and diſplayed the activity of full health, when his life was in imminent danger. He ordered ſeveral breaches in the lines to be repaired, which the Hollanders had made by ſap, to introduce ſuccours to the beſieged. He drove piles into all the ditches and canals through which their boats could paſs He made drains to clear off the waters of the river Merck; and ſucceeded in a great meaſure by dint of perſeverance. He was now reinforced with a body of 8000 foot, and 1500 horſe; many of the ſick were perfectly recovered by his care; and his army was again become formidable, amounting to twenty five thouſand infantry, and eight thouſand cavalry. Nor was prince Henry idle, who had now ſucceeded his brother Maurice, and was elected governor of the States. He was joined by a body of French cavalry under the count de Rouſſi and the marquis de Rambures. With this reinforcement, and a body of German infantry, he attacked the enemy's line, but after an obſtinate conflict was repulſed. He advanced a 2d time, but Spinola ſeized upon a convenient poſt, and obliged the prince again to retire to Bois-le-duc. Henry finding he could not relieve the garriſon, ſent permiſſion to the governor to ſurrender on the beſt conditions he could obtain. This was ſigned with no name. It fell into the hands of the beſiegers, and Spinola ſent it open, by a trumpet, to Juſtin de Naſſau, offering him an honourable capitulation; but that intrepid governor ſuſpecting the letter was forged, replied civilly, that *a permiſſion was* not *an order*; that he ſhould better follow the prince of Orange's intention, and ſhow his reſpect for Spinola, by continuing to defend the city to the laſt extremity. By this time the garriſon was diminiſhed by diſeaſe, fatigue, want, and hardſhip, to half the original number; but Juſtin put on ſuch a countenance, as concealed his ſituation from Spinola. He frequently ſallied out upon Baglioni's quarters, where the Italians were periſhing with cold and hunger, the whole ſubſiſtence of the beſiegers depending on the contributions raiſed in the neighbouring territories. This produced mutiny in the camp, that could not be appeaſed without executing the chief ringleaders in ſight of the whole army. One of the mutineers blew up Spinola's chief magazine, valued at 200,000 livres. Urged more by neceſſity than compaſſion, Spinola ſent a meſſage to the governor, exhorting him not to force him to extremities, which might be attended with fatal conſequences to a brave garriſon; but Juſtin with equal art, anſwered, that Spinola was certainly ill ſerved by his ſpies, as he appeared wholly unacquainted with the ſtate of affairs in Breda, which was fully provided for a ſiege of ſeveral months, and defended by ſoldiers who prefer death to ſurrendering At that time the beſieged were not informed of the death of the prince of Orange. They flattered themſelves with the hopes of ſpeedy ſuccours, and were entirely ignorant of prince Henry's ate diſappointment. When they wrote to the army an account of their miſerable condition, Henry returned an anſwer, written and ſigned with his own hand, appriſing them of the death of Maurice, the unſucceſsful attempts made to raiſe the ſiege and throw in ſuccours, the great inferiority of his troops in point of numbers, and the death of king James, whereby he was diſappointed of a ſtrong reinforcement; concluding, that he left the city entirely to the diſcretion of the governor and other principal officers. Juſtin was thunderſtruck with this letter. He had hitherto concealed the total want of proviſion and ammunition from all but a few officers, in whom he could confide. Hauterive and Morgan would liſten to no propoſitions, ſaying that the honour of their ſeveral countries were concerned. They therefore required an expreſs order from the prince of Orange to ſurrender, notwithſtanding they pined under the united preſſure of fatigue, ſcarcity, and diſeaſe. Juſtin acquainted the prince with their reſolution, and he ſent back an order to ſurrender, threatening with capital puniſhment all who ſhould diſobey; but he requeſted that the garriſon would firſt acquaint him, by a certain number of fires, lighted up in different parts of the city, how many days they ſhould be able to hold out. Upon receipt of this order, eleven fires were kindled; but as the prince had ſent a duplicate of his order by another meſſenger, and this fell into the hands of the enemy, Spinola was now acquainted with the deſperate circumſtances of the beſieged, as well as with the myſtery of the 11 fires. He called a council of war to deliberate whether they ſhould ſtay the 11 days, and then oblige the garriſon to ſurrender at diſcretion, or immediately offer conditions worthy of ſo brave a garriſon. The Spaniſh officers were of the former opinion; the count de Berg and Spinola ſupported the latter. At laſt the marquis determined to purſue the dictates of his own generoſity, ſent ſuch terms as could not be refuſed. The count de Berg conducted the negociation. Two ſeparate capitulations were drawn up, one for the garriſon and the other for the city, and both the moſt honourable and advantageous that could be deviſed. They were accepted and the garriſon marched out on the 6th of June, after having ſuſtained a ſiege for ten months, whereby they were diminiſhed two thirds; nor was the loſs inferior on the part of the inhabitants. Spinola drew up his army to ſalute them, and ſurrounded by his field officers, paid particular compliments to the governor, the colonels Morgan, Hauterive, and Lohre. He diſtributed money among the ſoldiers, ordered the ſick and wounded to be treated with the utmoſt tenderneſs, conveyed the reſt to Gertruydenburgh, and diſplayed all the ſentiments of a true hero, in the regard he paid to the valour and merit of his enemies. Breda was retaken by the prince of Orange, in 1637 In 1667, a congreſs was held in it, and peace concluded between the Dutch and Engliſh. In Feb. 1793, it was ſurrendered to the French republican army, by count Byland, after a ſiege of only 3 days. It was retaken ſoon after. It lies 22 miles W. by S. of Bois-le-duc; 22 NE. of Bergen-op-zoom; 25 NNE. of Antwerp; and 60 S. of Amſterdam. Lon. 4. 50. E. Lat. 51. 35. N.

(2) Breda, Alexander Van, an eminent painter, of Antwerp, much eſteemed for his landſcapes, fairs, views of particular ſcenes in Italy, and varieties of animals and figures.

(3) Breda,

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(3.) BREDA, John VAN, the ſon of Alexander, (N° 25) was born at Antwerp, in 1683. Having the advantage of the good example and directions of his father, he continued with him till he was 18 years of age, Among the various capital paintings, then in the poſſeſſion of John De Wit, at Antwerp, Breda fixed upon thoſe of Velvet Breugel, which he copied with extraordinary ſucceſs; and he was alſo employed for 9 years in copying the pictures of ſeveral other great maſters; which he performed with ſuch incredible exactneſs as ſcarcely to leave it in the power of any perſon to diſtinguiſh the originals from the copies. After this, he went to London with Ryſbrack the ſculptor, where he roſe into ſuch eſteem, that he was employed by the court and the nobility; and could ſcarce execute the demand for his performances. After reſiding ſome years in England, he returned to Antwerp loaded with riches, the honourable teſtimonies of Engliſh liberality, as well as of his own merit. In 1746, Louis XV. arriving in that city, purchaſed 4 of his pictures, viz. two ſcriptural pieces, and two landſcapes, exquiſitely imitated from Breugel, and his converſations, hiſtorical figures, fairs, ſkirmiſhes, and battles, in the manner of Wouvermans. He had as much fire in his compoſition, and perhaps more genius than Breugel; his figures are generally well placed, his ground ſkilfully broken; every ſmall figure hath its particular character, and occupies its proper place. In ſhort, he is a painter of ſuch a rank, that the value of his works muſt always increaſe. He died in 1750.

(4.) BREDA PARVA, a village in Dorſetſhire, N. of Abbotſbury.

BREDAGH, a village of Ireland, in Down.

BREDBURY, in Cheſter, E. of Stockport.

(1.) * BREDE. *n. ſ.* See BRAID.—In a curious *brede* of needlework, one colour falls away by ſuch juſt degrees, and another riſes ſo inſenſibly, that we ſee the variety, without being able to diſtinguiſh the total vaniſhing of the one, from the firſt appearance of the other. *Addiſon.*

(2.) BREDE. *n. ſ. obſ.* bread; breadth. *Chaucer.*

To BREDE. *v. n. obſ.* to make broad.

BREDELEY, a village in Staffordſhire.

BREDERALE HEAD, and BREDERALE FOOT, } Two villages in Weſtmoreland, near Orton.

BREDEWITE, in ancient law writers, an amercement ariſing from ſome default in the aſſize of bread.

BREDGAR, a town near Sittingburn, Kent.

BREDICOT, a village near Worceſter.

BREDLESFORD, in iſle of Wight. Hampſh.

(1.) BREDON, at the foot of the hills, (N° 2.)

(2.) BREDON HILLS, in Worceſterſhire.

BREDWARDEN, a village in Herefordſhire, 2 miles W. of Mockas.

To BREE, *v. a. obſ.* to frighten. *Chaucer.*

* BREECH. *n. ſ.* [ſuppoſed from *bræcan*, Sax.] 1. The lower part of the body; the back part.—When the king's pardon was offered by a herald, a lewd boy turned towards him his naked *breech*, and uſed words ſuitable to that geſture. *Hayward.*

—The ſtorks devour ſnakes and other ſerpents; which when they begin to creep out at their *breeches*, they will preſently clap them cloſe to a wall, to keep them in. *Grew's Muſæum.* 2. Breeches.—

Ah! that thy father had been ſo reſolv'd?—
—That thou might ſtill have worn the petticoat,
And ne'er had ſtol'n the *breech* from Lancaſter.
Shakeſpeare.

3. The hinder part of a piece of ordnance.—

So cannons, when they mount vaſt pitches,
Are tumbl'd back upon their *breeches*. *Anonym.*

* *To* BREECH. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To put into breeches. 2. To fit any thing with a breech; as, to *breech* a gun.

(1.) * BREECHES. *n. ſ.* [*bræc*, Sax. from *bracca*, an old Gauliſh word; ſo that *Skinner* imagines the name of the part covered with *breeches*, to be derived from that of the garment. In this ſenſe it has no *ſingular*.] 1. The garment worn by men over the lower part of the body.—Petruchio is coming in a new hat and an old jerkin, and a pair of old *breeches*, thrice turned. *Shakeſ. Tam. of the Shrew.*

Rough ſatires, ſly remarks, ill-natur'd ſpeeches,
Are always aim'd at poets that wear *breeches*.
Prior.

Give him a ſingle coat to make, he'd do't;
A veſt or *breeches*, ſingly; but the brute,
Cou'd ne'er contrive all three to make a ſuit.
King.

2. To wear the *breeches*, is, to uſurp the authority of the huſband.—The wife of Xanthus was domineering, as if her fortune and her extraction, had entitled her to the *breeches*. *L'Eſtrange.*

(2.) "BREECHES" (ſays Mr Chambers,) "appear to be a habit peculiar to the barbarous nations; eſpecially thoſe who inhabit the colder countries of the North, whence Tacitus calls them *barbarum tegmen*." He ſhould, however, have excepted the Scots Highlanders. The ancient Romans, indeed, had nothing in their dreſs anſwering to our modern breeches and ſtockings. Inſtead of them, under their lower tunics and waiſtcoats they ſometimes bound their thighs and legs round with ſilken ſcarves or faſciæ, called *tibialia* and *femoralia*. We find mention made of breeches among the ancient Getæ, Sarmatæ, Gauls, Germans, and Britons; they alſo obtained among the Medes and Perſians, being of Scythian origin They afterwards got footing in Italy, ſome pretend as early as the time of Auguſtus; but that emperor's breeches, mentioned by Suetonius, were only ſwaths tied over his thighs. Breeches, however, were at laſt received into Italy, and grew ſo highly in faſhion, that it was thought neceſſary, under Honorius and Arcadius, to reſtrain them by law, and expel the *bracarii* or breeches-makers out of the city; it being thought unworthy of a nation that commanded the world to wear the apparel of barbarians.

BREECHINGS, in the ſea language, the ropes with which the great guns are lathed to the ſhip's ſide; ſo called, becauſe made to paſs round the breech of the gun.

(1.) * BREED. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. A caſt; a kind; a ſubdiviſion or ſpecies.—

I bring you witneſſes,
Twice fifteen thouſand hearts of England's *breed*.
Shakeſpeare.

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—The horſes were young and handſome, and of the beſt *breed* in the north. *Shakeſ. Henry VIII.* —Walled towns, ſtored arſenals, and ordnance; all this is but a ſheep in a lion's ſkin, except the *breed* and diſpoſition of the people be ſtout and warlike. *Bacon's Eſſays.*—

Infectious ſtreams of crowding ſins began,
And through the ſpurious *breed* and guilty nation ran. *Roſcommon.*

Rode fair Aſcanius on a fiery ſteed,
Queen Dido's gift, and of the Tyrian *breed*. *Dryden.*

2. A family generation; in contempt.—A couſin of his laſt wife's was propoſed; but John would have no more of the *breed*. *Arbuthnot's Hiſtory of J. Bull.* 3. Progeny; offſpring —

If thou wilt lend this money, lend it not
As to thy friend; for when did friendſhip take
A *breed* of barren metal of his friend?
Shakſp. Merchant of Venice.

4. A number produced at once: a hatch —She lays them in the ſand, where they lie till they are hatched; ſometimes above an hundred at a *breed*. *Grew.*

(2.) BREED in geography, a village in Suſſex, NW. of Winchelſea.

(1.)* *To* BREED. *v. a.* preter. I *bred*, I have *bred* [*bredan*, Sax.] 1. To procreate; to generate; to produce more of the ſpecies.—

One fiercer in Numidia *bred*,
With Carthage were in triumph led. *Roſcommon.*

2. To produce from one's ſelf.—Children would *breed* their teeth with leſs danger. *Locke.* 3. To occaſion; to cauſe: to produce —

Thereat he roared for exceeding pain,
That I have heard, great horrour would have *bred*. *Fairy Queen.*

—Our own hearts we know, but we are not certain what hope the rites and orders of our church have *bred* in the heart of others. *Hooker.*—What hurt ill company, and overmuch liberty, *breedeth* in youth! *Aſcham's Schoolmaſter.*—Intemperance and luſt *breed* infirmities and diſeaſes, which, being propagated, ſpoil the ſtrain of a nation. *Tillotſon.* 4. To conceive; to hatch; to plot.—My ſon Edgar! had he a hand to write this! a heart and brain to *breed* it in! *Shakeſ. King Lear.* 5. To give birth to; to be the native place: ſo, there are *breeding* ponds, and feeding ponds.—Mr Hardin, and the worthieſt Divine Chriſtendom hath *bred* for the ſpace of ſome hundreds of years were brought up together in the ſame univerſity. *Hooker.*—

Hail foreign wonder!
Whom, certain theſe rough ſhades did never *breed*. *Milton.*

6. To educate; to form by education.—

Whoe'er thou art, whoſe forward ears are bent
On ſtate affairs to guide the government;
Hear firſt what Socrates of old has ſaid,
To the lov'd youth, whom he at Athens *bred*.
Dryden.

To *breed* up the ſon to common ſenſe,
Is evermore the parent's leaſt expence.
Dryden's Juvenal.

And left their pillagers, to rapine *bred*,
Without controul, to ſtrip and ſpoil the dead.
Dryden.

—His farm may not remove his children too far from him, or the trade he *breeds* them up in. *Locke.* 7. To bring up; to take care of from infancy —

Ah, wretched me! by fates averſe decreed
To bring thee forth with pain, with care to *breed*
Dryden.

8. To conduct through the firſt ſtages of life.—

Bred up in grief, can pleaſure be our theme?
Our endleſs anguiſh, does not nature claim?
Reaſon and ſorrow are to us the ſame *Prior.*

(2.) * *To* BREED. *v. n.* 1. To bring young.—Lucina, it ſeems, was *breeding*, as ſhe did nothing but entertain the company with a diſcourſe upon the difficulty of reckoning to a day *Spectator.*

2. To be increaſed by new production.—

But could youth laſt, and love ſtill *breed*,
Had joys no date, and age no need;
Then theſe delights my mind might move
To live with thee, and be thy love. *Raleigh.*

3. To be produced; to have birth.—

Where they moſt *breed* and haunt; I have obſerv'd,
The air is delicate. *Shakeſ. Macbeth.*

—There is a worm that *breedeth* in old ſnow, and dieth ſoon after it cometh out of the ſnow. *Bacon's Natural Hiſtory.*—The caterpillar is one of the moſt general of worms, and *breedeth* of dew and leaves *Bacon.*—It hath been the general tradition and belief, that maggots and flies *breed* in putrefied carcaſſes *Bentley.* 4. To raiſe a breed.—In the choice of ſwine, chooſe ſuch to *breed* of as are of long large bodies *Mortimer*

* BREEDBATE. *ſ.* [from *breed* and *bate*.] One that breeds quarrels; an incendiary — An honeſt, wiſling, kind fellow, as ever ſervant ſhall come in houſe withal; and, I warrant you, no teltale, nor no *breedbate*. *Shakeſp. Merry Wives of Windſor.*

* BREEDER. *n. ſ.* [from *breed*.] 1. That which produces any thing.—Time is the nurſe and *breeder* of all good. *Shakeſpeare.* 2. The perſon which brings up another—Time was, when Italy and Rome have been the beſt *breeders* and bringers up of the worthieſt men. *Aſcham's Schoolmaſter.* 3. A female that is prolifick.—Get thee to a nunnery; why ſhould thou be a *breeder* of ſinners? *Shakeſ. Hamlet.*—

Here is the babe, as loathſome as a toad,
Amongſt the faireſt *breeders* of our time.
Shakeſp. Tit. Andr.

—Let there be 100 perſons in London and as many in the country, we ſay, that if theirbe 60 of them *breeders* in London, there are more than 50 in the country *Graunt*—

Yet if a friend a night or two ſhould need her,
He'd recommend her as a ſpecial *breeder*. *Pope.*

4. One that takes care to raiſe a breed.—The *breeders* of Engliſh cattle turned much to dairy, or elſe kept their cattle to 6 or 7 years old. *Temple.*

(1.) * BREEDING *n. ſ.* [from *breed*.] 1. Education; inſtruction; qualifications.—

She had her *breeding* at my father's charge,
A poor phyſician's daughter *Shakeſ.*

—I am a gentleman of blood and *breeding*. *Shakeſp. King Lear.*—I hope to ſee it a piece of none of the meaneſt *breedings*, to be acquainted with the laws of nature. *Glanville's Sceptſis, Pref.*

2. Man-

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2. Manners; knowledge of ceremony.—

As men of *breeding*, sometimes men of wit,
T' avoid great errours, must the less commit.
Pope.

The Graces from the court did next provide
Breeding, and wit, and air, and decent pride.
Swift.

3. Nurture; care to bring up from the infant state.—

Why was my *breeding* order'd and prescrib'd,
As of a person separate to God,
Design'd for great exploits? *Milton's Agonistes.*

(2.) BREEDING, in a moral sense, (§ 1. *d f.* 2.) denotes a person's behaviour in the external offices of social life. In this sense we say *well-bred, ill-bred, a man of breeding*, &c. Good breeding is hard to define; none can understand the theory but those who have the practice. Good breeding amounts to much the same with what is otherwise called POLITENESS, among the ancient Romans URBANITY. Good breeding is near to virtue, and will often lead a man a great part of the way towards it; although it must be owned, there are too many instances of its failing to produce this happy effect. Lord Chesterfield with all his good breeding, was a very bad moralist. Good breeding teaches a man to rejoice in acts of civility, to seek out objects of compassion, and to be pleased with every occasion of doing them good offices. Lord Shaftesbury compares the well-bred man with the real philosopher: both characters aim at what is excellent, aspire to a just taste, and keep in view the model of what is beautiful and becoming. The conduct and manners of the one are formed according to the most perfect ease, and good entertainment of company; of the other, according to the strictest interest of mankind; the one according to his rank and quality in his private station; the other according to his rank and dignity of station. See MANNERS. Horace seems to have united both characters:

Quid verum atque decens curo et rogo, et omnis in hoc sum.

(3.) BREEDING OF FISH. See POND.

(4.) BREEDING OF HORSES. See HORSE.

BREEDING-STONE, in mineralogy, a sort of mass of peebles, joined by a sparry cement; frequent in divers parts of Hertfordshire.

BREEDON ON THE HILL, a village in Leicestershire, near Stanton-Harold.

BREEF CARDS, a kind of false cards, either a little longer or broader than the rest, whereby they may be felt and distinguished.

BREEM, *adj. obs.* fierce *Spenser.*

BREENBERG, Bartholomew, an excellent painter, born at Utretcht in 1620; and best known by his christian name Italized, BARTOLOMEO, having spent the early part of his life in Rome. His pictures were held in the highest estimation. He excelled in landscapes, which he enriched with historical subjects. The figures and animals were drawn in a masterly manner. He also etched from his own designs a set of 24 *Views and Landscapes, ornamented with Ruins.* He died in 1660, aged 40.

* BREESE. *n. s.* [*briosa*, Saxon.] A stinging fly; the gadfly.—

Cleopatra,
The *breese* upon her, like a cow in June,
Hoists sail, and flies. *Shakesp. Ant. and Cleop.*

The learn'd write, the insect *breese*
Is but the mongrel prince of bees. *Hudibras.*

A fierce loud buzzing *breese*, their stings draw blood,
And drive the cattle gadding through the wood
Dryden.

(1.) * BREEZE. *n. s* [*brezza*, Ital.] A gentle gale; a soft wind.—We find, that those hottest regions of the world, seated under the equinoctial line, or near it, are so refreshed with a gale of easterly wind, which the Spaniards call *breeze*, that doth ever more blow stronger in the heat of the day. *Raleigh.*—

From land a gentle *breeze* arose by night,
Serenely shone the stars, the moon was light,
And the sea trembled with her silver-light. *Dryd.*

Gradual sinks the *breeze*
Into a perfect calm, that not a breath
Is heard to quiver through the closing wood.
Thomson.

(2.) BREEZE, a shifting wind that blows from sea or land for certain hours in the day or night; common in Africa and some parts of the E and W. Indies. Breezes differ from ETESIÆ or trade winds, as the former are diurnal, or have their periods each day; and the latter are annual, and blow at a distance from land. The sea breezes rule by day, and the land breezes by night, being constant as the seasons of the year, or course of the sun, on which they seem to depend: not but that they appear sooner or later, stronger or weaker, in some places than in others; and vary the alternative according to the several latitudes situations, and soils, &c of the countries where they are found. See WIND.

(3.) BREEZE, in brick-making, small ashes and cinders sometimes made use of instead of coals, for the burning of bricks. But as this does not so well answer the end, the use of it was prohibited by 12 Geo. I. cap. 35 but allowed by 3 Geo. II. cap. 22 and 10 Geo. III cap. 49.

BREEZE ALY. See BREESE, and TABANUS.

* BREEZY. *adj.* [from *breeze.*] Fanned with gales.—

The seer, while zephyrs curl the swelling deep,
Basks on the *breezy* shore, in grateful sleep,
His oozy limb. *Pope.*

BREGANZON, a strong castle of France, in the ci-devant province of Provence.

BREGENTZ, or BERGENTZ, a town of Tyrol in Germany, situated at the E. end of the lake of Constance, 6 miles S. of Lindau. It was taken possession of by a column of the French army under Gen. Kellerman, in July 1796. Lon. 9. 40. E. Lat. 47. 36. N.

BREGMA, in anatomy, the same with SINCIPUT, or the fore-head. The bregma consists chiefly of two bones, hence also called *bregmatis ossa* or *ossa parietalia.* See ANATOMY, § 119, 178. Bregma properly denotes the middle and fore part of the head, situated over the forehead, and extending on both sides to the temples. The origin of the word is obscure, and has been much controverted between Hoffman and Lindenius.

BREGNA, a fortress of Hungarian Dalmatia, in Morlachia.

(1.) BREHAR, one of the Scilly islands, lying

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30 miles almoſt directly W. of the Land's End in Cornwall, between the iſles of Micarlo, Guel, Treſcaw, and Samſon. It is the roughest and moſt mountainous of them all, and not many years ago, there were only two families in it, but now there are 13. There are ſeveral BARROWS edged with ſtone, in which they buried conſiderable perſons in ancient times; beſides many monuments of the DRUIDS. Some are of opinion, that this with the reſt made but one iſland, which is the reaſon why ſo many antiquities are now found in moſt of them.

(3.) BREHAR, the only town or rather village in the iſland, (N° 1.) conſiſting of a few houſes.

BREHILL, a town near Andover, Hampſhire.

(1.) * BREHON. *n. ſ.* An Iriſh word.—In the caſe of murder, the *brehon*, that is, their judge, will compound between the murderer and the party murdered, which proſecute the action, that the malefactor ſhall give unto them, or to the child or wife of him that is ſlain, a recompence, which they call an eriach. *Spenſer.*

(2.) BREHONS were the provincial judges among the ancient Iriſh, by whom juſtice was adminiſtered, and controverſies decided. Theſe ſages were a diſtinct tribe, and had competent lands allowed them in inheritance. In criminal caſes the brehon had the 11th part of all the fines; which could not but be conſiderable at a time when murders, rapes, robberies, and the like offences, were only ſubject to pecuniary commutations.

BREHONICÆ LEGES, } the general rules
BREHON LAWS, } of law obſerved by the Brehons, and having the force of laws throughout all the provinces of Europe. Several fragments of the *leges Brehonicæ* are ſtill extant in public and private libraries. The moſt complete collection is that belonging to the duke of Chandos; containing 22½ ſheets cloſe written, full of abbreviated words, and not very legible. By the ſtatute of Kilkenny, made under Edward III. it is enacted that no Engliſh ſubject ſhall ſubmit to a trial by the *Brehon* law, on the penalty of high treaſon: Notwithſtanding which, many were ſtill under a neceſſity of being concluded by the Iriſh laws and cuſtoms, till the whole kingdom was ſettled on an Engliſh bottom by King James I.

BREID, *adj. obſ.* bred.

To BREID, *v. n. obſ.* to be in like condition.

BREIDE, *v. præt. obſ.* did ariſe. *Chaucer.*

BREMBLE, a town E. of Chippenham, Wilts.

BREMBLEHAM, near Malmſbury, Wiltſhire.

(1.) * BREME. *adj.* [from *bremman*, Saxon, to rage or fume.] Cruel; ſharp; ſevere. Not uſed.—

And when the ſhining ſun laugheth once,
You deemen the ſpring come at once:
But eft, when you count, you freed from fear,
Comes the *breme* winter, with chamfred browe,
Full of wrinkles, and froſty furrows. *Spenſer.*

(2.) BREMEL, *adv. obſ.* fiercely. *Spenſer.*

BREMEGARTEN, or BREMGARTON, a conſiderable town of Switzerland, in the territory of Fyen-Aempter, between the cantons of Zurich and Bern. The inhabitants are Roman Catholics, and deal chiefly in paper. It is very advantageouſly ſeated on the river Ruſs, 10 miles W. of Zurich. Lon. 8. 17. E. Lat. 47. 28. N.

(1.) BREMEN, a duchy of Germany, in the circle of Lower Saxony, lying between the rivers Weſer and the Elbe; of which the former ſeparates it from the duchy of Oldenburgh, and the other from that of Holſtein. The air is cold; but the country is fertile, and well peopled. It formerly belonged to Sweden, but was afterwards conquered by the king of Denmark, who ſold it to the king of Great Britain, as elector of Hanover, 1716. In winter it is ſubject to inundations. On Chriſtmas, 1617, ſeveral thouſand cattle were drowned, beſides ſeveral hundred people; and the country was ſo covered with water, that it has coſt immenſe ſums to repair the dykes.

(2.) BREMEN, a large, populous, and very ſtrong town, the capital of the duchy, (N° 1.) with an archbiſhop's ſee. The river Weſer runs through it, and divides it into the old and new town. In September 1739, while the inhabitants were aſleep, the powder magazine was ſet on fire by lightning; and all the houſes were ſhaken, as if there had been a violent earthquake. This town is governed by its own magiſtrates, and is divided into 4 quarters, each of which has a Burgomaſter. In the middle there is a large market-place, with the ſtatue of Rolando. It has a great trade for iron, flax, hemp, and linen, with France, England, Spain, and Portugal; and in return imports proviſions, with which it ſupplies Weſtphalia and the countries about Hanover. It alſo gets a great deal by its fiſheries; the trade for blubber with the S. of Germany is very conſiderable. It is 70 miles NW. of Zell. Lon. 8. 48. E. Lat. 55. 6. N.

BREMEN-VEERD, or } a town in BREMEN, (N°
BREMEN-WOERD, } 1.) ſeated on the river Ooſt. Lon. 8. 35. E. Lat. 53. 48. N.

BREMER, a town near Blandford, Dorſetſhire.

BREMERUVOIDE, a fortified town of Lower Saxony, 27 miles N. of Bremen. Lon. 8. 35. E. Lat. 53. 48. N.

BREMGARTEN. See BREMEGARTEN.

BREMPTON, near Webmore, Somerſetſhire.

(1.) BREN, in Cornwall, 4 miles W. of Bodmin.

(2.) BREN, *n. ſ. obſ.* bran. *Chaucer.*

To BREN, *v. n. obſ.* to burn. *Spenſer.*

BRENCHLEY, a village in Kent, 6 miles from Tunbridge Wells.

BRENDE, *adj. obſ.* burnt; burniſhed. *Chaucer.*

To BRENDE, *v. a. obſ.* to burn. *Chaucer.*

BRENKHORN, a village in Northumberland, S. of Rothbury.

BRENNAGE, } in authors of the mid-
BRENNAGIUM, or } dle age, a kind of tri-
BRENNATICUM, } bute paid in lieu of bran, or bran itſelf, which the tenants were obliged to furniſh for the ſupport of the lord's hounds.

BRENNE, a ci-devant territory of France, in the late province of Touraine, now included in the department of Indre and Loire.

BRENNING, a river of S. Wales, in Cardiganſh.

BRENNINGLY, *adv. obſ.* warmly. *Chaucer.*

BRENNUS, a celebrated captain among the Gauls, who, about A. A. C. 388, entered Italy with a powerful army; made great conqueſts there; defeated the Romans: and ſacked Rome. The capital alone was defended; and Camillus coming to its relief, drove the Gauls not only out of

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of Rome, but out of all Italy. See ROME, HISTORY OF.

BRENSET, a village W. of N. Romney, Kent.

(1.) * BRENT. *adj.* [from *brennan*, Saxon, to burn.] Burnt. Obsolete.

What flames, quoth he, when I thee present see
In danger rather to be drent than *brent?*
Fairy Queen.

(2.) BRENT, a river of Somersetshire.

(3.) BRENT, a small town of Devonshire, with a market on Saturdays, and two fairs, on May 13th and Oct. 10th, for horned cattle. It lies on the road from Exeter to Plymouth, 6 miles from Ashburton, 26 SW. from Exeter, and 198 W. by S. of London. Lon. 4. 2. W. Lat. 50. 33. N.

(4.) BRENT, or BRENT-BROOK, a rivulet of Middlesex, which rises near Finchley Common, and passes through the W. part of Brentford, (to which it gives name,) into the Thames.

(5.) BRENT, Sir Nathaniel, LL. D. was born at Little Woolford, Warwickshire, in 1573; educated at Oxford, where he took his degrees. In 1613, he travelled abroad, and on his return he married the daughter and heiress of Dr Abbot, Bp. of Salisbury and niece of Abp. Abbot; who sent him to Venice in 1617, to procure a copy of the *History of the Council of Trent*, from the joint authors; fathers Paul and Fulgentio; which he translated from Italian into English. He received several promotions from the archbishop, and was knighted by king Charles I. but was afterwards deprived of them for joining the Puritans and taking the covenant. In 1646, when Oxford surrendered to the parliament, he was restored to his warden-ship of Merton college and appointed chief visitory of that university. He died at London in 1652, aged 79.

(6.) BRENT, EAST, }
(7.) BRENT, SOUTH, } three English villages in Somersetshire, about 18
(8.) BRENT, WEST, } miles from Bristol.

BRENTA, in ornithology, the BRENT GOOSE, a species of ANAS, with a black neck and a white collar round it. It has been usually confounded with the BARNACLE, (See ANAS, N° 5, & 16. and BARNACLE, N° 5.) and supposed to differ from it only in sex; but this is erroneous. It is somewhat larger than the barnacle, and is longer bodied. *Ray.* See *Plate* XLVI. *Fig.* 9.

BRENT-BROOK. See BRENT, N° 4.

BRENTE, a river of Germany, which rises in Trent, and running SE. through the Venetian territories in Italy, falls into the Adriatic opposite to Venice.

BRENT-ELEY, a village in Suffolk, E. of Lavenham.

BRENTFORD, a town of Middlesex, 7 miles from London, on the great road to the W. It is divided into the old and new town, in which last are the church, and the market-house where the country elections are held. It is long, well stocked with public houses, is seated on the river Thames, and has a considerable trade in corn. Lon. 0. 10. W. Lat. 51. 26. N.

BRENT GOOSE. See BRENTA, N° 2.

BRENTINGBY, a village in Leicestershire, near Melton-Mowbray.

BRENT-KNOLL, in Somersetshire, near the Brent Marshes.

BRENT MARSHES are situated in Somersetsh. between Glastonbury and Start-point.

BRENT-STREET, a village in Middlesex, in the parish of Hendon.

BRENT-TOR, in Devonshire, on the top of a high hill, between Lidford and Milton-Abbey. It serves for a sea mark.

BRENTWOOD, or BURNTWOOD, a town of Essex, on a rising ground in the road from London to Colchester. It has several good inns, and lies 11 miles WSW. of Chelmsford, and 18 ENE. of London. Lon. 0. 25. E. Lat. 51. 38. N.

BRENUTH, the ancient name of BIRNIE.

BREOCK, St, a village in the county of Cornwall, near Wardbridge.

BREPHOTROPHIUM, [from βρεφος, infant, and τροφη, nourishment,] an hospital for foundlings or orphans.

BREPHOTROPHY, the nurture of infants.

BRERE, *n. s. obs.* a brier. *Chauc.*

BRERETON, a town near Congleton, Chesh.

BREREWOOD, Edward, a very learned English mathematician and antiquary, the son of Robert Brerewood a tradesman, who was thrice mayor of Chester; was born in that city in 1565. He was educated in Chester; and admitted, in 1581, of Brazen-nose college, Oxford. In 1596, he became the first professor of astronomy in Gresham college in London, where he led a very retired life. He died there of a fever, Nov. 4, 1613. He was a great searcher into antiquity and curious knowledge; but never published any thing during his life. After his death came out the following works. 1. *De ponderibus et pretiis veterum nummorum.* 2. Inquiries touching the diversities of languages and religion through the chief parts of the world. 3. *Elementa logicæ in gratiam studiosæ juventutis in Acad. Oxon.* 4. *Tractatus quidam logici.* 5, 6. Two treatises on the Sabbath. 7. *Tractatus duo, quorum primus est de meteoris, secundus de oculo.* 8. *Commentarii in ethica Aristotelis.* Mr Wood tells us, that the original MS. of this, written with his own hand, is in the smallest and neatest characters that his eyes ever beheld; and that it was finished by him on the 27th of October, 1586. 9. Patriarchal government of the ancient church.

BRESCIA, the capital of Bresciano, a strong town with a bishop's see and a good citadel. It is seated on an agreeable plain on the river Garza, which runs through it. Its walls are also washed by the Mela on the W. and the Navilio on the E. It contains about 50,000 inhabitants. They manufacture cloths and hard wares. In March 1797, they solicited to be annexed to the new republic of LOMBARDY. It lies 35 miles N. of Cremona, and 95 W. of Venice. Lon. 10. 5. E. Lat. 45. 31. N.

BRESCIANO, a province of Italy in the territory of Venice; bounded on the N. by the Grisons and the bishopric of Trent; on the E. by the lake Garda, the Veronese, and the duchy of Mantua; on the S. by Mantua and the Cremonese; and on the W. by the Cremasco, the Burgomasco,

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and the Valtelina. It is watered by several small rivers, which render it very fertile; and is full of towns and villages.

BRESCICATE, in commerce, a kind of bays, of which there is some trade carried on with the negroes, between the river Gambia and Sierra Leona. The best sorts for that purpose are the blue and the red.

BRESELLO, a small town of Italy, in Modena, seated on the Po. Lon. 10. 25. E. Lat. 44. 55 N.

BRESILIA, in ornithology, a species of TANAGRA, in the order of *passeres*.

BRESINI, a town of Poland, in the palatinate of Lencici.

CRESLEGHAM, a town near Diss, Norfolkshire.

(1.) BRESLAU, or BRESLAW, a small duchy of lower Silesia, in Germany, lying between those of Wolaw, Olsse, Brieg, Schwednitz, and Lignitz. It is every where level and flat; is an excellent corn and pasture country, abounding with herds of cattle and flocks of sheep; but destitute of wood, except in one district. The roads in general are very bad. Both the property and jurisdiction belong to the king of Prussia; forming a part of one of the 3 bailiwics, into which all the immediate principalities are divided.

(2.) BRESLAU, or BRESLAW, the chief town of the duchy, (N° 1.) and of all Silesia, situated at the conflux of the Oder and Ohlau. Including the suburbs, it is of great extent; having many large regular squares, broad streets, stately public and private edifices; but the fortifications are of no importance. It has many churches (besides convents) belonging to the catholics; several to the Lutherans one to the Calvinists, and another to the Greeks The Jews have likewise two synagogues, the bishop a stately palace, and the Lutherans two gymnasiums. The Popish university is a noble structure, and the exchange is magnificent This city is the seat of all the high colleges; and the 3d in rank next to Berlin and Konigsberg, in the whole Prussian dominions. Its trade and manufactures are very considerable. Several of the monasteries and nunneries are very magnificent; and there are also some good public libraries in it, with two armouries, a college of physicians, and a mint. It is very populous, and much frequented by Hungarian, Bohemian, Polish, and other merchants, having several fairs. It was taken by the king of Prussia in 1741, and retaken by the Austrians in 1757; but the king of Prussia took it back again the same year, and gained a signal victory over the Austrians at Leuthen, a village not far from the capital. Breslaw is 112 m. E. of Prague, and 165 N. of Vienna. Lon. 17. 14. E. Lat 51. 1. N.

(1.) BRESLE, a river in the N. of France.

(2.) BRESLE, a town of France, in the department of Rhone and Loire, and ci-devant province of Lyonnois.

BRESMA, in ichthyology, a name given by Hildegard and several others, to the bream. See CYPRINUS.

(1.) BRESSAY, or BRASSA, an island of Scotland, about 4 miles long and 2 broad, lying to the E. of the coast of Shetland, from which it is separated by the Sound, (N° 3.) It consists of 366, merks of land, and contained 670 inhabitants in 1794. They have 26 fishing boats

(2.) BRESSAY, BURRA, and QUARFF, 3 united parishes of Scotland, in the county and on the coast of Shetland, comprehending also the islands of NOSS, HAVERA, and HOUSE. They are, in all, above ten miles long and 2 broad, and rent at about 4000 l. Scots, annually, besides more than double that sum in fishings. The climate is damp, but healthy. The population, in 1793, as stated by the rev. Mr Menzies, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 1122; and had increased 127, since 1755. The number of sheep was 5000, and of milck cows 600, besides many oxen and horses. About 60 boats are employed in fishing and catch about 300 ling each annually. "The fishing," however, Mr Menzies observes, "is a great obstacle to improvements in agriculture, the chief object of the proprietors being to have as many fishermen on their grounds as possible The farms, consequently, are very small. Few leases are granted. Many services the sad marks of slavery, are demanded. They must fish for their masters, who either give them a fee entirely inadequate to their labour and dangers, or take their fish at a lower price than others would give. It is true, (he adds,) that in the years of scarcity, they must depend upon their landlords for subsistence, and are often deep in their debt. But why not allow them to make the best of their situation? Why not let them have leases upon reasonable terms, and dispose of their produce to those who will give them the best price? Why not let them fish for themselves? Why should the laird have any claim, except for the stipulated rent? Neither the climate nor the soil are favourable for improvements in agriculture; but with proper management much might be done." *Stat. Acc.* x. 197.

(3.) BRESSAY, or BRASSA SOUND is reckoned by Mr Menzies "one of the best harbours in the world." See BRASSA, N° 2.

(1.) BRESSE, a ci-devant province of France, bounded on the N. by Burgundy and Franche Compte; on the E. by Savoy; on the S. by Viennois; on the W. by Dombes and the Somme. It is 40 miles from N. to S. and 23 from E to W. It is fertile in corn and hemp, has fine pastures, and several lakes with plenty of fish. It was divided into the higher, on the side of Bourges, and the lower towards St Trivier and the river Sonne. The French got possession of it in 1601. The principal places are Bourg, Bresse, Montluel, Pont de Vaux, and Coligny. It now forms the department of Ain.

(2.) BRESSE, a town of France in the department of Ain.

BRESSICI. See BRESTE.

BRESSUIRE, a town of France in the department of the Two Sevres, and ci-devant province of Poictou. It is 35 miles NW. of Poictiers. Lon. 0. 30. W. Lat 46. 50. N.

BRESSUMERS. See BREST SUMMERS.

(1.) BREST, a maritime town of France, in the department of Cape Finisterre, and ci-devant province of Brittany, seated on the declivity of a hill on the side of its port, which is the largest in the kingdom, and will hold 500 ships at a time. It has

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has an arſenal with ſea-ſtores, placed there on account of its nearneſs to the woods, mines of iron, and other things proper for the building of ſhips. It was entirely conſumed by fire in 1644. The craggy entrance into the port is narrow and guarded by a ſtrong caſtle ſeated on a rock which cannot be attempted on the ſea ſide; and it is defended on the land ſide by a large ditch and other fortifications The ſtreets are very narrow, ill contrived, few in number, and have all a deſcent. A great quay ſurrounds this ſide of the port, which is above a mile long, and 200 paces broad; and there are magazines on the quay full of foreign merchandizes. On the other ſide of the port the fine church of Notre Dame is ſituated; and in a ſuburb which is as big as half the city, there is a ſtrong tower oppoſite to the caſtle, at the entrance of the port; there is alſo a great quay on this ſide, bordered with large magazines, partly within the rock, which has been cut away to enlarge the place. Theſe are extended almoſt as far as the bottom of the harbour, where there are two docks very commodious for the building of large ſhips: the ſhops and houſes of the workmen are all around them: the rampewalks are ſeparated from the city by one of theſe docks The entrance into the harbour is called the *Gullet*, and is a paſſage extremely difficult on account of the ſunk rocks on both ſides of the ſhore; but there are experienced pilots who carry ſhips in very ſafely. It is 30 miles SE. of Morlaix, and 325 W. by S. of Paris Lon. 4. 26. W. Lat. 48. 27. N.

(2.) * BREST. *n. ſ.* [In architecture] That member of a column, called alſo the *torus* or *tore*.

(1.) BRESTE, a palatinate, and province of Cujavia, in Poland It lies between the palatinates of Ploeſko, Rava, and Lencici Wladiſlaw. It is divided into 4 chatelanies.

(2.) BRESTE, BRESSICI, or BRZESC, the capital of the palatinate, (N° 1.) and of Poleſia, in Poland, ſeated on the river Bog, 80 miles E. of Warſaw, and ſubject to Poland. It is a fortified town, and has a caſtle built upon a rock; with a famous ſynagogue, reſorted to by the Jews from all the countries in Europe. Lon. 24. 6. E. Lat. 52. 4. N.

To BRESTE, *v. n. obſ.* To burſt *Chaue.*

(1.) * BREST SUMMERS. The pieces in the outward parts of any timber building, and in the middle floors, into which the girders are framed. *Harris.*

(2.) BREST SUMMERS. See GIRDERS.

BRESWORTH, a village in Suffolk, near Mendleſham.

(1.) * BREST. *n. ſ.* A fiſh of the turbot kind, alſo *burt* or *brut*. *Dict.*

(2.) BRET is a name given on the coaſts of Lincolnſhire to the turbot, a fiſh extremely plentiful there, and taken in vaſt numbers. They are caught in a net, trailed by two horſes, the one going up to the middle of his body in water, the other on ſhore

BRETACHIÆ. In writers of the middle age, denote wooden towers or caſtles, wherewith towns or camps were defended.

BRETAGNE, a ci-devant province of France, now formed into 5 departments, viz. North Coaſt, Finiſterre, Ille and Vilaine, Lower Loire, and Morbihan. See BRITTANY.

BRETBEY, a village 7 miles from Derby

BRETESSE, in heraldry, denotes a line embattled on both ſides.

BRETEUIL, a town of France, in the department of Lower Seine, ſeated on the river Iton, 15 m. SW. of Evreux Lon 1. 0. E. Lat. 48 56. N.

BRETFORD, a village in Warwickſhire, near Baggington.

BRETFORTON, near Eveſham, Worceſterſh.

(1.) * BRETHREN. *n. ſ.* [The *plural* of *brother*.] See BROTHER.—All theſe ſects are *brethren* to each other in faction, ignorance, iniquity, perverſeneſs, pride. *Swift.*

(2.) BRETHREN AND CLERKS OF THE COMMON LIFE, a denomination aſſumed by a religious fraternity towards the end of the 5th century. They lived under the rule of St Auguſtin, and were eminently uſeful in promoting the cauſe of religion and learning. Their ſociety was firſt formed, in the 14th century, by Gerard de Groote, a native of Deventer; but did not flouriſh till it obtained the approbation of the council of Conſtance. It became very reſpectable in Holland, the Lower Germany, and the adjacent provinces. It was divided into two claſſes; the *lettered brethren or clerks*, and the *illiterate*: they lived in ſeparate habitations, but maintained the cloſeſt fraternal union The former applied to the ſtudy of polite literature, and the education of youth; whilſt the latter were employed in manual labour, and the mechanic arts They are frequently called *Beghards* and *Lollards*, by way of reproach.

(3.) BRETHREN AND SISTERS OF THE FREE SPIRIT, in eccleſiaſtical hiſtory, an appellation aſſumed by a ſect which ſprung up towards the cloſe of the 13th century, and gained many adherents in Italy, France, and Germany. They took their denomination from the words of St Paul, Rom. viii. 2, 14. and maintained, that the true children of God were inveſted with perfect freedom from the juriſdiction of the law. They were enthuſiaſts to a degree of diſtraction, both in their principles and practice. They reſembled the BEGHARDS, by which name they were ſometimes called, in their aſpect, apparel, and manner of living. Some of their profeſſed principles reſembled thoſe of the Pantheiſts; for they held, that all things flowed by emanation from God; that rational ſouls were portions of the Deity, and that the univerſe was God; and that, by the power of contemplation, they were united to the Deity, and acquired hereby a glorious and ſublime liberty, both from the ſinful luſts and the common inſtincts of nature: and hence they concluded, that the perſon, who was thus abſorbed in the abyſs of the Deity, became a part of the Godhead, and was the ſon of God, in the ſame ſenſe and manner that Chriſt was, and that he was freed from the obligation of all laws human and divine. They treated with contempt all Chriſtian ordinances, and all external acts of religion, as unſuitable to the ſtate of perfection at which they were arrived. Some of them were honeſt but deluded enthuſiaſts; and they endured the torments inflicted on them by the inquiſitors with aſtoniſhing heroiſm and triumph.

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triumph. Others proceeded to the moſt extravagant licentiouſneſs of conduct. They held their ſecret aſſemblies ſtark naked and lay in the ſame bed with their ſpiritual ſiſters, and indiſcriminately with other women, without the leaſt ſcruple: modeſty and delicacy being, according to their creed, marks of inward corruption. And ſome of them proceeded ſtill farther, and maintained, that the *divine man*, or believer, could not ſin, let his conduct be ever ſo atrocious. Many edicts were publiſhed againſt them; but notwithſtanding the ſeverities they ſuffered, they continued till about the middle of the 15th century. They were called by ſeveral other names, ſuch as Schweſtriones, Picards, Adamites, and Turlupins.

(4.) BRETHREN, WHITE, *fratres albati*, were the followers of a prieſt from the Alps, about the beginning of the 14th century, who was arrayed in a white garment; and as they were alſo clothed in white linen, they were diſtinguiſhed by this title. Their leader carried about a croſs, like a ſtandard, and his apparent ſanctity and devotion drew together a number of followers. This enthuſiaſt practiſed many acts of mortification and penance, endeavoured to perſuade the European nations to renew the holy war, and pretended that he was favoured with divine viſions. Boniface IX. ordered him to be apprehended and committed to the flames, upon which his followers diſperſed.

BRETON, a river in Suffolk.

(1.) BRETON, CAPE, or CAPE BRITAIN, an iſland near the eaſtern continent of N. America, lying between 45° and 47° lat. N. It is ſeparated from Nova Scotia by a narrow ſtrait called *Canſo*, and is about 100 m. in length, and 50 in breadth. It is ſurrounded with little ſharp-pointed rocks, ſeparated from each other by the waves, above which ſome of their tops are viſible. All its harbours are open to the E. turning towards the S. On other parts of the coaſt there are but a few anchoring places for ſmall veſſels, in creeks, or between iſlets. Except in the hill parts, the ſurface of the country has but little ſolidity, being every where covered with a light moſs, and with water. The dampneſs of the ſoil is exhaled in fogs, without rendering the air unwholeſome. In other reſpects the climate is very cold; owing either to the prodigious quantity of lakes, which cover above half the iſland, and remain long frozen; or to the number of foreſts, that totally intercept the rays of the ſun; which are alſo intercepted by perpetual clouds.

(2.) BRETON, CAPE, HISTORY, TRADE, &c. OF. Though ſome fiſhermen had long reſorted to this iſland every ſummer, not above 20 or 30 had ever fixed there. The French, who took poſſeſſion of it in Auguſt 1713, were properly the firſt inhabitants. They changed its name into that of *Ile Royale*, and fixed upon fort Dauphin for their principle ſettlement. This harbour was 2 leagues in circumference. The ſhips came to the very ſhore, and were ſheltered from winds. Foreſts affording oak ſufficient to fortify and build a large city, were near at hand; the ground appeared leſs barren than in other parts, and the fiſh were more plentiful. The harbour might have been rendered impregnable at a trifling expence; but the difficulty of approaching it (a circumſtance that had at firſt made a ſtronger impreſſion than the advantages reſulting from it) occaſioned it to be abandoned, after a great labour had been beſtowed upon the undertaking. They then turned their views to Louiſbourg, the acceſs to which was eaſier; and convenience was thus preferred to ſecurity: the fortification of Louiſbourg, however, was not begun till 1720. In 1714, ſome fiſhermen, who till then had lived in Newfoundland, ſettled in this iſland. It was expected that their number would ſoon have been increaſed by the Acadians, who were at liberty, from the treaties that had been granted them, to remove with all their effects, and even to diſpoſe of their eſtates; but theſe hopes were diſappointed. The Acadians choſe rather to retain their poſſeſſions under the dominion of Britain, than to give them up for any precarious advantage they might derive from their attachment to France. Their place was ſupplied by ſome diſtreſſed adventurers from Europe, who came over from time to time to Cape Breton, and the number of inhabitants gradually increaſed to 4000. They were ſettled at Louiſburg, Fort Dauphin, Port Toulouſe, Nerücka, and on all the coaſts where they found a proper beach for drying the cod. The inhabitants never applied themſelves to agriculture, the ſoil being unfit for it. They often ſowed corn, but it ſeldom came to maturity; and when it did thrive ſo much as to be worth reaping, it had degenerated ſo conſiderably, that it was not fit for ſeed next ſpring. They have only continued to plant a few pot-herbs that are tolerably well taſted, but muſt be renewed every year from abroad. The poorneſs and ſcarcity of paſtures has likewiſe prevented the increaſe of cattle. In a word the ſoil of Cape Breton ſeemed calculated to invite none but fiſhermen and ſoldiers. Though the iſland was entirely covered with foreſts before it was inhabited, its woods has ſcarce ever been an object of trade. A great quantity, however, of ſoft wood was found there fit for firing, and ſome that might be uſed for timber; but the oak has always been ſcarce, and the fir never yielded much reſin. The peltry trade was a very inconſiderable object. It conſiſted only in the ſkins of a few lynxes, elks, muſk rats, wild cats, bears, otters, and foxes both of a red and ſilver-gray colour. Some of theſe were procured from a colony of Micma Indians, who had ſettled on the iſland with the French, and never could raiſe more than 60 men able to bear arms. The reſt came from St John's, or the neighbouring continent. Greater advantages might poſſibly have been derived from the coal mines which abound in the iſland. They lie in a horizontal direction; and being only 6 or 8 feet below the ſurface, may be worked without digging deep, or draining off the waters. Notwithſtanding the prodigious demand for this coal from New England, from 1745 to 1749, theſe mines would probably have been forſaken, had not the ſhips which were ſent out to the French iſlands wanted ballaſt. In one of theſe mines a fire has been kindled, which could never yet be extinguiſhed. The people of Cape Breton did not ſend all their fiſh to Europe. They ſent part of it to the French ſouthern iſlands, on board 20 or 25 ſhips from 70 to

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to 140 tons burden. Beſides the cod, which made at leaſt half their cargo, they exported to the other colonies timber, planks, thin oak boards, ſalted ſalmon, and mackeril, train oil and ſea coal. All theſe were paid for in ſugar and coffee, but chiefly in rum and molaſſes. The iſland could not conſume all theſe commodities. Canada took off but a ſmall part of the overplus; it was chiefly brought to the people of New England, who gave in exchange fruits, vegetables, wood, brick, and cattle. This trade of exchanging was allowed: but a ſmuggling trade was added to it, carried on in flour, and ſalt fiſh.

(3.) BRETON, CAPE, INVASIONS AND CAPTURES OF. This iſland, the key of Canada, was attacked by the Engliſh, in 1745; and the event is of ſo ſingular a nature, that it deſerves a particular detail. The plan of this firſt invaſion was laid at Boſton, and New England bore the expence of it. A merchant named *Pepperel*, who had excited, encouraged, and directed the enterprize, was intruſted with the command of an army of 6000 men, which had been levied for this expedition. Though theſe forces, convoyed by a ſquadron from Jamaica, brought the firſt news to Cape Breton of the danger that threatened it; though the advantage of a ſurpriſe would have ſecured the landing without oppoſition; though they had but 600 regular troops to encounter, and 800 inhabitants haſtily armed; the ſucceſs of the undertaking was ſtill precarious. Theſe unexperienced troops ſtood in need of the aſſiſtance of ſome fortunate incident, which they were indeed favoured with in a ſingular manner. The conſtruction and repairs of the fortifications had always been left to the care of the garriſon of Louiſbourg. The ſoldiers were eager of being employed in theſe works, which they conſidered as conducive to their ſafety, and as the means of procuring them a comfortable ſubſiſtence. When they found that thoſe who were to have paid them, appropriated to themſelves the profit of their labours, they demanded juſtice. It was denied them, and they were determined to aſſert their right. As the depredations had been ſhared between the chief perſons of the colony and the ſubaltern officers, the ſoldiers could obtain no redreſs. Their indignation againſt theſe rapacious extortioners roſe to ſuch a height, that they deſpiſed all authority. They had lived in open rebellion for ſix months, when the Britiſh appeared before the place. This was the time to conciliate both parties, and to unite in the common cauſe. The ſoldiers made the firſt advances; but their commanders miſtruſted a generoſity of which they themſelves were incapable. They believed that the ſoldiers were only deſirous of ſallying out, that they might have an opportunity of deſerting; and their own officers kept them in a manner priſoners, till a defence ſo ill managed had reduced them to the neceſſity of capitulating. The whole iſland ſhared the fate of Louiſbourg, its only bulwark. This valuable poſſeſſion, reſtored to France by the treaty of Aix la Chapelle, was again attacked by the Britiſh in 1758. On the 2d June, a fleet of 23 ſhips of the line and 18 frigates carying 16,000 well deſciplined troops, anchored in Gabarus bay, within half a league of Louiſbourg. As it was evident it would be to no purpoſe to land at a great diſtance, becauſe it would be impoſſible to bring up the artillery and other neceſſaries for a conſiderable ſiege, it had been attempted to render the landing impracticable near the town. In the prudent precautions that had been taken, the beſiegers ſaw the dangers and difficulties they had to expect; but, far from being deterred by them, they had recourſe to ſtratagem, and while by extending their line they threatened and commanded the whole coaſt, they landed by force of arms at the creek of Cormorant. This place was naturally weak. The French had fortified it with a good parapet planted with cannon. Behind this rampart they had poſted 2000 excellent ſoldiers and ſome Indians. In front they had made a cloſe hedge with branches of trees, which would have been very difficult to penetrate, even if it had not been defended. This palliſade, which concealed all the preparations for defence, appeared at a diſtance to be nothing more than a verdant plain; and would have preſerved the colony, had the aſſailants been ſuffered to complete their landing, and to advance with the confidence that they had but few obſtacles to ſurmount. Had this been the caſe, overpowered at once by the fire of the artillery and the ſmall arms, they muſt infallibly have periſhed on the ſhore or in the hurry of re-embarking, eſpecially as the ſea was then very rough; which would have defeated the whole project. But all the prudent precautions that had been taken by the Freneh, were rendered abortive by their own impetuoſity. The Engliſh had ſcarce begun to move towards the ſhore, when their enemies, by their briſk and haſty fire at their boats, and ſtill more by the premature removal of the boughs that maſked the forces, (which they ought to have concealed,) led them to gueſs at the danger they were going to run into. They immediately turned back, and ſaw no other place to effect their landing but a rock, which had been always deemed inacceſſible. General Wolf, though much taken up in re-embarking his troops, and ſending off the boats, gave the ſignal to major Scott to repair thither. That officer immediately removed to the ſpot with his men. His own boat coming up firſt, and ſinking at the very inſtant he was ſtepping out, he climbed up the rock alone. He hoped to meet with 100 of his men, who had been ſent thither ſome time before. He found only ten. With theſe few, however, he gained the ſummit of the rock. Ten Indians and 60 Frenchmen killed two of his men, and mortally wounded three. In ſpite of his weakneſs, he ſtood his ground under cover of a thicket, till his brave country-men, regardleſs of the boiſterous waves and the fire of the cannon, came up to him, and put him in full poſſeſſion of that important poſt, the only one that could ſecure their landing. The French, as ſoon as they ſaw that the enemy had got a firm footing on land, betook themſelves to the only remaining refuge, and ſhut themſelves up in Louiſbourg. The fortifications were in a bad condition, becauſe the ſea ſand, which they had been obliged to uſe, is by no means fit for works of maſonry. The revetments of the ſeveral curtains were entirely crumbled away. There was only one caſemate and a ſmall magazine, that were

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bomb proof. The garriſon which was to defend the place conſiſted only of 2900 men. Notwithſtanding all theſe diſadvantages, the beſieged determined to make an obſtinate reſiſtance. They were confirmed in their reſolution by the courage of a woman. Madame de Drucourt was continually upon the ramparts, with her purſe in her hand; and firing herſelf three guns every day, ſeemed to diſpute with the governor, her huſband, the glory of his office. The beſieged were not diſmayed at the ill ſucceſs of their ſeveral ſallies, or the maſterly operations concerted by admiral Boſcawen and general Amherſt. It was but at the eve of an aſſault, which it was impoſſible to ſuſtain, that they talked of ſurrendering. They made an honourable capitulation; and the conqueror ſhowed the reſpect due to his brave enemies, and did not ſully his glory by any act of barbarity or avarice. The poſſeſſion was confirmed to Great Britain by the peace in 1763; ſince which, the fortifications have been blown up and the town of Louiſbourg diſmantled.

BRET'S-HALL, a village in Warwickſhire.

BRETTEL, N. of Sturbridge, Staffordſhire.

BRETTENHAM, two villages: 1. in Norfolkſhire, NE. of Thetford: 2. in Suffolk, NW. of Bilſton.

BRETTIGAW, a territory or valley of the Griſons, lying between the Rhine and the county of Tyrol, and along the river Lanquet. Caſtels is the principal town.

BRETTON, a town near Wakefield, Yorkſh.

BRETTON-HALL, NW. of Branſley, Yorkſh.

(1.) BREVE, in law, is any writ directed to the chancellor, judges, ſheriffs, or other officers, whereby a perſon is ſummoned, or attached, to anſwer in the king's court, &c. See § 4 and 5.

(2.) * BREVE. *n. ſ.* [In muſick.] A note or character of time, equivalent to two meaſures or minims. *Harris.*

(3.) BREVE, in muſic, is in the form of a diamond or ſquare, without any tail.

(4.) BREVE DE RECTO, is a writ of right or licence, for a perſon ejected, to ſue for the poſſeſſion of the eſtate detained from him.

(5.) BEREVE PERQUIRERE, the purchaſing of a writ or licence for trial in the king's courts; whence comes the preſent uſe of paying 6s. 8d. fine to the king in ſuit, for money due on bond, where the debt is L. 40, and 10s. where it is L. 100, &c.

BREVET, in the ci-devant French cuſtoms, denoted the grant of ſome favour or donation from the king; partly anſwering to our warrant, and partly to letters patent. It was particularly applied to the commiſſion of a ſubaltern officer, being only written on parchment, and without ſeal.

(1.) BREUGEL, John, commonly called *Velvet Breugel*, from his generally wearing velvet clothes, was the ſon of Peter Breugel (N° 2.) and born about 1575. He firſt applied himſelf to painting flowers and fruit, in which he excelled; and afterwards had great ſucceſs in drawing landſcapes, and views of the ſea, ſet off with ſmall figures.—He lived long at Cologn, where he acquired great reputation. He travelled to Italy, where his fame had got before him; and where his fine landſcapes, adorned with ſmall figures ſuperior to thoſe of his father, gave great ſatisfaction. As he left a great number of pictures behind him, all highly finiſhed, he muſt have been exceedingly induſtrious. Nor did he ſatisfy himſelf with embelliſhing his own works only, but was very uſeful in this reſpect to his friends. Even Reubens made uſe of Breugel's hand in the landſcape part of ſeveral of his ſmall pictures, ſuch as his Vertumnus and Pomona; the ſatyr viewing the ſleeping nymph; and the terreſtrial paradiſe, which is looked upon as his maſter-piece. He died in 1642. Several of his works are to be ſeen in the archbiſhop's gallery at Milan; and in the Ambroſian library there are 20 of his pieces.

(2.) BREUGEL, Peter, an eminent painter, was born at a village of the ſame name near Breda, in the year 1565; and was the firſt pupil of Peter Cock, whoſe daughter he married. It was cuſtomary with him to dreſs like a countryman, in order to be more eaſily admitted into the company of country people, and be allowed to join in their frolics, by which means he became perfectly acquainted with their manners and geſtures, of which he made excellent uſe in his pictures. He travelled to France and Italy, and ſtudied landſcapes on the mountains of Tyrol. His humorous turn of mind diſplayed itſelf in all his pictures, which generally conſiſted of country dances, marriages, ſports, and diverſions; though he ſometimes performed pieces from the hiſtorical parts of the Bible. At his return from Italy, he ſettled at Antwerp, and in his laſt illneſs cauſed his wife gather together all his immodeſt pieces and burn them before his face. Some of his works are in the poſſeſſion of the Emperor, the Grand duke of Tuſcany, and the Elector Palatine. He is alſo ſaid to have engraved ſome plates of landſcapes and groteſque ſubjects.

(3.) BREUGEL, Peter, the younger, was the ſon of Old Peter (N° 2.) and nicknamed *Helliſh Breugel*, from the horrible ſubjects he delighted to repreſent. He engraved alſo, according to M. Heineken; but his works are not ſpecified. He died 1642.

BREVIARIUM. See BREVIARY, § 2, and 3.

(1.) * BREVIARY. *n. ſ.* [*breviaire*, Fr. *breviarium*, Lat.] 1. An abridgment; epitome; a compendium.—Creſconius, an African biſhop, has given us an abridgment, or *breviary* thereof. *Ayliffe.* 2. The book containing the daily ſervice of the church of Rome.

(2.) BREVIARY, BREVIARIUM, in Roman antiquity, a book firſt introduced by Auguſtus, containing an account of the application of the public money.

(3.) BREVIARY, in the Romiſh church, is compoſed of matins, lauds, 1ſt, 3d, 6th, and 9th veſpers, and the compline or poſt communio. It is general, and may be uſed in all places; but on its model various others have been built, appropriated to dioceſes, and different orders of religious. The inſtitution of the breviary is not very ancient; there have been inſerted in it the lives of the ſaints, full of ridiculous ſtories, which gave occaſion to ſeveral reformations of it, by ſeveral councils, particularly thoſe of Trent and Cologn; by ſeveral popes, particularly Pius V. Clement VIII. and Urban VIII. and alſo by ſeveral cardinals and biſhops,

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biſhops, each lopping off ſome extravagancies, and bringing it much nearer to the ſimplicity of the primitive offices. Originally, every body was obliged to recite the breviary every day; but by degrees the obligation was reduced to the clergy only, who were enjoined under penalty of mortal ſin and eccleſiaſtical cenſures, to recite it at home, when they cannot attend in public. In the 14th century, there was particular reſerve granted in favour of biſhops, who were allowed on extraordinary occaſions, to paſs 3 days without rehearſing the breviary. This office was originally called CURSUS; and afterwards BREVIARIUM; which imports that the old office was abridged; or rather, that this collection is a kind of abridgment of all the prayers. The breviaries now in uſe are innumerable; the difference between them conſiſts principally in the number and order of pſalms, hymns, paternoſters, ave-Maries, creeds, magnificates, &c. &c.

(4.) BREVIARY of the Greeks is the ſame in almoſt all churches and monaſteries that follow the Greek rites: the Greeks divide the pſalter into 20 parts. In general, the Greek breviary conſiſts of two parts; the one containing the office for the evening, the other that of the morning, divided into matins, lauds, 1ſt, 3d, 6th, and 9th veſpers, and the compline; that is, of 7 different hours, on account of that ſaying of David, *Septies in die laudem dixi tibi.*

* BREVIAT. *n. ſ.* [from *brevis*, *brevio*, Lat.] A ſhort compendium.—It is obvious to the ſhalloweſt diſcourſer, that the whole counſel of God as far as it is incumbent for man to know, is compriſed in one *breviat* of evangelical truth. *Decay of Piety.*

BREVIATOR, an officer under the eaſtern empire, whoſe buſineſs it was to write and tranſlate briefs.—At Rome thoſe are ſtyled *breviators*, or ABBREVIATORS, who dictate and draw up the pope's briefs.

* BREVIATURE. *n. ſ.* [from *brevio*, Lat.] An abbreviation.

BREVIBUS A ROTULIS LIBERANDIS, a writ to a ſheriff to deliver to his ſucceſſor, the county, with the appurtenances, and the rolls, writs, and other things belonging to his office.

* BREVIER. *n. ſ.* A particular ſize of letter uſed in printing; ſo called, probably, from being originally uſed in printing a *breviary*; as,

Nor love thy life, nor hate, but what thou liv'ſt,
Live well, how long or ſhort, permit to heav'n.
Milton.

BREVILOQUENCE, *n. ſ.* a ſhort and apt way of ſpeaking. *Aſh.*

(1.) * BREVITY. *n. ſ.* [*brevitas*, Lat.] Conciſeneſs; ſhortneſs; contraction into few words.—Virgil, ſtudying *brevity*, and having the command of his own language, could bring thoſe words into a narrow compaſs, which a tranſlator cannot render without circumlocutions. *Dryden.*

(2.) BREVITY, is particularly uſed in ſpeaking of ſtyle or compoſition. It is by ſome called BRACHYLOGIA and BREVILOQUENCE; ſometimes LACONISMUS. Tacitus and Perſius are remarkable for the brevity of their ſtyle. There are two kinds of brevity, one ariſing from dryneſs, poverty, and narrowneſs of genius; the other from judgement and reflection; which latter alone is laudable. Brevity is ſo eſſential to a tale, a ſong, and an epigram, that without it they become dull.—Rhetoricians make brevity one of the principal marks or conditions of eloquence; but the rules they preſcribe for attaining it are difficult to apply, ſo as ſtill to keep the due medium between too much and too little. A juſt brevity is attained by uſing all the words which are neceſſary, and none but thoſe which are neceſſary. Sometimes it may alſo be had, by chooſing a word which has the force of ſeveral. It is this laſt kind which Quintillian admires ſo much in Salluſt; and the imitation of which, by other writers, has cauſed ſo much obſcurity.

BREVIUM CUSTOS. See CUSTOS.

BREVORDT, a town of Guelderland, in the United Netherlands, 24 miles SE. of Zutphen, Lon. 6. 35. E. Lat. 52. 5. N.

BREUSCH, a river of France in the department of the Lower Rhine, and ci-devant province of Alſace. It divides into 2 branches, one of which receives the Moſley, and by means of a canal, 4 m. long, made by Lewis XIV, runs into the Ill above Straſburg; the other runs through Straſburg and falls into the Ill below it.

* BREW. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] Manner of brewing; or thing brewed.—Trial would be made of the like *brew* with potatoe roots, or burr roots, or the pith of artichoakes, which are nouriſhing meats. *Bacon.*

(1.) * *To* BREW. *v. a.* [*brouwen*, Dutch; *brawen*, German; *briwan*, Saxon.] 1. To make liquors by mixing ſeveral ingredients.—We have drinks alſo *brewed* with ſeveral herbs, and roots, and ſpices. *Bacon.*—

Mercy guard me!
Hence with thy *brew'd* enchantments, foul deceiver. *Milton.*

2. To put into preparation.—Here's neither buſh nor ſhrub to bear off any weather at all, and another ſtorm *brewing*. *Shakeſpeare.* 3. To mingle.—Take away theſe chalices; go, *brew* me a pottle of ſack finely. *Shakeſpeare.* 4. Pope ſeems to uſe the word indeterminately.—

Or *brew* fierce tempeſts on the wat'ry main,
Or o'er the globe diſtil the kindly rain. *Pope.*

5. To contrive; to plot.—I found it to be the moſt malicious and frantic ſurmiſe, and the moſt contrary to his nature, that, I think, had ever been *brewed* from the beginning of the world, howſoever countenanced by a libellous pamphlet of a fugitive phyſician even in print. *Wotton.*

(2.) * *To* BREW. *v. n.* To perform the office of a brewer.—I keep his houſe, and waſh, wring, *brew*, bake, ſcour, dreſs meat, and make the beds, and do all myſelf. *Shakeſpeare.*

* BREWAGE. *n. ſ.* [from *brew.*] Mixture of various things.—

Go brew me a pottle of ſack finely.
———With eggs, ſir?——
—Simple of itſelf: I'll no pullet ſperm in my *brewage*. *Shakeſpeare.*

BREWARD, a village in Cornwall county, 3 miles SW. of Camelford.

(1.) BREWER, Anthony, a dramatic poet, who flouriſhed in the reign of king Charles I. and appears to have been held in high eſtimation by the

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wits of that time, as may he more particularly gathered from an elegant compliment paid to him in a poem called *Steps to Parnaſſus*, wherein he is ſuppoſed to have a magic power to call the Muſes to his aſſiſtance, and is even ſet on an equality with the immortal Shakeſpeare himſelf. There are, however, great diſputes as to the number of his works. Thoſe which have been aſcribed to him with any certianty are, 1. The country girl, a comedy. 2. The love-ſick king, a comedy. And, 3. *Lingua*: a piece in regard to which Winſtanley records a remarkable anecdote. He tells us, that, when this play was acted at Cambridge, Oliver Cromwell, then a youth, acted a part in it, and entered warmly into the ideal character. The ſubſtance of the piece is a contention among the Senſes for a crown, which Lingua had laid for them to find. The part allotted to young Cromwell, was that of *Tactus* or Touch; who having obtained the conteſted coronet, makes this ſpirited declamation:

Roſes and bays, pack hence; this crown and robe
My brows and body circles and inveſts:
How gallantly it fits me! ſure the ſlave
Meaſur'd my head who wrought this coronet.—
They lie, that ſay complexions cannot change!
My blood's ennobled, and I am transform'd
Unto the ſacred temper of a king.
Methinks I hear my noble paraſites
Styling me *Cæſar*, or Great *Alexander*,
Licking my feet, &c.

It is aſcribing too much, however, to ſuch a trifling circumſtance, to ſuppoſe, as ſome have done, that this ſpeech firſt fired Cromwell's ſoul with ambition, and excited him from the poſſeſſion of an imaginary crown to ſtretch his views to that of a real one. The fact is, Cromwell was naturally ambitious, and the confuſion of the times coucurred with his abilities to raiſe him to the protectorate.

(2.) * BREWER. *n. ſ.* [from *brew*.] A man whoſe profeſſion it is to make beer.—

When *brewers* marr their malt with water.
Shakeſpeare.

—Men every day eat and drink, though I think no man can demonſtrate out of Euclid or Apollonius, that his baker, or *brewer*, or cook, has not conveyed poiſon into his meat or drink. *Tillotſon.*

(3.) BREWERS. There are companies of brewers in moſt capital cities; that of London was incorporated in 1427 by Henry VI. and that of Paris was ſtill older. The brewers of Edinburgh, however, are not a corporation.

BREWERS-HAVEN, a good harbour at the N. end of the iſland of Chiloe, on the coaſt of Chili, in South America, lying in the South Sea. The Dutch landed forces here in 1643, deſigning, to get poſſeſſion of ſome part of Chili; but they were driven from thence by the Spaniards and the natives. Lon. 82. 0. W. Lat. 42. 0. S.

BREWER'S HILL, near Wincheſter, Hampſhire.

BREWERTON, N. of Litchfield, Staffordſhire.

(1.) * BREWHOUSE. *n. ſ.* [from *brew* and *houſe*.] A houſe appropriated to brewing.—In our *brewhouſes*, bakehouſes, and kitchens, are made divers drinks, breads, and meats. *Bacon.*

(2.) BREWHOUSE, APPARATUS AND UTENSILS OF A. Theſe are, a furnace made cloſe and hollow for ſaving fuel, and for diſcharging the ſmoke left it taint the liquor; a copper; a maſh-vat near the head; a cooler near the maſh-vat; and a guile-vat under the cooler. Adjoining to theſe, ſeveral clean tubs, to receive the worts and liquor, are required.

(1.) * BREWING *n. ſ.* [from *brew*.] Quantity of liquor brewed at once.—A *brewing* of new beer, ſet by old beer, maketh it work again. *Bacon.*

(2.) BREWING, the operation of preparing ale or beer from MALT. Though this art is a part of chemiſtry, and certainly depends on fixed and invariable principles, as well as every other branch of that ſcience, theſe principles have never yet been thoroughly inveſtigated. For want of a ſettled theory, therefore, the practice of this art is found to ſucceed with ſome, whilſt with others it is unſucceſsful. Some few hints, however, to eſtabliſh a regular theory of brewing, we ſhall here detail for the information of thoſe who are unacquainted with the ſubject.

(3.) BREWING, COMMON PROCESS OF. The uſual proceſs of brewing is as follows: A quantity of water being boiled, is left to cool till the height of the ſteam be over; when ſo much is poured to a quantity of malt in the maſhing-tub, as makes it of a conſiſtence ſtiff enough to be juſt well rowed up. After ſtanding thus for a quarter of an hour, a ſecond quantity of water is added, and rowed up as before. Laſtly, the full quantity of water is added; and that in proportion as the liquor is intended to be ſtrong or weak.—This part of the operation is called *maſhing*.—The whole now ſtands 2 or 3 hours, more or leſs, according to the ſtrength of the wort or the difference of the weather, and is then drawn off into a receiver; and the maſhing repeated for a ſecond wort, in the ſame manner as for the firſt, only the water muſt be cooler than before, and muſt not ſtand above half the time. The two worts are then to be mixed, the intended quantity of hops added, and the liquor cloſe covered up, and gently boiled in a copper for the ſpace of an hour or two; then let into the receiver, and the hops ſtrained from it into the coolers. When cool, the barm or yeaſt is applied; and it is left to work or ferment till it be fit to turn up. For ſmall beer there is a third maſhing with the water nearly cold, and not left to ſtand above three quarters of an hour; to be then hopped and boiled at diſcretion. For double beer or ale, the liquors reſulting from the two firſt maſhings muſt be uſed as liquor for a third maſhing of freſh malt. From conſidering this proceſs, and the multiplicity of circumſtances to be attended to in it, we cannot but ſee that it muſt be a very precarious one. The ſucceſs of the operation, *i. e.* the goodneſs of the beer, muſt depend upon the quality of the malt from which it is made; on that of the water with which it is infuſed; on the degree of heat applied in the infuſion; on the length of the time the infuſion is continued; on the proper degree of boiling;

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fng; on the quantity and quality of the hops employed; on the proper degree of fermentation, &c. all which, have never yet been thoroughly aſcertained.

(4.) BREWING, METHOD OF MAKING MALT FOR. "The proceſs of making malt (ſays Mr Richardſon in his *Theoretic hints on Brewing*, &c.) is an artificial or forced vegetation, in which the nearer we approach the footſteps of nature in her ordinary progreſs, the more certainly ſhall we arrive at that perfection of which the ſubject is capable. The farmer prefers a dry ſeaſon to ſow his corn in, that the common moiſture of the earth may but gently inſinuate itſelf into the pores of the grain, and thence gradually diſpoſe it for the reception of the future ſhower, and the action of vegetation. The maltſter cannot proceed by ſuch ſlow degrees, but makes an immerſion in water a ſubſtitute for the moiſture of the earth, where a few hours infuſion is equal to many days employed in the ordinary courſe of vegetation; and the corn is accordingly removed as ſoon as it appears fully ſaturated, leſt a ſolution, and conſequently a deſtruction of ſome of its parts, ſhould be the effect of a longer continuance in water, inſtead of that ſeparation which is begun by this introduction of aqueous particles into the body of the grain. Were it to be ſpread thin after this removal, it would become dry, and no vegetation would enſue; but being thrown into the couch, a kind of vegetative fermentation commences, which generates heat, and produces the firſt appearance of germination. This ſtate of the barley is nearly the ſame with that of many days continuance in the earth after ſowing: but being in ſo large a body, it requires occaſionally to be turned over and ſpread thinner; the former, to give the outward parts of the heap their ſhare of the required warmth and moiſture, both of which are leſſened by expoſure to the air; the latter, to prevent the progreſs of the vegetative to the putrefactive fermentation, which would be the conſequence of ſuffering it to proceed beyond a certain degree. To ſupply the moiſture thus continually decreaſing by evaporation and conſumption, an occaſional but ſparing ſprinkling of water ſhould be given to the floor, to recruit the languiſhing powers of vegetation, and imitate the ſhower upon the corn field. But this ſhould not be too often repeated; for, as in the field, too much rain, and too little ſun, produce rank ſtems and thin ears, ſo here would too much water, and of courſe too little dry warmth, accelerate the growth of the malt, ſo as to occaſion the extraction and loſs of ſuch of its valuable parts, as by a ſlower proceſs would have been duly ſeparated, and left behind. By the ſlow mode of conducting vegetation, here recommended, an actual and minute ſeparation of the parts takes place. The germination of the radicles and acroſpire carries off the coheſive properties of the barley, thereby contributing to the ſeparation of the ſaccharine matter, which it has no tendency to extract or otherwiſe injure, but to increaſe and meliorate, ſo long as the acroſpire is confined within the huſk; and by how much it is wanting to the end of the grain, by ſo much does the malt fall ſhort of perfection; and in proportion as it has advanced beyond, is that purpoſe defeated. This is very evident to the moſt common obſervation, on examining a kernal of malt in the different ſtages of its progreſs. When the acroſpire has ſhot but half the length of the grain, the lower part only is converted into that yellow ſaccharine flower we are ſolicitous about, whilſt the other half affords no other ſigns of it than the whole kernal did at its firſt germination. Let it advance to two thirds of the length, and the lower end will not only have increaſed its ſaccharine flavour, but will have proportionally extended its bulk, ſo as to have left only a third part unmalted. This, or even leſs than this, is contended for by many maltſters, as a ſufficient advance of the acroſpire, which they ſay has done its buſineſs as ſoon as it has paſſed the middle of the kernel. But we need ſeek no farther for their conviction of error, than the examination here alluded to. Let the kernel be ſlit down the middle, and taſted at either end, when green; or let the effects of maſtication be tried when it is dried off; when the former will be found to exhibit the appearances juſt mentioned, the latter to diſcover the unwrought parts of the grain, in a body of ſtony hardneſs, which has no other effect in the maſh-tub than that of imbibing a large portion of the liquor, and contributing to the retention of thoſe ſaccharine parts of the malt which are in contact with it; whence it is a rational inference, that three buſhels of malt, imperfect in this proportion, are but equal to two of that which is carried to its utmoſt perfection. By this is meant the fartheſt advance of the acroſpire, when it is juſt burſting from its confinement, before it has effected its enlargement. The kernel is then uniform in its internal appearance, and of a rich ſweetneſs in flavour, equal to any thing we can conceive obtainable from imperfect vegetation. If the acroſpire be ſuffered to proceed, the mealy ſubſtance melts into a liquid ſweet, which ſoon paſſes into the blade, and leaves the huſk entirely exhauſted. The ſweet thus produced by the infant efforts of vegetation, and loſt by its more powerful action, revives, and makes a ſecond appearance in the ſtem, but is then too much diſperſed and altered in its form to anſwer any of the purpoſes of art. Were we to inquire, by what means the ſame barley, with the ſame treatment, produces unequal portions of the ſaccharine matter in different ſituations, we ſhould perhaps find it principally owing to the different qualities of the water uſed in malting. Hard water is very unfit for every purpoſe of vegetation, and ſoft will vary its effects according to the predominating qualities of its impregnations. Pure elementary water is in itſelf ſuppoſed to be only the vehicle of the nutriment of plants, entering at the capillary tubes of the roots, riſing into the body, and there diſperſing its acquired virtues, perſpiring at innumerable fine pores at the ſurface, and thence evaporating, by the pureſt diſtillation, into the open atmoſphere, where it begins anew its round of collecting freſh properties, in order to its preparation for freſh ſervice. This theory leads us to the conſideration of an attempt to increaſe the natural quantity of the ſaccharum of malt by adventitious means; but it muſt be obſerved on this occaſion, that

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that no addition of water will riſe into the veſſels of plants, but ſuch as will paſs the filter; the pores of which appearing ſomewhat ſimilar to the fine ſtrainers or abſorbing veſſels employed by nature in her nicer operations, we, by analogy, conclude, that properties ſo intimately blended with water as to paſs the one, will enter and unite with the economy of the other, and *vice verſa*. Suppoſing the malt to have obtained its utmoſt perfection, according to the criterion here inculcated; to prevent its farther progreſs, and ſecure it in that ſtate, we are to call in the aſſiſtance of a heat ſufficient to deſtroy the action of vegetation, by evaporating every particle of water, and thence leaving it in a ſtate of preſervation, fit for the preſent or future purpoſe of the brewer. Thus having all its moiſture extracted, and being by the previous proceſs deprived of its coheſive property, the body of the grain is left a mere lump of flour, ſo eaſily diviſible, that the huſk being taken off, a mark may be made with the kernel, as with a piece of ſoft chalk. The extractible qualities of this flour are, a ſaccharum cloſely united with a large quantity of the farinaceous mucilage peculiar to bread-corn, and a ſmall portion of oil, enveloped by a fine earthy ſubſtance, the whole readily yielding to the impreſſion of water applied at different times and different degrees of heat, and each part predominating in proportion to the time and manner of its application. In the curing of malt, as nothing more is requiſite than a total extrication of every aqueous particle; if we had in the ſeaſon proper for malting, a ſolar heat ſufficient to produce perfect dryneſs, it were practicable to reduce beers nearly colourleſs; but that being wanting, and the force of cuſtom having made it neceſſary to give our beers various tinctures and qualities reſulting from fire, for the accommodation of various taſtes, we are neceſſitated to apply ſuch heats in the drying as ſhall not only anſwer the purpoſe of preſervation, but give the complexion and property required. To effect this with certainty and preciſion, the introduction of the thermometer is neceſſary; but the real advantages of its application are only to be known by experiment, on account of the different conſtruction of different kilns, the irregularity of the heat in different parts of the ſame kiln, the depth of the malt, the diſtance of the bulb of the thermometer from the floor, &c. &c. for though ſimilar heats will produce ſimilar effects in the ſame ſituation, yet is the diſperſion of heat in every kiln ſo irregular, that the medium ſpot muſt be found for the local ſituation of the thermometer, ere a ſtandard can be fixed for aſcertaining effects upon the whole. That done, the ſeveral degrees neceſſary for the purpoſes of porter, amber, pale beers, &c. are eaſily diſcovered to the utmoſt exactneſs, and become the certain rule of future practice. Though cuſtom has laid this arbitrary injunction of variety in our malt liquors, it may not be amiſs to imitate the loſſes we often ſuſtain, and the inconveniences we combat, in obedience to her mandate. The further we purſue the deeper tints of colour by an increaſe of heat beyond that which ſimple preſervation requires, the more we injure the valuable qualities of the malt. It is well known that ſcorched oils turn black, and that calcined ſugar aſſumes the ſame complexion. Similar effects are producible in malts, in proportion to the increaſe of heat, or the time of their continuing expoſed to it. The parts of the whole being ſo united by nature, an injury cannot be done to the one, without affecting the other; accordingly we find, that ſuch parts of the ſubject, as might have been ſeverally extracted for the purpoſes of a more intimate union by fermentation, are, by great heat in curing, burnt and blended ſo effectually together, that all diſcrimination is loſt; the unfermentable is extracted with the fermentable, the integrant with the conſtituent, to a very great loſs both of ſpirituoſity and tranſparency. In paler malts, the extracting liquor produces a ſeparation which cannot be effected in brown, where the parts are ſo incorporated, that unleſs the brewer is very well acquainted with their ſeveral qualities and attachments, he will bring over, with the burnt mixture of ſaccharine and mucilaginous principles, ſuch an abundance of the ſcorched oils, as no fermentation can attenuate, no precipitants remove; for being in themſelves impediments to the action of fermentation, they leſſen its efficacy; and being of the ſame ſpecific gravity with the beer, they remain ſuſpended in, and incorporated with the body of it, an offence to the eye, and a naufea to the palate, to the lateſt period."—From this account it is evident that the drying of malt is an article of the utmoſt conſequence. Concerning the proper degrees of heat to be employed for this purpoſe, M. Combrune has related ſome experiments made in an earthen pan, of about two feet diameter, and three inches deep, in which was put as much of the paleſt malts, very unequally grown, as filled it on a level to the brim. This being placed over a little charcoal in a ſmall ſtove, and kept conſtantly ſtirred from bottom to top, exhibited different changes, according to the degree of heat employed. On the whole he concludes, that "true germinated malts are charred in heats between 175 and 180 degrees; and that, as theſe correſpond to the degrees in which pure alcohol, or the fineſt ſpirit of the grain itſelf boils, or diſengages itſelf therefrom, they may point out to us the reaſon of barley being the fitteſt grain for the purpoſes of brewing." From theſe experiments, he has alſo conſtructed a kind of table of the different degrees of the dryneſs of malt, with the colour occaſioned by the difference of heat. Thus malt expoſed to 119 deg. is white; to 124, cream colour; 129, light yellow; 134, amber colour; 138, high amber; 143, pale brown; 148, brown; 152, high brown; 157, brown inclining to black; 162, high brown ſpeckled with black; 167, blackiſh brown with black ſpecks; 171, colour of burnt coffee; 176, black. This not only ſhews us how to judge of the dryneſs of malt from its colour, but alſo, when a griſt is compoſed of ſeveral ſorts of malt, what effect the whole will have when blended together by extraction. Experience proves, that the leſs heat we employ in drying malt, the ſhorter time will be required before the beer which is brewed from it is fit to be uſed; and of this M. Combrune has given the following table:

Deg.

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Deg.	Deg.	Deg.
119 2 weeks.	138 6 months.	152 15 months.
124 1 month.	143 6 months.	157 20 months.
129 3 months.	148 10 months.	162 2 years.
135 4 months.		

He has also given a table, which shews the comparative tendency beers have to become fine, when properly brewed from malts of different degrees of dryness.

(5.) BREWING, QUALITY OF WATER FIT FOR. The next consideration in brewing is the *quality of the water* to be employed; and here soft water is universally allowed to be preferable to hard, both for the purposes of mashing and fermentation. Transparency is however more easily obtained by the use of hard than soft water; first, from its inaptitude to extract such an abundance of that light mucilaginous matter, which, floating in the beer for a long time, occasions it to be turbid; 2dly, from its greater tendency to a state of quietude after the vinous fermentation is finished, by which those floating particles are more disposed to subside; and, lastly, from the mutual aggregations of the earthy particles of the water with those of the materials, which, by their great specific gravity thus aggregated, not only precipitate themselves, but carry down also that lighter mucilage just mentioned. For these reasons, hard water is not well adapted to the brewing of porter, to such beers as require a fulness of palate as in the London brewery, and some country situations. The purity of water is determined by its lightness; and in this respect, distilled water only can claim any material degree of perfection. Rain water is the purest of all naturally produced: but having once descended to the surface of the earth, it is liable to a variety of intermixtures unfavourable to the purposes of brewing. With regard to others, though a matter of considerable importance, no precise rule can be laid down. Where there is liberty of choice, a preference should doubtless be given to that water which, from natural purity, equally free from the austetity of saline substances and the rankness of vegetable putrefaction, has a soft fulness upon the palate, is totally flavourless, inodorous, and colourless; whence it is the better prepared for the reception and retention of such qualities as the process of brewing is to communicate.

(6.) BREWING, QUANTITY OF HEAT REQUISITE FOR. The next thing to be considered is the proper *degree of heat* to be employed in making the infusion: and here it is evident, that though this must be very material to the success of the operation, it is extremely difficult, perhaps impossible, to fix upon a precise standard that shall at all times fully answer the purpose. On this subject Mr Richardson says: "The quality of the saccharine part of malt resembles that of common sugar, to which it is practicable to reduce it; and its characteristical properties are entirely owing to its intimate connection with the other parts of the malt, from which such distinguishing flavours of beers are derived as are not the immediate result of the hop. Were it not for these properties, the brewer might adopt the use of sugar, molasses, honey, or the sweet of any vegetable, to equal advantage: which cannot now be done, unless an eligible succedaneum be found to answer that purpose. As we are at present circumstanced, a search on the other side would turn more to the brewer's account. We have in malt a superabundance of the grosser principles; and would government permit the introduction of a foreign addition to the saccharine, which is too deficient, many valuable improvements might be made from it; as we could, by a judicious application of such adventitious principle, produce a 2d and 3d wort, of quality very little inferior to the first. But in these experiments a very particular attention would be necessary to the solvent powers of the water at different degrees of heat, and to the inquiry how far a menstruum saturated with one principal may be capable of dissolving another. Such a consideration is the more necessary on this occasion to direct us clear of two extremes equally disagreeable; the first is, that of applying the menstruum pure, and at such a heat as to bring off an over proportion of the oleaginous and earthy principles, which would occasion in the beer, thus wanting its natural share of saccharum, a harshness and austerity which scarce any time the brewer could allow would be able to dissipate; the other is, that of previously loading the menstruum with the adopted sweet in such abundance as to destroy its solvent force upon the characteristical qualities we wish to unite with it, and thereby leave it a mere solution of sugar. The requisite mean is that of considering what portion of the saccharine quality has been extracted in the first wort, according to the quality of water, and degree of heat applied; and then to make such a previous addition of artificial sweet as will just serve to counterbalance the deficiency, and assimilate with that portion of the remaining principles we are taught to expect will be extracted with the succeeding wort. From the nature of the constituent principles of malt, it is easy to conceive, that the former, or saccharine or mucilaginous parts, yield most readily to the impression of water, and that at so low a degree of heat as would have no visible effect upon the latter, If therefore we are to have a certain proportion of every part, it is a rational inference, that the means of obtaining it rest in a judicious variation of the extracting heat according to the several proportions required. A low degree of heat, acting principally upon the saccharum, produces a wort replete with a rich soft sweet, fully impregnated with its attendant mucilage, and in quantity much exceeding that obtainable from increased heat; which, by its more powerful infinuation into the body of the malt acting upon all the parts together, extracts a considerable portion of the oleaginous and earthy principles, but falls short in softness, fulness, sweetness, and quantity. This is occasioned by the coagulating property of the mucilage, which, partaking of the nature of flour, has a tendency to run into paste in proportion to the increase of heat applied; by which means it not only locks up a considerable part of the saccharum contained therein, but retains with it a proportionate quantity of the extracting liquor, which would otherwise have drawn out of the imprisoned sweet, thence lessening both the quantity and quality of the worts. And this has sometimes

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times been known to have had ſo powerful an effect, as to have occaſioned the *ſetting of the gods*, or the uniting the whole into a paſty maſs; for though heat increaſes the ſolvent powers of water in moſt inſtances, there are ſome in which it totally deſtroys them. Such is the preſence of flour, which it converts into paſte; beſides thoſe of blood, eggs, and ſome other animal ſubſtances, which it invariably tends to harden. From a knowledge of theſe effects, we form our ideas of the variations neceſſary in the heat of the extracting liquor; which are of more extenſive utility than has yet been intimated, though exceedingly limited in their extent from one extreme to the other. The moſt common effects of too low a heat, beſides ſometimes producing immediate acidity, are an inſipidity of the flavour of the beer, and a want of early tranſparency, from the ſuperabundance of mucilaginous matter extracted by ſuch heats, which, after the utmoſt efforts of fermentation, will leave the beer turbid with ſuch a cloud of its lighter fæculencies as will require the ſeparation and precipitation of many months to diſperſe. The contrary application of too much heat, at the ſame time that it leſſens the mucilage, has, as we have ſeen before, the effect of diminiſhing the ſaccharum alſo; whence that lean thin quality obſervable in ſome beers; and, by extracting an over proportion of oleaginous and earthy particles, renders the buſineſs of fermentation difficult and precarious, and impreſſes an auſterity on the flavour of the liquor which will not eaſily be effaced. Yet the true medium heat for each extract cannot be univerſally aſcertained. An attention not only to the quality of the malt, but to the quantity wetted, is abſolutely neceſſary to the obtaining every due advantage; nor muſt the period at which the beer is intended for uſe be omitted in the account. The quality of the water alſo claims a ſhare in the conſideration, in order to ſupply that deficient thinneſs and want of ſolvent force in hard, and to allow for the natural fulneſs and fermentative quality of ſoft—a particular to which London in a great meaſure owes the peculiar mucilaginous and nutricious quality of its malt liquors. Although the variations above alluded to are indiſpenſable, it is eaſy to conceive, from the ſmall extent of the utmoſt variety, that they cannot be far diſtant. If therefore we know that a certain degree extracts the firſt principles in a certain proportion, we need not much conſideration to fix upon another degree that ſhall produce the required proportion of the remaining qualities, and effect that equal diſtribution of parts in the extract which it is the buſineſs of fermentation to form into a conſiſtent whole."

(7.) BREWING, USE OF BOILING THE WORTS, &c. IN. The principal uſe of *boiling the worts* is to ſeparate the groſſer parts of the extract, preparatory to that more minute ſeparation which is to be effected in the gnile tun. The eye is a very competent judge of this effect; for the concretions into which the continued action of boiling forms thoſe parts are obvious to the ſlighteſt inſpection, whilſt the perfect tranſparency of the interſtices of the worts points out its utility in promoting that deſirable quality in the beer. Theſe coagulable parts are formed from the ſuperabundant mucilage already mentioned: and hence they are found in a greater proportion in the firſt worts than in thoſe that come after; at the ſame time, they are in theſe laſt ſo mingled with a quantity of oleaginous matter, that they become much more difficultly coagulable in the weak worts than in ſuch as are ſtronger; and hence theſe require to be much longer boild than the others. During this operation the *hops* are generally added, which are abſolutely neceſſary to prevent the too great tendency of beer to acidity. The fine eſſential oil of hops being moſt volatile, and ſooneſt extracted, we are thence taught the advantage of boiling the firſt wort no longer than is ſufficient to form the extract, without expoſing it to the action of the fire ſo long as to diſſipate the finer parts of this moſt valuable principle, and defeat the purpoſes of it. To the ſubſequent worts we can afford a larger allowance, and purſue the means of preſervation ſo long as we can keep in view thoſe of flavour; to which no rules can poſitively direct, the proceſs varying with every variety of beer, and differing as eſſentially in the production of porter and pale ale, as the modes of producing wine and vinegar. The effects of not allowing a ſufficient time for the due ſeparation of the parts of the wort, and extraction of the requiſite qualities of the hop, muſt be obvious. If we proceed to the other extreme, we have every thing to apprehend from the introduction of too large a quantity of the groſſer principles of the hop, which are very inimical to fermentation; and from impairing the fermentative quality of the worts themſelves, by ſuffering their too long expoſure to the action of the fire, whereby they are reduced to a more denſe conſiſtence, and their parts too intimately blended to yield the ſeparating force of fermentation. The laſt ſtep in the proceſs of brewing is to *ferment the liquor* properly; for if this is not done, whatever care and pains have been taken in the other parts, they will be found altogether inſufficient to produce the beverage we deſire. The firſt thing to be done here is to procure a proper ferment. There are only two kinds of artificial ferments procurable in large quantity, and at a low price, viz. beer-yeſt, and wine-lees. Brewers have found it a conſiderable difficulty to procure theſe ferments in ſufficient quantities, and preſerve them conſtantly ready for uſe; and this has been ſo great a diſcouragement to the buſineſs, that ſome have endeavoured to produce other ferments, or to form mixtures or compounds of particular fermentable ingredients. See BAKING, § 2. BARM, § 2. and YEST. The greateſt circumſpection is neceſſary in regard to the quality of the ferment. It muſt be choſen perfectly ſweet and freſh; for all ferments are liable to grow muſty. If the ferment is ſour, it muſt by no means be uſed for any liquor; for it will communicate its flavour to the whole, and give it an *acetous*, inſtead of a vinous tendency. When the proper quantity is got ready, it muſt be put to the liquor in a ſtate barely tepid. The whole intended quantity being looſely mixed in ſome of the luke-warm liquor, and kept covered, and in a warm ſituation, more of the inſenſibly warm liquor ought, at proper intervals, to be added, till by degrees the whole quantity is put together. When the whole

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whole is thus ſet at work, ſecured in a proper degree of warmth, and kept from a too free intercourſe with the external air, it becomes as it were the buſineſs of nature to finiſh the proceſs. In the operation of fermentation, however, the degree of heat employed is of the utmoſt conſequence. In forming the extracts of the malt, the variation of a few degrees of heat produces an important difference in the effect. In the heat of fermentation, ſimilar conſequences are the reſult. Under a certain regulation of the proceſs, we can retain in the beer the finer mucilage, and thereby preſerve that fulneſs upon the palate which is by many ſo much admired. On the other hand, by a ſlight alteration, we can throw it off, and produce that evenneſs and uniformity of flavour which has ſcarce any characteriſtical property, and is preferred by ſome only for want of that heavineſs which they complain of in full beers. If a more vinous racy ale be required, we can, by collecting and confining the operation within the body of the wort, cauſe the operation of ſuch an abundant portion of the oleaginous principle, as to produce a liquor in a perfect ſtate at the earlieſt period and ſo highly flavoured as to create a ſuſpicion of an adventitious mixture. But though all this may be done, and often has been done, the proper management of fermenting liquors depends ſo much upon a multiplicity of ſlight and ſeemingly unimportant circumſtances, that it has never yet been laid down in an intelligible manner; and no rules, drawn from any thing hitherto publiſhed on the ſubject of brewing, can be rendered at all ſufficient to direct any perſon in this matter, unleſs he has had conſiderable opportunities of obſerving the practice in a brewhouſe.

* BREWIS. *n. ſ.* 1. A piece of bread ſoaked in boiling fat pottage, made of ſalted meat. 2. It ſeems anciently to have meant broth.—What an ocean of *brewis* ſhall I ſwim in? *Beaumont and Fletcher's Diocleſian.*

BREWOOD, a neat town, 10 miles S. by W. of Stafford, and 129 of London. It has a fair Sept. 19, and a market on Tueſday.

BREY, a town of Germany on the frontiers of Brabant, now included in one of the new departments of France. It is ſeated on a rivulet, 14 m. N. of Maeſtricht. Lon. 5. 39. E. Lat. 51. 4. N.

To BREYDE, *v. n. obſ.* To ſtart. *Chauc.*

BREYNAND, a river in Pembrokeſhire.

BREYNIA, in botany, a ſynonime of the capparis. See CAPPARIS.

BRIACHLISH, an anicent pariſh in Inverneſsſhire, annexed to that of PETTY.

BRIAL POINT, a town in Down, Ireland.

To BRIAN, *v. a.* To keep fire in an oven.

BRIANCON, a town of France in the department of Upper Alps, and ci-devant province of Dauphiny. It has a fine bridge over the Durance, 180 feet high, and a ſtrong caſtle on a ſteep rock. It lies 17 miles NW. of Embrun, and 45 E. of Grenoble. Lon. 6. 25. E. Lat. 44. 45. N.

BRIANCONNOIS, a ci-devant territory of France, in Dauphiny, which was bounded by Grenoblois, Gapenzois, Ambrunois, Piedmont, and Savoy. It comprehends ſeveral valleys, which lie among the mountains of the Alps; and though it is extremely cold, yet it is fertile in corn and paſtures. The inhabitants have a great deal of wood; yet they chooſe to be in the ſtables with their cattle ſix months in the year, to keep themſelves warm. Briancon is the capital town. Manna is gathered near it, on the leaves and branches of a ſpecies of pine, which, when inciſions are made in it, affords great quantities. The chief road from France to Italy paſſes through it. It is now comprehended in the department of UPPER ALPS.

BRIANSCOMBE, a village in Dorſetſhire, 2 miles E. of Corſe-Caſtle.

BRIAN'S-FORD, in Down county, Ireland.

BRIAN'S-PIDDLE, near Affpiddle, Dorſetſh.

BRIANSTON, near Blandford, Dorſetſhire.

* BRIAR. *n. ſ.* See BRIER.

BRIARACHAN, a river in Perthſhire, in the diſtrict of Strathardle.

BRIARE, a town of France, in the department of Loiret and late province of Orleans, ſeated on the Loire. It has a long ſtreet full of inns and farriers, being on the great road to Lyons; and a canal, which is 33 miles in length, and connects the Loire and the Seine; whereby a communication is kept open between Paris and the Atlantic, through a long extent of the interior of France. It is 35 miles SE. of Orleans, and 88 S. of Paris. Lon. 2. 47. E. Lat. 47. 40. N.

BRIAREUS, in fabulous hiſtory, a giant, the ſon of Æther, Titan, or Cœlus, and Terra. This was his name in heaven; on earth he was called ÆGEON. He was of ſingular ſervice to Jupiter, when Juno, Pallas, Neptune, and the reſt of the gods, endeavoured to bind him in chains and dethrone him. Afterwards, however, he conſpired with the reſt of his gigantic brethren to dethrone Jupiter. Virgil, on this occaſion, deſcribes him as having 100 hands, 50 heads, and breathing out fire. The fable ſays, that Jupiter, to puniſh him, threw him under mount Ætna, which, as often as he moves, belches out fire.

BRIAVAL'S, ST, a village in Glouceſterſhire, 4 miles from Colford.

(1.) * BRIBE. *n. ſ.* [*Bribe*, in French, originally ſignifies a piece of bread, and is applied to any piece taken from the reſt; it is therefore likely, that a *bribe* originally ſignified, among us, a ſhare of any thing unjuſtly got.] A reward given to pervert the judgment or corrupt the conduct.—

You have condemn'd and noted Lucius Pella,
For taking *bribes* here of the Sardians. *Shakeſp.*

Nor leſs my Jupiter to gold aſcribe,
When he turn'd himſelf into a *bribe*. *Waller.*

—If a man be covetous, profits or *bribes* may put him to the teſt.—

There's joy when to wild will you laws preſcribe,
When you bid fortune carry back her *bribe*.
Dryden.

(2.) BRIBE anciently imported as much as *panis mendicatus*, which ſtill keeps up the idea of the matter whereof bribes anciently conſiſted. Hence alſo the Spaniards uſe *bribar* and *bribur* for *begging*; and *briva*, *brivoneria* and *brivoniſſimo*, for *beggary*. In authors of the middle age, a bribe given a judge is called *quato litis*, and the receiver, *campi particeps*, or *cambi particeps*; becauſe the ſpoils of the field, i. e. the profits of the cauſe, were thus ſhared with the giver.

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* *To* BRIBE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To gain by bribes; to give bribes, rewards, or hire, to bad purpoſes.—

The great, 'tis true, can ſtill th' electing tribe,
The bard may ſupplicate, but cannot *brib*e.
Prologue to Good-natur'd Man.

2. It is ſeldom, and not properly, uſed in a good ſenſe.—

How pow'rful are chaſte vows! the wind and tide
You *brib'd* to combat on the Engliſh ſide. *Dryd.*

* BRIBER. *n. ſ.* [from *bribe*.] One that pays for corrupt practices.—Affection is ſtill a *briber* of judgment; and it is hard for a man to admit a reaſon againſt the thing he loves; or to confeſs the force of an argument againſt an intereſt. *South.*

(1.) * BRIBERY. *n. ſ.* [from *bribe*.] The crime of taking or giving rewards for bad practices.—There was a law made by the Romans, againſt the *bribery* and extortion of the governours of provinces: before, ſays Cicero, the governours did bribe and extort as much as was ſufficient for themſelves; but now they bribe and extort as much as may be enough not only for themſelves, but for judges, jurors, and magiſtrates. *Bacon.*—No *bribery* of courts, or cabals or factions, or advantages of fortune, can remove him from the ſolid foundations of honour and fidelity. *Dryden.*

(2.) BRIBERY, in law, is a high offence, where a perſon in a judicial place takes any fee, gift, reward, or brokage, for doing his office, but of the king only. It ſignifies alſo the receiving or offering any undue reward to or by any perſon concerned in the adminiſtration of public juſtice, whether judge, officer, &c. to act contrary to his duty; and ſometimes it ſignifies the taking or giving a reward for a public office.—In the eaſt it is the cuſtom never to petition any ſuperior for juſtice, not excepting their kings, without a preſent. This is calculated for the genius of deſpotic countries; where the true principles of government are never underſtood, and where it is thought, that there is no obligation due from the ſuperior to the inferior, no relative duty owing from the governor to the governed. The Roman law, though it contained many ſevere injunctions againſt bribery, as well for ſelling a man's vote in the ſenate or other public aſſembly, as for the bettering of common juſtice; yet, by a ſtrange indulgence, it tacitly encouraged this practice, in one caſe; allowing magiſtrates to receive ſmall preſents, provided they did not on the whole exceed 100 crowns a-year; not conſidering the inſinuating nature and gigantic progreſs of this vice, when once admitted. Plato, therefore, in his ideal republic, orders thoſe who take preſents for doing their duty to be puniſhed in the ſevereſt manner: and by the laws of Athens, he that offered a bribe was alſo proſecuted, as well as he that received a bribe. In England this offence is puniſhed, in inferior officers, with fine and impriſonment; and in thoſe that offer a bribe, though not taken, the ſame. But in judges, eſpecially the ſuperior ones, it has always been looked upon as ſo heinous an offence, that the chief juſtice Thrope was hanged for it in the reign of Edward III. By a ſtatute, 11 Henry IV. all judges and officers of the king, convicted of bribery, ſhall forfeit treble the bribe, be puniſhed at the king's will, and be diſcharged from his ſervice for ever. And ſome notable examples have been made in parliament, of perſons in the higheſt ſtations, and otherwiſe very eminent and able, but contaminated with this ſordid vice. Thus in the reign of king James I. the earl of M. lord treaſurer of England, being impeached by the commons, for refuſing to hear petitions referred to him by the king, till he had received bribes, &c. was, by ſentence of the lords, deprived of all his offices, and diſabled to hold any, or to ſit in parliament; he was alſo fined 50,000l. and impriſoned during the king's pleaſure. In the 11th of king George I. the lord chancellor M—— was impeached by the commons for bribery, in ſelling the places of maſters in chancery, for exorbitant ſums, and other corrupt practices, tending to the great loſs of the ſuitors of that court; and the charge being made good, he was ſentenced to pay a fine of 30,000l. and to be impriſoned till it was paid. It is ſaid that one of the peers, if not two, who voted againſt him, had been poſſeſſed of the office of chancellor, and ſold the places of maſters in chancery when vacant.

(3.) BRIBERY IN ELECTIONS. See ELECTIONS.

BRIBOR, or } *n. ſ.* in law, a thief; one who
BRIBOUR, } pilfers another man's goods.

BRICHENDEN, a village near Hertford.

BRICIANI, a military order, inſtituted by St Bridget, queen of Sweden, who gave them the conſtitutions of thoſe of Malta and St Auguſtin. It was approved by Pope Urban V. The Bricciani were to fight for the burying of the dead, to relieve and aſſiſt widows, orphans, the lame, ſick, &c.

(1.) * BRICK. *n. ſ.* [*brick*, Dutch; *brique*, Fr. according to *Menage*, from *imbrex*, Lat. whence *brica*.] 1. A maſs of burnt clay, ſquared for the uſe of builders.—For whatſoever doth ſo alter a body, as it returneth not again to what it was, may be called *alteratio major*; as coals made of wood, or *bricks* of earth. *Bacon.*—They generally gain enough by the rubbiſh and *bricks*, which the preſent architects value much beyond thoſe of a modern make, to defray the charges of their ſearch. *Addiſon.*—

But ſpread, my ſons, your glory thin or thick,
On paſſive paper, or on ſolid *brick*. *Pope.*

2. A loaf ſhaped like a brick.

(II.) BRICK, a fat reddiſh earth, formed into long ſquares, 4 inches broad, and 8 or 9 long, by a wooden mould, and then baked or burnt in a kiln, to ſerve the purpoſes of building. Bricks are commonly red, though there are ſome of a white colour; for which ſort Walpit in Suffolk is famous.

(III.) BRICKS, ANCIENT. Bricks are of great antiquity, as appears by the ſacred writings, the tower and walls of Babylon being built with them. The Greeks chiefly uſed 3 kinds of bricks; the firſt whereof was called διπηχυν, *i. e.* of 2 palms; the ſecond, τετραδωρον, of 4 palms; the third πεντεδωρον, of 5 palms. They had alſo bricks, juſt half each of thoſe, to render their works more ſolid, and alſo more agreeable to the ſight, by the diverſities of the figures and ſizes of the bricks. The dimenſions of the brick chiefly uſed by the Romans, according to Pliny, were a foot and a half long,

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long, and a foot broad; which meaſures agree with thoſe of ſeveral Roman bricks in England, which are about 17 inches long, and 11 broad, of our meaſure. Sir Henry Wotton ſpeaks of a ſort of bricks at Venice, of which ſtately columns were built; they were firſt formed in a circular mould, and cut, before they were burnt, into 4 or more quarters or ſides; afterwards, in laying, they were jointed ſo cloſe, and the points concentered ſo exactly, that the pillars appeared one entire piece.

(IV.) BRICKS, METHOD OF MAKING. Bricks may be made of any earth that is clear of ſtones, even ſea ouſe; but all will not burn red, a property peculiar to earths which contain ferruginous particles. In England, bricks are chiefly made of hazely, yellowiſh coloured, fatty earth, ſomewhat reddiſh, vulgarly called *loam*. The earth, according to Leibourn, ought to be dug before winter, but not made into bricks before ſpring. For the making of ſuch bricks as will ſtand the fierceſt fires, Sturbridge clay or Windſor loam are eſteemed the beſt. In general, the earth whereof bricks are made, ought not to be too ſandy, which would render them heavy and brittle; nor too fat, which would make them crack in drying. The firſt ſtep in the proceſs of brick-making is caſting the clay. The next ſtep is to tread or temper it, which ought to be performed doubly of what is uſually done; ſince the goodneſs of the bricks depends chiefly upon this firſt preparation. The earth itſelf, before it is wrought, is generally brittle and duſty; but adding ſmall quantities of water gradually to it, and working and incorporating it together, it opens its body, and tinges the whole with a tough, gluey band or ſubſtance. If, in the tempering, they are watered, they become dry and brittle, almoſt as the earth they are made of; whereas, if duly tempered, they become ſmooth and ſolid, hard, and durable. A brick of this laſt ſort takes up near as much earth as a brick and a half made the contrary way; in which the bricks are ſpongy, light, and full of cracks, partly through want of due working, and partly by mixing of aſhes and light ſandy earth to make it work eaſy with greater diſpatch; as alſo to ſave culm or coals in the burning. Bricks made of good earth, and well tempered, as they become ſolid and ponderous, ſo they take up a longer time in drying and burning than the common ones. The well drying of bricks before they are burned, prevents their cracking and crumbling in the burning. Bricks are burnt either in a kiln or clamp. Thoſe that are burnt in a kiln, are firſt ſet in it; and then the kiln being covered with pieces of bricks, ſome wood is put in to dry them with a gentle fire; and this is continued till the bricks are pretty dry, which is known by the ſmoke turning from a darkiſh to a tranſparent colour: Then proceed to make ready for burning; which is performed by putting in bruſh, furze, ſpray, heath, brake, or fern faggots: but before any faggots are put in, the mouths of the kiln are dammed up with pieces of bricks, called *ſhinlog*, piled up one upon another, and cloſed up with wet brick-earth inſtead of mortar. The ſhinlog is made ſo high, that there is but juſt room above it to thruſt in a faggot. More faggots are then put in, and its arches look white, and the fire appears at the top of the kiln; upon which the fire is ſlackened for an hour, and all cooled by degrees. This is continued, alternately heating and ſlacking, till the ware be thoroughly burnt, which is uſually effected in 48 hours. About London the brick-makers chiefly burn in *clamps*, built of the bricks, after the manner of arches in kilns, with a vacancy between each brick, for the fire to play through; but with this difference, that inſtead of arching, they ſpan it over by making the bricks project one over another on both ſides of the place, for the wood and coals to lie in till they meet, and are bounded by the bricks at the top, which cloſe all up. The place for the fuel is carried up ſtraight on both ſides, till about 3 feet high; then they almoſt fill it with wood, and over that lay a covering of ſea-coal, and then overſpan the arch; but they ſtrew ſea-coal alſo over the clamp, betwixt all the rows of bricks; laſtly, they kindle the wood, which gives fire to the coal; and when all is conſumed, then they conclude the bricks to be ſufficiently burnt.

(V.) BRICKS, MODERN VARIETIES OF. The ordinary Paris brick is 8 inches long, 4 broad, and 2 thick, French meaſure, which makes ſomething more than ours. But this ſmallneſs is an advantage to a building, the ſtrength of which conſiſts much in the multitude of angles and joints, at leaſt if well laid, and having a good bond. Bricks among us are various, according to their forms, dimenſions, uſes, method of making, &c. The principal are,

1. BRICKS, BUTTRESS, or PLASTER, with a notch at one end, half the breadth of the brick; their uſe is to bind the work which is built of great brick.

2. BRICKS, CAPING, formed on purpoſe for caping of walls.

3. BRICKS, CLINKER, bricks glazed by the heat of the fire in making.

4. BRICKS, COGGING, are uſed for making the indented works under the caping of walls built with great bricks.

5. BRICKS, COMPASS, are of a circular form, uſed in ſteyning of walls.

6. BRICKS, CONCAVE, or HOLLOW, on the one ſide flat like a common brick, on the other hollowed, and uſed for the conveyance of water.

7. BRICKS, DUTCH, or FLEMISH, are uſed to pave yards, ſtables, and for ſoap-boilers vaults and ciſterns.

8. BRICKS, FEATHER-EDGED, which are like common ſtatute bricks, only thinner on one edge than the other, and uſed for penning up the brick pannels in timber buildings.

9. BRICKS, GREAT, are 12 inches long, 6 broad, and 3 thick, uſed to build fence-walls.

10. BRICKS, SAMEL, or SANDEL, ſuch as lie outmoſt in a kiln or clamp, and conſequently ſoft and uſeleſs, not being thoroughly burnt.

11. BRICKS, STATUTE, or ſmall common bricks, ought, when burnt, to be 9 inches long, $4\frac{1}{4}$ broad, and $2\frac{1}{4}$ thick; they are commonly uſed in paving cellars, ſinks, hearths, &c.

(VI.) BRICKS, NEW KIND OF, PROPOSED. Worlidge and others have endeavoured to excite brick-

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makers to try their ſkill in making a new kind of brick, or a compoſition of clay and ſand, whereof to form window-frames, chimney-pieces, door-caſes, and the like. It is to be made in pieces faſhioned in moulds, which, when burnt may be ſet together with a fine red cement, and ſeem as one entire piece, by which may be imitated all manner of ſtone work. The thing ſhould ſeem feaſible, by the earthen pipes made fine, thin, and durable, to carry water under-ground at Portſmouth; and by the earthen backs and grates for chimneys, formerly made by Sir John Winter, of a great bigneſs and thickneſs. If chimney-pieces thus made in moulds, and dried and burnt, were not found ſmooth enough, they might be poliſhed with ſand and water; or were care taken, when they were half dry in the air, to have them poliſhed with an inſtrument of copper or iron, then leave them till they were dry enough to burn, it is evident they would not want much poliſhing afterwards. The work might even be glazed, as potters do their fine earthen ware, either white or of any other colour; or it might be veined in imitation of marble, or painted with figures of various colours, which would be much cheaper, perhaps equally durable, and as beautiful, as marble itſelf.

(VII.) BRICKS, OIL OF, olive oil imbibed by the ſubſtance of bricks, and afterwards diſtilled from it. This oil was once in great repute for curing many diſeaſes, but is now juſtly laid aſide.

(VIII.) BRICKS, PATENT. Mr Cartwright's patent bricks are a capital improvement. The following account of them was given in the ſpecification, dated April 14, 1795. "The principle of this invention will readily be comprehended, by ſuppoſing the two oppoſite ſides of a common brick to have a groove or rabbet down the middle, which muſt be a little more than half the width of the ſide of the brick in which it is made; there will then be left a ſhoulder on each ſide of the groove, each of which ſhoulders will be nearly equal to one quarter of the width of the ſide of the brick, or to one half of the groove or rabbet. See *Plate* XLII. *fig.* 11. A courſe of theſe bricks being laid ſhoulder to ſhoulder, as in *fig.* 15, they will form an indented line, of nearly equal diviſions; the grooves or rabbets being ſomewhat wider than the two adjoining ſhoulders, to allow for mortar, &c. When the next courſe comes on, the ſhoulders of the bricks which compoſe it will fall into the grooves of the firſt courſe; and the ſhoulders of the firſt courſe will fit into the grooves or rabbets of the 2d; and ſo on, as is clearly ſhewn in the plate. This mode of ſhaping the bricks is to be preferred, as being perfectly ſimple; the principle, however, will be preſerved, in whatever manner they may be made to lock into or cramp each other, by whatever form of indenture, or whether by one groove, or more. But it muſt be obſerved, in whatever manner the variation from the ſimple form *fig.* 11. is made, except by ſtraight line, the two ſides of the brick, &c. muſt proportionally vary, ſo that, when they come together in work, they may correſpond and fit each other; an example of which is exhibited in *fig.* 12. where *a* and *b* ſhew the oppoſite ſides of a brick. It may make ſome ſmall ſaving in the expence, though perhaps not a prudent one, if the bricks, &c. were of ſuch a width as to admit a common brick, or piece of plain ſtone, between the ſhoulders of each of theſe bricks; in that caſe, the groove muſt be made proportionably wider. For the purpoſe of turning the angles, it may be expedient to have bricks or ſtones of ſuch ſize and ſhape as to correſpond with each wall reſpectively; this however is not abſolutely neceſſary, as the groove in the bricks, &c. of each wall, where they croſs or meet each other, may be levelled, and the bricks lap over, as in the common mode. For the purpoſe of breaking the joints in the depth of the walls, bricks will be required of different lengths, though of the ſame width. Buildings conſtructed with bricks of this principle, will require no bond timber, one univerſal bond running through, and connecting the whole building together; the walls of which can neither crack nor bulge out, without breaking through the bricks themſelves. When theſe bricks, &c. that is to ſay, of the ſimple form, *fig.* 11. are uſed for the conſtruction of arches, the ſides of the grooves and the ſhoulders ſhould be radii of the circle, of which the intended arch is to be a ſegment. See *fig.* 13. though, if the circle be very large, the difference of the width of the bricks, &c. at the top and bottom will be ſo trifling as to make a minute attention to this particular ſcarcely, if at all neceſſary. When theſe arches are required to be particularly flat, or are applied in ſuch ſituations as admit not of end walls, as in the conſtruction of bridges, &c. it may be expedient to have the ſhoulders dove-tailed, to prevent the arch cracking acroſs, or giving way endwiſe. See *fig.* 14. If the bricks are as wide at the bottom as the top, the manner of putting them together by a dove-tail is obvious; when not ſo wide at the bottom as the top, on one ſide of the brick, &c. the ſides of the ſhoulders muſt be parallel, and on the other the ſides of the grooves or rabbets muſt be parallel, ſo that the two ſides of the bricks, &c. which fall together, may correſpond. See *fig.* 14. *b*, *c*. In forming an arch, the bricks muſt be courſed acroſs the centre on which the arch is turned, and a grooved ſide of the bricks muſt face the workmen. See *fig.* 16. It may be expedient, though not abſolutely neceſſary, in laying the firſt 2 or 3 courſes at leaſt, to begin at the crown, and work downwards each way. In archwork, the bricks, &c. may be either laid in mortar, or dry, and the interſtices afterwards filled and wedged up, by pouring in lime-putty, plaſter of Paris, grouting, or any other convenient material, at the diſcretion of the workman or builder. It is obvious that arches upon this principle, having no lateral preſſure, can neither expand at the foot nor ſpring at the crown; conſequently they will want no abutments, requiring only perpendicular walls to be let into, or to reſt upon; and they will want no ſuperincumbent weight upon the crown to prevent their ſpringing up, a circumſtance of great importance in many inſtances in the conſtruction of bridges. Another advantage attending this mode of arching is that the centres may be ſtruck immediately; ſo that the ſame centre (which in no caſe need be many feet wide, whatever may be the breadth of the arch) may be regularly ſhifted, as the work proceeds.

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Plate XLII.

BIQUADRATIC PARABOLA.

Fig. 2.

Fig. 3.

Fig. 7.

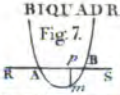


Fig. 5.

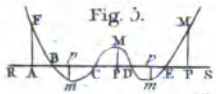


Fig. 6.

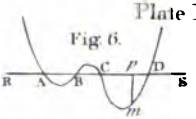


Fig 1. Dr. PRIESTLY'S ELECTRICAL BATTERY.

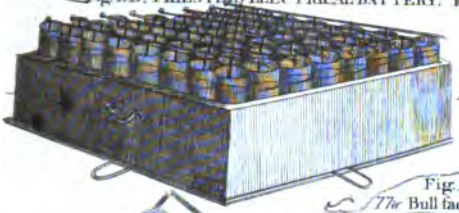


Fig. 4.

The Discharger.

BACK STAFF
Fig. 10.

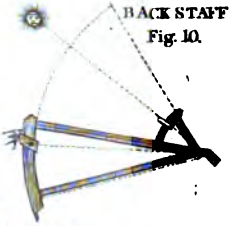


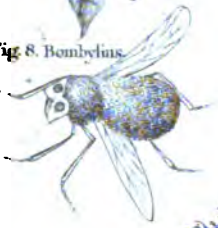
Fig. 17. BUCCO,
The Bull faced Barbet.

Fig. 18.
BURSERA
Gummifera.

Fig. 9.
Buprestis.

BURSERA Gummifera.

Fig. 8. Bombylius.



BRICKS.

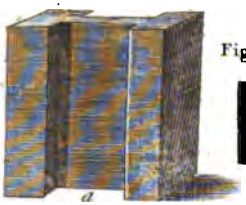


Fig. 11.

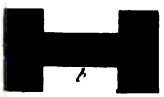


Fig. 12.

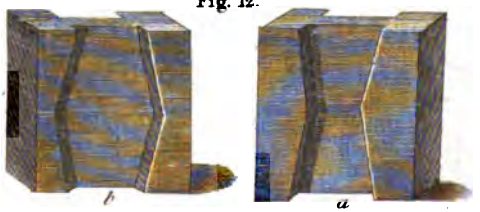


Fig. 13.

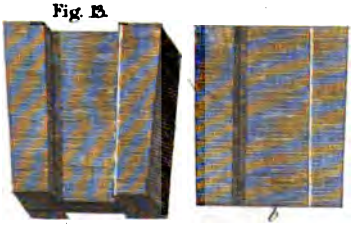


Fig. 15.

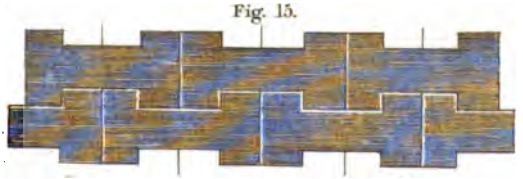


Fig. 14.

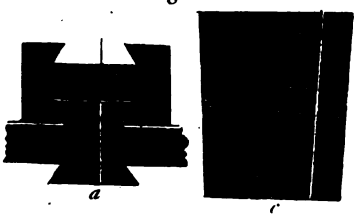
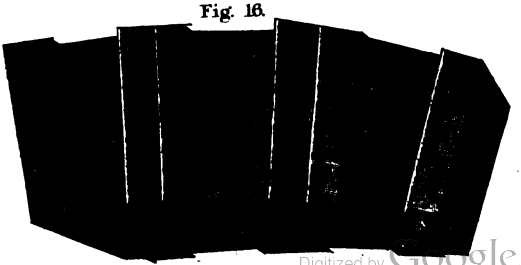


Fig. 16.



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proceeds. But the greateſt and moſt ſtriking advantage attending this invention is the abſolute ſecurity it affords, and at a very reaſonable rate, againſt the poſſibility of fire; for, from the peculiar properties of this arch, requiring no abutments, it may be laid upon, or let into, common walls no ſtronger than what are required for timbers, of which it will preclude the neceſſity, and ſave the expence."

(IX.) BRICKS, USEFUL EXPERIMENTS WITH. In Dr Percival's eſſays, Vol. I. p. 302, we have the following experiments of the effects of bricks on water. "Two or 3 pieces of common brick were ſteeped 4 days in a baſon full of diſtilled water. The water was then decanted off, and examined by various chemical teſts. It was immiſcible with ſoap, ſtruck a lively green with ſyrup of violets, was rendered ſlightly lacteſcent by the volatile alkali, and quite milky by the fixed alkali and by a ſolution of ſaccharum ſaturni. The infuſion of tormentil root produced no change in it." The experiment, he obſerves, affords a ſtriking proof of the impropriety of lining wells with brick, a practice very common in many places, and which cannot fail of rendering the water hard and unwholeſome. Clay generally contains a variety of heterogeneous matters. The coloured loams often participate of bitumen, and the ochre of iron. Sand and calcareous earth are ſtill more common ingredients in their compoſition; and the experiments of Mr Geoffrey and Mr Pott prove, that the earth of alum alſo may in large quantity be extracted from clay. Now as clay is expoſed to the open air for a long ſpace of time, is then moulded into bricks, and burnt, this proceſs reſembles in many reſpects that by which the alum ſtone is prepared. And it is probable that the white efflorescence, frequently obſervable on the ſurface of new bricks, is of an aluminous nature. The long expoſure of clay to the air, before it is moulded into bricks, the ſulphureous exhalations of the pit coal uſed for burning it, together with the ſuffocating and bituminous vapours, which ariſes from the ignited clay itſelf, ſufficiently account for the combination of a vitriolic acid with the earth of alum.

* *To* BRICK. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To lay with bricks.—The ſexton comes to know where he is to be laid, and whether his grave is to be plain or *bricked*. *Swift.*

* BRICKBAT. *n. ſ.* [from *brick* and *bat*.] A piece of brick.—Earthen bottles, filled with hot water do provoke in bed a ſweat more daintily than *brickbats* hot. *Bacon.*

* BRICKCLAY. *n. ſ.* [from *brick* and *clay*.] Clay uſed for making brick.—I obſerved it in pits wrought for tile and *brickclay*. *Woodward.*

* BRICKDUST. *n. ſ.* [from *brick* and *duſt*.] Duſt made by pounding bricks.—This ingenious author, being thus ſharp ſet, got together a conſiderable quantity of *brickduſt*, and diſpoſed of it into ſeveral papers. *Spectator.*

* BRICKEARTH. *n. ſ.* [from *brick* and *earth*.] Earth uſed in making bricks.—They grow very well both on hazelly *brickearths*, and on gravel. *Mortimer.*

BRICKHAMPTON, a village in Gloucesterſhire, near Cheltenham.

BRICKHILL-BOW, BRICKHILL MAGNA, and BRICKHILL PARVA, } Three villages in Bukinghamſhire, near Woburn.

BRICKING, *n. ſ.* among builders, the counterfeiting of a brick wall on plaſter. It is done by ſmearing it over with red ochre, and making the joints with an edged tool; theſe laſt are afterwards filled with a fine plaſter.

* BRICK-KILN. *n. ſ.* [from *brick* and *kiln*.] A kiln; a place to burn bricks.—Like the Iſraelites in the *brick-kilns*, they multiplied the more for their oppreſſion. *Decay of Piety.*

(1.) * BRICKLAYER. *n. ſ.* [from *brick* and *lay*.] A man whoſe trade it is to build with bricks; a brick maſon.—

The elder of them, being put to nurſe,
And ignorant of his birth and parentage,
Became a *bricklayer* when he came to age.
Shakeſ.

If you had liv'd, ſir,
Time enough to have been interpreter
To Babel's *bricklayers*, ſure the tow'r had ſtood,
Donne.

(2.) BRICK-LAYERS in London are a regular company, which was incorporated in 1568; and conſiſts of a maſter, two wardens, 20 aſſiſtants, and 78 on the livery.

(3.) BRICK-LAYERS, MATERIALS AND TOOLS USED BY. Theſe are bricks, tyles, mortar, laths, nails, and tyle-pins. Their tools are a brick-trowel, wherewith to take up mortar; a brick-axe, to cut bricks to the determined ſhape; a ſaw, for ſawing bricks; a rub-ſtone, on which to rub them; a ſquare, wherewith to lay the bed or bottom, and face or ſurface of the brick, to ſee whether they are at right angles; a bevel, by which to cut the under ſides of bricks to the angles required; a ſmall traſnel of iron, wherewith to mark the bricks; a float-ſtone, with which to rub a moulding of brick to the pattern deſcribed; a banker, to cut the bricks on; line-pins to lay their rows or courſes by; plumb-rule, whereby to carry their work upright; level, to conduct it horizontal; ſquare, to ſet off right angles; ten foot rod, wherewith to take dimenſions; jointer, wherewith to run the long joints; rammer, wherewith to beat the foundation; crow and pick-ax, wherewith to dig through walls.

BRICK-LAYING, the art of framing edifices of bricks. This buſineſs in London, includes tyling, walling, chimney-work, and paving with bricks and tyles. In the country it alſo includes the maſon's and plaſterer's buſineſs. Moxon has an expreſs treatiſe on the art of brick-laying; in which he deſcribes the materials, tools, and method of working, uſed by brick-layers. Great care is to be taken, that bricks be laid joint on joint in the middle of the walls as ſeldom as may be; and that there be good bond made there, as well as on the outſides. Some brick-layers, in working a brick and half wall, lay the header on one ſide of the wall perpendicular to the header on the other ſide, and ſo all along the whole courſe; whereas, if the header on one ſide of the wall were toothed as much as the ſtretcher on the other ſide, it would be a ſtronger toothing, and the joints of the headers of one ſide would be in the middle of the headers of the courſe

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courſe they lie upon of the other ſide. If bricks be laid in winter, let them be kept as dry as poſſible, if in ſummer, it will quit coſt to employ boys to wet them, for that they will then unite with the mortar better than if dry, and will make the work ſtronger. In large buildings, or where it is thought too much trouble to dip all the bricks ſeparately, water may be thrown on each courſe after they are laid, as was done at the building the phyſician's college, by order of Dr Hooke. If brick are laid in ſummer, they are to be covered; for if the mortar dries too haſtily, it will not bind ſo firmly to the bricks as when left to dry more gradually. If the bricks be laid in winter, they ſhould alſo be covered well, to protect them from rain, ſnow and froſt; which laſt is a mortal enemy to mortar, eſpecially to all ſuch as have been wetted juſt before the froſt aſſaults it.

BRICKLEHAMPTON, a village in Worceſterſhire, near Perſhore.

BRICKLESEY, near Merſey iſle, Eſſex.

BRICKLEY-LODGE, in Needwood foreſt, Staffordſhire.

* BRICK-MAKER. *n. ſ.* [from *brick* and *make*.] One whoſe trade it is to make bricks.—They are common in claypits; but the *brickmakers* pick them out of the clay. *Woodward.*

BRICK-MAKING is moſtly performed at ſome ſmall diſtance from cities and towns; and though ſome, through ignorance, look upon it as a very mean employment, becauſe laborious, yet the maſters about London, and other capital cities, are generally men of ſubſtance. See BRICKS, § IV.

BRICK-RIVER, a river in Kerry, Ireland.

BRICKTON, a town in Hampſhire, near Fording-Bridge.

BRICKY, a river of Ireland, in Waterford.

BRICOIL, or } The rebound of a ball, after a
BRICOLE, } ſide ſtroke at tennis.

BRICOLS, engines uſed before the invention of gun-powder to batter the walls of towns and caſtles.

(1.) * BRIDAL. *adj.* [from *bride*.] Belonging to a wedding; nuptial; connubial.—

Our wedding chear to a ſad fun'ral feaſt,
Our ſolemn hymns to ſullen dirges change,
Our *bridal* flowers ſerved for a buried corſe.
Shakeſpeare.

Come, I will bring thee to thy *bridal* chamber. *Shakeſpeare.*

The amorous birds of night
Sung ſpouſal, and bid haſte the ev'ning ſtar,
On his hill-top to light the *bridal* lamp. *Milt.*

Your ill-meaning politician lords,
Under pretence of *bridal* friends and gueſts,
Appointed to await me thirty ſpies. *Milton.*

When to my arms thou brought'ſt my virgin love,
Fair angels ſung our *bridal* hymn above. *Dryd.*

With all the pomp of woe, and ſorrows pride!
Oh, early loſt! oh, fitter to be led
In chearful ſplendour to the *bridal* bed. *Walſh.*

For her the ſpouſe prepares the *bridal* ring,
For her white virgins hymeneals ſing. *Pope.*

(2.) * BRIDAL. *n. ſ.* The nuptial feſtival.—

Nay, we muſt think, men are not gods;
Nor of them look for ſuch obſervance always,
As fits the *bridal*. *Shakeſpeare's Othello.*

Sweet day, ſo cool, ſo calm, ſo bright,
The *bridal* of the earth and ſky,
Sweet dews ſhall weep thy fall to night;
For thou muſt die. *Herbert.*

In death's dark bow'rs our *bridals* we will keep,
And his cold hand
Shall draw the curtain when we go to ſleep.
Dryden.

BRIDDISTOW, a village in Devonſhire, 4 m. SW. of Oakhampton.

(1.) * BRIDE. *n. ſ.* [*briid*, Saxon; *brudur*, in Runick, ſignifies a beautiful woman.] A woman new married.—

Held me mine own love's praiſes to reſound,
Ne let the fame of any be envy'd;
So Orpheus did for his own *bride*. *Spenſer.*

The day approach'd, when fortune ſhould decide
Th' important enterprize, and give the *bride*.
Dryden.

Theſe are tributes due from pious *brides*,
From a chaſte matron, and a virtuous wife.
Smith.

(2.) BRIDES, ANCIENT CUSTOMS RESPECTING. Among the ancient Greeks, it was cuſtomary for the bride to be conducted from her father's houſe to her huſband's in a chariot, the evening being choſen for that purpoſe, to conceal her bluſhes; ſhe was placed in the middle, her huſband ſitting on one ſide, and one of her moſt intimate friends on the other; torches were carried before her, and ſhe was entertained in the paſſage with a ſong ſuitable to the occaſion. When they arrived at their journey's end, the axle tree of the coach they rode in was burnt, to ſignify that the bride was never to return to her father's houſe.—Among the Romans, the bride was to ſeem to be ravaged by force from her mother, in memory of the rape of the Sabines under Romulus; ſhe was to be carried home in the night to the bridegroom's houſe, accompanied by 3 boys, one of whom carried a torch, and the other two led the bride; a ſpindle and diſtaff being carried with her: ſhe brought 3 pieces of money, called *aſſes*, in her hand to the bridegroom, whoſe doors on this occaſion were adorned with flowers and branches of trees; being here interrogated who ſhe was, ſhe was to anſwer *Caia*, in memory of Caia Cecilia, wife of Tarquin the Elder, who was an excellent ſpinſtreſs; for the like reaſon, before her entrance, ſhe lined the door poſts with wool, and ſmeared them with greaſe. Fire and water being ſet on the threſhold, ſhe touched both; but ſtarting back from the door, refuſed to enter, till at length ſhe paſſed the threſhold, being careful to ſtep over without touching it: here the keys were given her, a nuptial ſupper was prepared for her, and minſtrels to divert her; ſhe was ſeated on the figure of a priapus, and here the attendant boys reſigned her to the *pronuæ*, who brought her into the nuptial chamber and put her to bed. This office was to be performed by matrons who had only been once married, to denote that the marriage was to be for perpetuity.

* BRIDE.

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* BRIDEBED. *n. f.* [from *bride* and *bed.*] Marriage bed.—

Now until break of day,
Through this houſe each fairy ſtray;
To the beſt *bridebed* will we,
Which by us ſhall bleſſed be. *Shakeſpeare.*

Could David's ſon, religious, juſt and brave
To the firſt *bridebed* of the world receive
A foreigner, a heathen, and a ſlave? *Prior.*

* BRIDECAKE. *n. f.* [from *bride* and *cake.*] A cake diſtributed to the gueſts at the wedding.—

With the phant'ſies of hey troll,
Troll about the bridal *Bridecake*
Round about the bride's ſtake. *Ben Jonſon.*

—The writer, reſolved to try his fortune, faſted all day, and, that he might be ſure of dreaming upon ſomething at night, procured an handſome ſlice of *bridecake*, which he placed very conveniently under his pillow. *Spectator.*

(1.) * BRIDEGROOM. *n. f.* [from *bride* and *groom.*] A new married man.—

As are thoſe dulcet ſounds in break of day,
That creep into the dreaming *bridegroom's* ear.
And ſummon him to marriage. *Shakeſpeare.*

Why, happy *bridegroom!*
Why doſt thou ſteal ſo ſoon away to bed?
Dryden.

(2.) BRIDEGROOMS, ANCIENT CUSTOMS RESPECTING. The Spartan bridegrooms committed a kind of rape upon their brides. For matters being agreed on between them, the woman that contrived and managed the match, having ſhaved the bride's hair cloſe to her ſkin, dreſſed her up in man's clothes, and left her upon a mattreſs: this done, in came the bridegroom, in his uſual dreſs, having ſupped as ordinary, and ſtealing as privately as he could to the room where the bride lay, and untying her virgin girdle, took her to his embraces; and having ſtayed a ſhort time with her returned to his companions, with whom he continued to ſpend his life, remaining with them by night as well as by day, unleſs he ſtole a ſhort viſit to his bride, which could not be done without a great deal of circumſpection, and fear of being diſcovered. Among the Romans, the bridegroom was decked to receive his bride; his hair was combed and cut in a particular form; he had a coronet or chaplet on his head and was dreſſed in a white garment. By the ancient canons, the bridegroom was to forbear the enjoyment of his bride the firſt night, in honour of the nuptial benediction given by the prieſt on that day. In Scotland, and ſome parts of England, a more ſhameful cuſtom anciently prevailed, called *marchet*, whereby the lord of the manor was entitled to the bridegroom's privilege with his tenant's bride the firſt night. See MARCHET. What intolerable oppreſſion muſt the lower claſſes have then laboured under, when ſuch iniquity was eſtabliſhed by law!

BRIDEKIRK, a village in Cumberland, 3 m. N. of Cockermouth.

* BRIDEMAIDS. } *n. f.* The attendants on the
* BRIDEMEN. } bride and bridegroom.

BRIDEMIF, in the Perſian Tables, the name of the conſtellation, LUPUS, or the Wolf.

BRIDENBURY, a village in Herefordſhire, near Bromyard.

BRIDE-RIVER, a river of Ireland, in Cork.

BRIDE, ST, two villages in Monmouthſhire. 1. near Iſton: 2. S. of Tredgar.

BRIDE'S BAY, ST, a bay on the coaſt of Pembrokeſhire, where ſhips anchor at 7 fathoms water.

BRIDE'S, ST, a town near Caernarvon.

* BRIDESTAKE. *n. f.* [from *bride* and *ſtake.*] It ſeems to be a poſt ſet in the ground, to dance round, like a maypole.—

Round about the *brideſtake.* *Ben Jonſon.*

(1.) * BRIDEWELL. *n. f.* [The palace built by St *Bride's*, or *Bridget's well*, was turned into a workhouſe.] A houſe of correction.—He would contribute more to reformation than all the workhouſes and *Bridewells* in Europe. *Spectator.*

(2.) BRIDEWELL, is alſo a workehouſe for vagrants, ſtrumpets, and other diſorderly perſons: who are made to work; being maintained with clothing and diet; and when it ſeems good to their governors, they are ſent by paſſes into their native countries. While they remain in Bridewell they are not only made to work, but, according to their crimes, receive, once a fortnight, ſuch a number of ſtripes as the governor commands.

(3.) BRIDEWELL, near Fleet-ſtreet, is a foundation of a mixt and ſingular nature, partaking of the hoſpital, the priſon, and workhouſe; it was founded in 1553, by Edward VI. who gave the place where K. John formerly kept his court, and which had been repaired by Henry VIII. to the city of London, with 700 merks of land, bedding, and other furniture. Several youths are ſent to the hoſpital as apprentices to manufacturers, who refide there; they are clothed in blue doublets and breeches, with white hats. Having faithfully ſerved for 7 years, they have their freedom, and a donation of L. 10 each, for carrying on their reſpective trades.

(4.) BRIDEWELL, EDINBURGH, is ſeated on the Calton hill. The foundation ſtone was laid Nov. 30, 1791: and the firſt priſoners admitted in 1794. The expence was L. 12,000.

(I. 1.) * BRIDGE. *n. f.* [*bric*, Sax.] 1. A building raiſed over the water for convenience of paſſage.

What need the *bridge* much broader than the flood. *Shakeſpeare.*

And proud Araxes, whom no *bridge* could bind. *Dryden.*

2. The upper part of the noſe.—The raiſing gently the *bridge* of the noſe, doth prevent the deformity of a ſaddle noſe. *Bacon.* 3. The ſupporter of the ſtrings in ſtringed inſtruments of muſick.

(2.) BRIDGE, in architecture, is a work either of ſtone or timber, conſiſting of one or more arches built over a river, canal, or the like. See ARCHITECTURE, *Index*, CANAL, and MECHANICS.

(3.) BRIDGE, CONDITIONS REQUIRED IN A: It is requiſite that a bridge be well deſigned, commodious, durable, and ſuitably decorated. The piers of ſtone bridges ſhould be equal in number, that there may be one arch in the middle, where commonly the current is ſtrongeſt; their thickneſs is not to be leſs than a fifth part of the ſpan of the arch, nor more than a fourth; they are commonly guarded in the front with angular ſterlings, to break the force of the current: the ſtrongeſt

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ſtrongeſt arches are thoſe whoſe ſweep is a whole ſemicircle; as the piers of bridges always diminiſh the bed of a river, in caſe of inundations, the bed muſt be ſunk or hollowed in proportion to the ſpace taken up by the piers, as the waters gain in depth what they loſe in breadth, which otherwiſe conduce to waſh away the foundation and endanger the piers: to prevent this, they ſometimes diminiſh the current, either by lengthening its courſe, or by making it more winding, or by ſtopping the bottom with rows of planks, ſtakes, or piles, which break the current.

(4.) BRIDGE, ESSENTIAL PARTS OF A. Theſe are, the piers; the arches; the pavement, or way over for cattle and carriages; the foot way on each ſide, for foot-paſſengers; the rail or parapet, which incloſes the whole; and the butments or ends of the bridge on the bank.

(5.) BRIDGE, IRON. See § 9. N° vi.

(5.) BRIDGES, ANCIENT. The firſt inventor of bridges, as well as of ſhips and crowns, is by ſome learned men ſuppoſed to be Janus: their reaſon is, that on ſeveral ancient Greek, Sicilian, and Italian coins, there are repreſented on one ſide a Janus, with two faces; and on the other a bridge, crown, or a ſhip. Bridges are a ſort of edifices very difficult to execute on account of the inconvenience of laying foundations and walling under water. The earlieſt rules and inſtructions relating to the building of bridges are given by Leon Babtiſta Alberti. *Archit*, l. viii. Others were afterwards laid down by Palladio, l. iii. Serlio, l. iii. c. 4. and Scammozzi, l. v. all of which are collected by M. Blondel, *Cours d' Archit.* p. 629, *ſeq.* The beſt of them are given by Goldman, *Baukburſt*, l. iv. c. 4. p. 134. and Hawkeſmoor's Hiſtory of London bridge, p. 26, *ſeq.* M. Gautier has a piece expreſs on bridges, ancient and modern; *Trait des Ponts*, Paris 1716, 12mo. Among the Romans, the building and repairing of bridges was firſt committed to the pontifices or prieſts; whence the epithet, *pontifex. i. e.* a bridge-maker; then to the cenſors, or curators of the roads; laſtly, the emperors took the care of bridges into their own hands. Thus Antoninus Pius built the Pons Janiculenſis of marble; Gordian reſtored the Pons Ceſtius; and Adrian built a new one denominated from him. In the middle age, bridge building was reckoned among the acts of religion; and a regular order of Hoſpitallers was founded by St Benezet, towards the end of the 12th century, under the denomination of *pontifices*, or bridge-builders, whoſe office it was to be aſſiſtant to travellers, by making bridges, ſettling ferries and receiving ſtrangers in hoſpitals, or houſes built on the banks of rivers. We read of one hoſpital of this kind at Avignon, where the hoſpitallers dwelt under the direction of their firſt ſuperior St Benezet. The Jeſuit Raynaldus has a treatiſe expreſs on St John the bridge-builder. Among the bridges of antiquity, that built by Trajan over the Danube is allowed to be the moſt magnificent.

(7.) BRIDGES, FLOATING, are ordinarily made of two ſmall bridges, laid one over the other, ſo that the uppermoſt ſtretches and runs out, by the help of cords running through pullies placed along the ſides of the under bridge, which puts it forwards till the end of it joins the place it is deſigned to be fixed on. When theſe two bridges are ſtretched out to their full length, ſo that the two middle ends meet, they are not to be above 4 or 5 fathoms long; for if longer, they will break.—Their chief uſe is for ſurpriſing out-works, or poſts that have but narrow moats. In the memoirs of the Royal Academy of Sciences we find an ingenious contrivance of a floating bridge, which lays itſelf on the other ſide of the river.

(8.) BRIDGES, FLYING, *Pontes ductorii*, an appellation given to bridges made of pontoons, leather boats, hollow beams, caſks, or the like, laid on a river, and covered with planks, for the paſſage of an army. A flying bridge, *pont volant*, more particularly denotes a bridge compoſed of one or two boats joined together by a ſort of flooring, and ſurrounded with a rail or baluſtrade; having alſo one or more maſts, to which is faſtened a cable, ſupported at proper diſtances, by boats, and extended to an anchor, to which the other end is faſtened, in the middle of the water: by which contrivance the bridge becomes moveable, like a pendulum from one ſide of the river to the other, without any other help than the rudder.—Such bridges ſometimes alſo conſiſt of two ſtories, for the quicker paſſage of a great number of men, or that both infantry and cavalry may paſs at the ſame time. In *Plate* XLIV, is repreſented a flying bridge of this kind. *Fig.* 1. gives a perſpective view of the courſe of a river and its two banks. *a*, *b*, *c*, *d*, Two long boats or batteaux, which ſupport the flying bridge. GH, KL, two maſts joined at their tops by two tranſverſe pieces, or beams, and a central arch, and ſupported in a vertical poſition by two pair of ſhrouds and two chains LN, HR. M, a horſe, or croſs piece, over which the rope or cable M, F, *e*, *f*, that rides or holds the bridge againſt the current, paſſes. E, a roll or windlaſs round which the rope M, F, *e*, *f*, is wound. *a*, *b*, The rudders. AB, and CD, two portions of bridges of boats faſtened to the bank on each ſide, and between which the flying bridge moves in paſſing from one ſide of the river to the other. *e*, *f*, Chains ſupported by two punts, or ſmall flat-bottomed boats; there are 5 or 6 of theſe punts at a about 40 fathoms from one another. The firſt, or fartheſt from the bridge, is moored with anchors in the middle of the bed of the river. *Fig.* 2. Is a plan of the ſame bridge. *a*, *b*, *c*, *d*, The two boats that ſupport it. K and G, the two maſts. K F G, the tranſverſe pieces or beam over which the cable paſſes. E, the roll, or windlaſs, round which the rope or cable is wound. *a*, *b*, The rudders. O, a boat. *e*, One of the punts, or ſmall flat-bottomed boats that ſupport the chain. N, N, pumps for extracting the water out of the boats. P, P, capſtans. *Fig.* 3. A lateral elevation of the bridge. *a*, *c*, One of the boats. *b*, The rudder. E, the roll, or windlaſs. M, The horſe, or croſs-piece. G H, One of the maſts. E, M, H, F, The cable. In this view the baluſtrade running along the ſide of the bridge is plainly exhibited. *Fig.* 4. Elevation of the hinder or ſtern part of the bridge. *a*, *b*, The two boats. G H, K L, The two maſts. H L, The upper tranſverſe beam. *p*, *g*, The lower tranſverſe beam, or that over which the cable paſſes, and on which it

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Fig. 4.

Fig. 7. Cat Head.

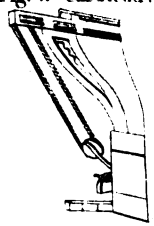


Fig. 8. Burroughs' Machine.

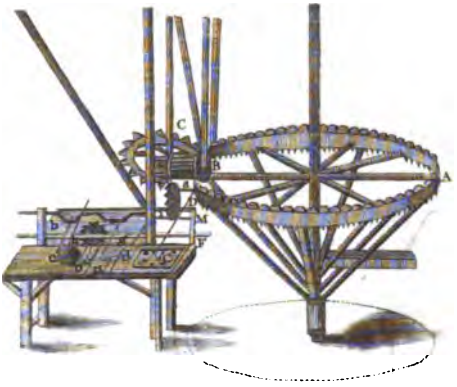


Fig. 3.

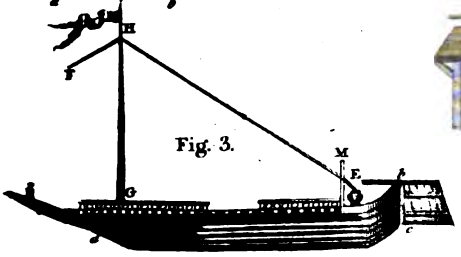


Fig. 5.

Fig. 2.

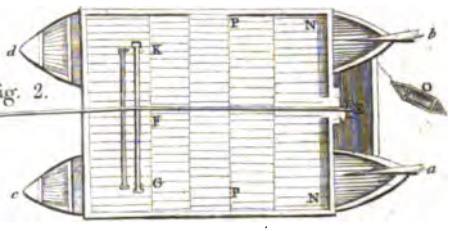


Fig. 6.

Fig. 10. Burroughs's Machine.

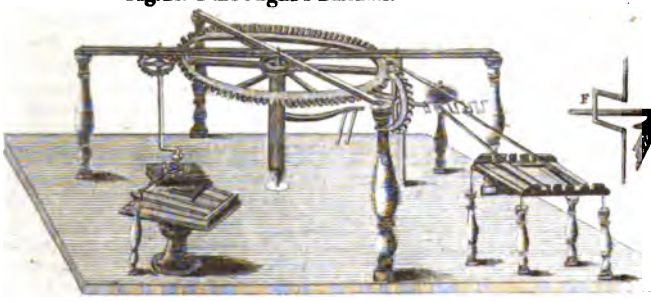
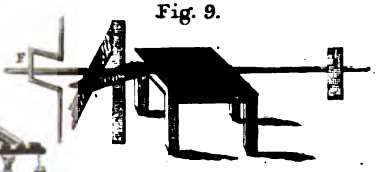
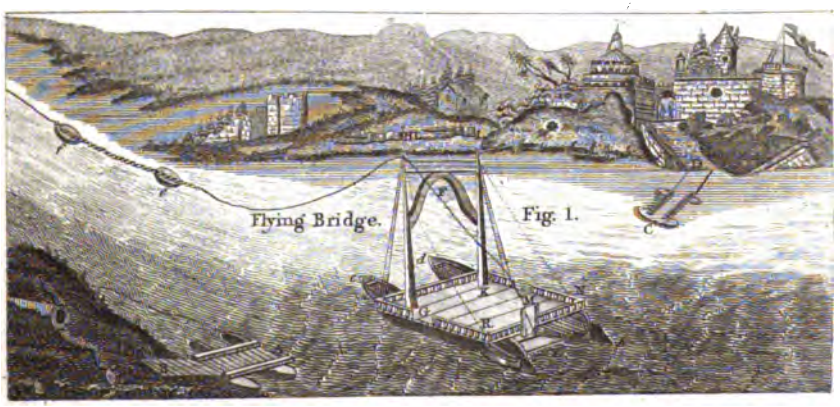


Fig. 9.



Flying Bridge.

Fig. 1.



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it slides from one mast to the other; this beam is therefore always kept well greased. *p*, *k*, *g*, *g*, Shrowds extending from the sides of the bridge to the tops of the masts. M, the horse or cross piece, over which the cable passes to the roll or windless E.

(9.) BRIDGES, MODERN. Among the numerous bridges erected in modern times, we think the following merit particular notice: viz.

i. BRIDGE OF BLACKFRIARS situated near the centre of London, and built according to a plan drawn by Mr Robert Mylne. It is an exceeding light and elegant structure. The arches are only 9 in number; but very large, and of an elliptical form. The centre arch is 100 feet wide; those on the sides decrease in a regular gradation; and the width of that near the abutment at each end is 70 feet. It has an open balustrade at the top, and a foot-way on each side, with room for 3 carriages a-breast in the middle. It has also recesses on the sides for the foot passengers, each supported by two lofty Ionic columns.

ii. BRIDGE OF LONDON, consists of 20 locks or arches, 19 of which are open, and one filled up or obscured. It is 900 feet long, 60 high, and 74 broad, with almost 20 feet aperture in each arch. It is supported by 18 piers, from 25 to 34 feet thick; so that the greatest water way when the tide is above the sterlings is 450 feet, scarce half the width of the river; and below the sterlings, the water way is reduced to 194 feet. Thus a river 900 feet wide is here forced through a channel of 194 feet. London bridge was first built of timber, some time before the year 994, by a college of priests, to whom the profits of the Ferry of St Mary Overy's had descended; it was repaired, or rather new built of timber in 1163. The stone bridge was begun by king Henry in 1176, and finished by king John in 1209. The architect was Peter of Colechurch, a priest. For the keeping it in repair, a large house is allotted, with a great number of officers, and a vast revenue in land, &c. The chief officers are two bridge masters, chosen yearly out of the body of the livery. The defects of this bridge are the narrowness and irregularity of the arches, and the largeness of the piers, which, together with the sterlings, turn the current of the Thames into many frightful cataracts, which must obstruct and endanger the navigation through the bridge. The sterlings have been added, to hinder the piers from being undermined by the rotting of the piles on which they are built: for by means of these sterlings the piles are kept constantly wet; and thus the timber is kept from decaying, which always happens when it is suffered to be alternately wet and dry.

iii. BRIDGE OF PERTH. It would doubtless appear an unpardonable omission in an ENCYCLOPÆDIA PERTHENSIS, were we to say nothing, under this article of the bridge of Perth. Mr Dunbar, minister of Kinnoul, gives the following account of it. "The old bridge over the Tay, at this place, having been carried away by a great flood in the river, in the year 1621, the communication between Kinnoul and Perth, was afterwards carried on by means of ferry boats, which were always attended with considerable inconvenience and expence; and frequently with great danger. No fewer than 30 boats, and as many boat-men, were employed on this ferry, as it was one of the most frequented passes in Scotland. Some of these boats were occasionally employed as lighters, for vessels in the river. In this state things continued until 1765, when a subscription for a new bridge was opened, chiefly by the patronage of the late Earl of Kinnoul to whose patriotic exertions, it is well known, the present bridge over the Tay at Perth, owed its existence. It was reared under his auspices; he pledged a considerable part of his private fortune to carry on the work; and it will remain a lasting monument to the honour of that great and worthy nobleman. The subscription soon amounted to L 11,298 : 17 : 6, of which government furnished no less a sum than L 4000. The foundation stone was laid on 13th September 1766, by its principal promoter, the Earl of Kinnoul, in presence of the sheriff-depute, of the county, the provost and magistrates of Perth, and several other gentlemen, amidst the applauses of thousands of spectators. The bridge was compleated, and the last of the workmen paid off, 13th of November 1771. The Earl of Errol's coach was the first that passed along the bridge, in the winter between 1770 and 1771. The plan was drawn by Mr Smeaton architect, and the work executed according to his orders, by Messrs Cuyn, Morton, and Jamieson. The bridge consists of ten arches, one of which is a land arch. The clear water way, is 589 feet 9 inches. The extent of all the arches, 730 9. The wing walls, 176. So that the total length of the bridge is 906 feet 9 inches; and to the credit of the architect and undertakers, it has remained hitherto firm and unshaken. The utility of this bridge is not confined to Perth and its neighbourhood, but extends to the country at large; as all are more or less concerned in an easy and safe communication, at so central a situation, between the northern and southern parts of Scotland. The whole expence of the bridge, was L. 26,446 : 12 : 3."

iv. BRIDGE OF SUNDERLAND. The IRON BRIDGE over the Wear, at Sunderland, in Durham, is quite a new invention in bridge building. An obliging correspondent has favoured us with the following description of it. "The principles, upon which this stupendous work is constructed, are entirely different from those of any former bridge which has been attempted with the same materials: It does not consist of long ribs of metal, which rest upon the abutments, and approach towards the centre; but it is built upon the principles of a stone arch; the inventor availing himself of the power, which cast iron afforded him, of rendering the arch infinitely lighter than it could have been, if constructed of stone, by reason of the great voids which that metal will permit, and the ease with which it can be made to adopt any form. The blocks, which serve as arch stones, are cast of the shape and dimensions delineated on *Plate* XLI. *Fig.* 6. Their thickness is only 4 inches, and they weigh about 4cwt weight each; they are bound together by bars of wrought iron, which run along the grooves *a a a*, on each side of the blocks, and are bolted through at equal distances, to cross braces of cast iron, passing between

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tween the ribs; of 6 of which, placed 5 feet from each other, the bridge conſiſts. The ſpandrels are filled up with iron circles, gradually diminiſhing from the ſides towards the centre; the whole is braced and tied together at top by a ſtrong frame of timber, on which a lead roof and the material of the road are laid. The ſpan of the arch is 236 feet; its height, from the ſurface of the river at low water, is 100 feet; ſpring of the arch 33 feet, and the breadth 32. The whole weight of iron is 250 tons, 210 of which are caſt, and 40 tons wrought iron. It is worthy of remark, that the whole of the metal part of the bridge was put together in 12 days. The iron work was caſt by Meſſrs Walker and Co. of Rotheram, under the direction of Rowland Burdon, Eſq. M. P. the inventor and patentee. The foundation ſtone was laid Sept. 24th, 1793, and the bridge was opened for the uſe of the public, Auguſt 9th, 1796.

v. BRIDGE OF WESTMINSTER. Among modern bridges, that of Weſtminſter, built over the river Thames, may be accounted one of the fineſt in the world: it is 44 feet wide, a commodious foot way being allowed for paſſengers, on each ſide, of about 7 feet broad, raiſed above the road allowed for carriages, and paved with broad moor ſtones, while the ſpace left between them is ſufficient to admit three carriages and two horſes to go a-breaſt, without any danger. Its extent from wharf to wharf is 1220 or 1223 feet, being full 300 feet longer than London bridge. The free water-way under the arches of this bridge is 870 feet, being 4 times as much as the free water-way left between the ſterlings of London bridge: this diſpoſition, together with the gentleneſs of the ſtream, are the chief reaſons why no ſenſible fall of water can ever ſtop, or in the leaſt endanger, the ſmalleſt boats in their paſſage through the arches. It conſiſts of 13 large and 2 ſmall arches, together with 24 intermediate piers. Each pier terminates with a ſaliant right angle againſt either ſtream: the two middle piers are each 17 feet in thickneſs at the ſpringing of the arches, and contain 3000 cubic feet, or near 200 tons, of ſolid ſtone; and the others decreaſe in width equally on each ſide by one foot. All the arches of this bridge are ſemicircular; they all ſpring from about two feet above low-water mark; the middle arch is 76 feet wide, and the others decreaſe in breadth equally on each ſide by 4 feet. This bridge is built of the beſt materials; and the ſize and diſpoſition of the materials are ſuch, that there is no falſe bearing, or ſo much as a falſe joint in the whole ſtructure; (See ARCHITECTURE, *Index*.) beſides that it is built in a neat and elegant taſte, and with ſuch ſimplicity and grandure, that, whether viewed from the water, or by the paſſengers who walk over it, it fills the mind with an agreeable ſurprize. The ſemiocfangular towers which form the receſſes of the foot way, the manner of placing the lamps, and the height of the baluſtrade, are at once the moſt beautiful, and, in every other reſpect, the beſt contrived.

vi. BRIDGES, EXTRAORDINARY. The longeſt bridge in England is that over the Trent at Burton, built by Bernard abbot of Burton, in the 12th century; it is all of ſquared free ſtone, ſtrong and lofty, 1545 feet in length, and conſiſting of 36 arches. Yet this comes far ſhort of the wooden bridge over the Drave, which according to Dr Brown is at leaſt 5 miles long. But the moſt ſingular bridge in Europe is that built over the Taff in Glamorganſhire. It conſiſts of one ſtupendous arch, the diameter of which is 175 feet, the chord 140, the altitude 35, and the abutments 32. This magnificent arch was built by William Edward, a poor country maſon, in 1756. The famous bridge of Veniee, called the RIALTO, conſiſts of but a ſingle arch, and that a flat or low one, and paſſed for a maſter-piece of art. It was built in 1591, on the deſign of Michael Angelo; the ſpan of the arch is 98½ feet, and its height above the water only 23.—Poulet mentions a bridge of a ſingle arch in the city of Munſter in Bothnia much bolder than that of the Rialto at Venice. But theſe are nothing to a bridge in China, built from one mountain to another, conſiſting of a ſingle arch 400 cubits long and 500 in height, whence it is called the *flying bridge*. A figure of it is given in the Philoſophical Tranſactions. Kircher alſo ſpeaks of a bridge in the ſame country, 360 perches long, and ſupported by 300 pillars.

vii. BRIDGES OF EDINBURGH. Theſe bridges differ from moſt other bridges in being built, not over waters, but dry land. They are diſtinguiſhed by the names of the North and South Bridge, and afford an eaſy and elegant communication, between the inhabitants of the New Towe, and thoſe in the extended royalty, and the ſuburbs on each ſide of it. They have contributed very much to the rapid improvement of the metropolis of Scotland ſince they were erected. See EDINBURGH. There is alſo a bridge of communication towards the caſtle between the Old and New Town, conſiſting of an immenſe mound of earth, above 800 feet in length, acroſs a deep moraſs; —"a work unrivalled, (ſays Mr Creech, in his account of Edinburgh,) by any but Alexander the Great's at Tyre." *See J. S's Stat. Acc.* VI. 585.

(10.) BRIDGES, NATURAL, are ſuch as are not conſtructed by art, but the reſult of ſome operation of nature. Our own country is not deſtitute of theſe natural curioſities. The rev. Mr Arkle in his account of the pariſh of Caſtletown in Roxburghſhire, gives the following deſcription of a natural bridge in that pariſh. "One of the greateſt curioſities," (ſays he,) "to be ſeen in this country, or perhaps in Scotland, is a bridge of ſtone over the river Blackburn. It ſtretches acroſs the ſtream, and joins the hills on each ſide. It is 55 feet long, 10 feet wide, and the thickneſs of the arch is 2 feet 4 inches of ſolid ſtone. It is not compoſed of one entire rock, but has the appearance of many ſtones, about a foot and a half ſquare, ſet neatly together. The bridge ſlopes a little downwards, and the water ruſhes under the arch, through an opening of 32 feet." (*Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc. Vol.* XVI. *p.* 79.) We have already deſcribed another on the coaſt of Caithneſs. See BORROWSTON. Mr Jefferſon, (now vice-preſident of the United States of America,) gives a particular deſcription of a moſt wonderful work of this kind, in his *State of Virginia*. It is on the aſcent of a hill, which ſeems to have been cloven through its length by ſome great convulſion

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sion. The fissure, just at the bridge, is, by some admeasurements, 270 feet deep, by others only 250. It is about 45 feet wide at the bottom, and 90 feet at the top; this of course determines the length of the bridge, and its height from the water. Its breadth in the middle is about 60 feet, but more at the ends, and the thickness of the mass at the summit of the arch about 40 feet. A part of this thickness is constituted by a coat of earth, which gives growth to many large trees. The residue, with the hill on both sides, is one solid rock of lime-stone. The arch approaches the semi-elliptical form; but the larger axis of that ellipsis, which would be the cord of the arch, is much longer than the transverse. Though the sides of this bridge are provided in some parts with a parapet of fixed rock, yet few men have a resolution to walk to them and look over into the abyss. One involuntarily falls on his hands and feet, creeps to the parapet, and peeps over it. Looking down from this height about a minute, gave Mr Jefferson a violent headach. If the view from the top be painful and intolerable, that from below is delightful in an equal extreme. It is impossible for the emotions arising from the sublime to be felt beyond what they are here: so beautiful an arch, so elevated, so light, and springing as it were up to heaven, the rapture of the spectator really is indescribable! This fissure continuing narrow, deep, and straight for a considerable distance above and below the bridge, opens a short but very pleasing view of the North mountain on one side and Blue-ridge on the other, at the distance of about 5 miles each. This bridge is in the county of Rock-bridge, to which it has given name, and affords a public and commodious passage over a valley, which cannot be crossed elsewhere for a considerable distance. The stream passing under it is called CEDAR-CREEK. It is a water of James River, and sufficient in the driest seasons to turn a grist mill, though its fountain is not more than two miles above. Don Ulloa mentions a break similar to this, in the province of Angaraez, in South America. It is from 16 to 22 feet wide, 111 feet deep, and of 1·3 miles continuance, English measure. Its breadth at top is not sensibly greater than at bottom. Don Ulloa inclines to this opinion, that this channel has been effected by the wearing of the water which runs through it, rather than that the mountain should have broken open by any convulsion of nature. But if it had been worn by the running of water, would not the rocks which form the sides have been worn plain? Or if, meeting in some parts with veins of harder stone, the water had left prominences on one side, would not the same cause have sometimes, or perhaps generally, occasioned prominences on the other side also? Yet Don Ulloa tells us, that on the other side there are always corresponding cavities, and that these tally with the prominences so perfectly, that, were the two sides to come together, they would fit in all their indentures, without leaving any void. In fact, this does not resemble the effect of running water, but looks rather as if the two sides had parted asunder. The sides of the break, over which is the Natural bridge of Virginia, consisting of a veiny rock which yields to time, the correspondence between the salient and re-entering qualities, if it existed at all, has now disappeared. This break has the advantage of the one described by Don Ulloa in its finest circumstance; no portion in that instance having held together, during the separation of the other parts, so as to form a bridge over the abyss.

(21.) BRIDGES OF BOATS are either made of copper or wooden boats, fastened with stakes or anchors, and laid over with planks. One of the most notable exploits of Julius Cæsar was his expeditious making a bridge of boats over the Rhine. Modern armies carry copper or tin boats, called *pontoons*, to be in readiness for making bridges; several of these being joined side by side till they reach across the river, and planks laid over them, make a plane for the men to march on. There are fine bridges of boats at Beaucaire and Rouen, which rise and fall with the water; and that at Seville is said to exceed them both. The bridge of boats at Rouen, built in lieu of the stately stone bridge erected there by the Romans, is represented by a modern writer as the wonder of the present age. It always floats, and rises and falls with the tide, or as the land waters fill the river. It is near 300 yards long, and is paved with stone, like streets; carriages with the greatest burdens go over it with ease, and men and horses with safety, though there are no rails on either hand. The boats are very firm, and well moored with strong chains, and the whole well looked after and constantly repaired, though now very old.

(22.) BRIDGES OF COMMUNICATION are those made over rivers, by which armies, or sorts, separated by rivers, have a free communication with one another.

(23.) BRIDGES, PENDENT, or PHILOSOPHICAL, are those not supported either by posts or pillars, but hung at large in the air, only supported at the two ends or butments. Instances of such bridges are given by Palladio and others. Dr Wallis gives the design of a timber bridge 70 feet long, without any pillars, which may be useful in some places where pillars cannot be conveniently erected. Dr Plot assures us, that there was formerly a large bridge over the castle ditch at Tilbury in Staffordshire, made of pieces of timber, none much above a yard long, and yet not supported underneath either with pillars or archwork, or any sort of prop whatever.

(24.) BRIDGE, RUSHEN, &c. *Ponts de jonc*, are made of large sheaves of rushes growing in marshy grounds, which they cover with boards or planks; they serve for crossing ground that is boggy, miry, or rotten. The Romans had also a sort of subitaneous bridges made by the soldiers, of boats, or sometimes of casks, leathern bottles, or bags, or even of bullocks bladders blown up and fastened together, called *ascogafri*. M. Couplet gives the figure of a portable bridge 200 feet long, easily taken asunder and put together again, and which 40 men may carry. Frezier speaks of a wonderful kind of a bridge at Apurima in Lima, made of ropes, formed of the bark of a tree.

(II.) BRIDGE, in geography, the name of two villages; 1. in Kent, 4 miles S. E. of Canterbury. 2. in Westmoreland, near Appleby.

(III.) BRIDGE, in gunnery, the two pieces of timber

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timber which go between the two transums of a gun-carriage on which the bed rests.

(IV.) BRIDGE, in music. See § 1. *def.* 3. The bridge of a violin is about one inch and a quarter high, and near an inch and a half long.

* *To* BRIDGE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To raise a bridge over any place.—

Came to the sea: and over Hellespont
Bridging his way, Europe with Asia join'd. *Milt.*

BRIDGE-BOTE, *n. s.* a tax formerly levied for repairing bridges.

BRIDGE-BUILDING, *n. s.* the art of building bridges. See ARCHITECTURE, INDEX, and BRIDGE, § I, 3.

BRIDGE-BOURT, a village in E. Medina, in the Isle of Wight.

BRIDGE-END, a thriving village of Perthshire, in the parish of Kinnoul, situated at the E. end of Perth bridge, along the eastern banks of the Tay, at the foot of Kinnoul hill. In 1794-5, by the rev. Mr Dunbar's report to Sir J. Sinclair, it consisted of 98 houses; some of which rent at 50l. a-year, and many of them at 10l. and upwards. It has a tannery, a brewery, and a malt-house; in the last of which 2008 bolls of barley were malted in 1794; which paid 761l. 10s. 9d. of duty. By the Earl of Kinnoul's charter, this village is appointed to be called *the burgh of* KINNOUL.

(1.) BRIDGEFORD, a village in Devonshire, 4 miles E. of Chegford.

(2.) BRIDGEFORD, EAST, in Nottinghamshire, N. of Bingham.

(3.) BRIDGEFORD, GREAT, and (4.) BRIDGEFORD, LITTLE, } 3 miles N. W. of Stafford.

(5.) BRIDGEFORD, WEST, near Nottingham.

BRIDGEHAM, near E. Harling, Norfolkshire.

BRIDGEHAMPTON, a post town of New-York, in Suffolk county, Long Island, between E. and S. Hampton; 196 miles from Philadelphia. It has a presbyterian church.

BRIDGEHOUSE BAY, a bay on the coast of Kirkudbright, where vessels of light burden anchor occasionally.

BRIDGE-MASTER, *n. s.* one who is entrusted with the care of a bridge, to keep it in repair.

BRIDGEMORE, a village in Cheshire, 6 miles S. E. of Nampwitch.

(1.) BRIDGEND, a town of S. Wales in Glamorganshire, seated on the Ogmore, which divides it into two parts, connected by a bridge. It is 7 miles W. by N. of Cowbridge, 27 from Cardiff, and 177½ W. from London. It has a considerable market on Saturday for cattle and provisions: with 2 fairs on 17 November and Holy Thursday. Lon. 3. 38. W. Lat. 51. 30. N.

(2.) BRIDGEND, a village of Scotland in Kirkcudbrightshire, in the parish of Troquire, containing 1202 inhabitants, in 1790.

(3.) BRIDGEND. See BRIDGE-END.

BRIDGENORTH, or BRUGES, a town of Shropshire, seated on the Severn, which divides it into two parts, united by a handsome stone bridge, and called the *upper* and *lower town*. It is said to have been built by Ethelfleda, widow of Ethelred king of the Mercians, about A. D. 675. Robert de Belizma, son of Robert de Montgomery, built the castle, and maintained it against king Henry I. by which means it was forfeited to the crown and remained so till the reign of Richard III. who gave it to John Sutton lord Dudley. This town has undergone several sieges; and in the civil war it suffered very much, many fine buildings, and the whole town, being almost destroyed by fire, when Sir Lewis Kirke defended the citadel for king Charles. There are now no other remains of the castle than a small part of the towers, and a place yet called the *castle*, within the walls of the old one; within which stands one of the churches, dedicated to St Mary Magdalen, which was made a free chapel, and exempted from episcopal jurisdiction. The other church is at the N. end of the town, on the highest part of the hill. Near its church-yard stood a college, which was burnt during the civil wars, together with the church, which has been since rebuilt by the inhabitants. On the W. bank of the river are the remains of a magnificent convent, under which were several remarkable vaults and caverns running to a great length. Part of the cow-gate street is a rock, rising perpendicularly, in which are several houses and tenements that make a very agreeable grotesque appearance. In many other places there are also caves and dwellings for families, in the rocks; and indeed the whole town has an appearance surprisingly singular. This town sends two members to parliament. It is 20 miles W. by N. of Birmingham, and 139 N. W. of London. Lon. 2. 28. W. Lat. 52. 36. N.

BRIDGEREVEL, a village in Devonshire, W. of Houlsworthy.

BRIDGERULE, in Cornwall, near Devonshire.

BRIDGESELLERS, W. of Hereford.

BRIDGESTOCK, in Northamptonshire, near Oundle, 3 miles from Thrapston. It has fairs May 6. September 5, and November 22.

BRIDGET, or BRIGIT, ST, a Swedish lady of the 14th century, famous for her revelations, and for being the founder of the order of the BRIGITTINES. Some represent her as a queen, but Fabricius on better grounds, says she was only a princess, and the daughter of king Birgenes, of Upland.

BRIDGETINES. See BRIGITTINES.

(1.) BRIDGETON, or BRIDGETOWN, } a thriving village in the barony of Glasgow, containing, along with that of Calton, 6695 inhabitants, in 1792.

(2.) BRIDGETOWN, a town of England, in Warwickshire, near Stratford upon Avon.

(3.) BRIDGETOWN, a town of Ireland, in Cork.

(4.) BRIDGETOWN, in Clare, 90 m. from Dublin.

(5.) BRIDGETOWN, a town of Maryland, in the eastern shore, seated on the Chester, partly in Kent, and partly in Queen Ann's county. It is 14 miles E. by N. of the town of Chester, and 65 S. W. of Philadelphia.

(6.) BRIDGETOWN, a town of New Jersey, 74 miles from Philadelphia.

(7.) BRIDGETOWN, a village of Scotland, in Fifeshire, 2 miles N. E. of Kinghorn.

(8.) BRIDGE-TOWN, the capital of Barbadoes, situated in the inmost part of Carlisle bay, which is capable of containing 500 ships. This was originally a most unwholesome situation, and was chosen entirely for its convenience for trade; but is now deemed as healthy as any place in the island. The town would make a figure in any European

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European kingdom. It contains 1500 houſes, and ſome contend that it is the fineſt the Britiſh poſſeſs in America. The houſes in general are well built and finiſhed, and their rent as high as ſuch houſes would let for in London. The wharfs and quays are well defended from the ſea, and very convenient. The harbour is ſecured from the NE. wind, which is the conſtant trade wind there. But what renders Bridge-town the fineſt and moſt deſirable town in the Weſt Indies, is its ſecurity againſt the attacks from foreign enemies. It is defended on the W. by James fort, which mounts 18 guns. Near this is Willoughby's fort, which is built upon a tongue of land running into the ſea, and mounts 12 guns. Needham's fort has three batteries, and is mounted with 20 guns; And St Ann's fort which is the ſtrongeſt in the iſland, ſtands more within land. In ſhort, according to Mr Douglas, there is all along the lee-ſhore a breaſt-work and trench, in which, at proper places, were 29 forts and batteries, having 308 cannon mounted, while the windward ſhore is ſecured by high rocks, ſteep cliffs, and foul ground. Such was the ſtate of the fortifications in 1717; but ſince that time they have been much ſtrengthened. Bridge-town has all the elegancies and conveniences of life that any city of Europe can afford. The church of St Michael exceeds many Engliſh cathedrals in beauty, largeneſs, and conveniency; and has a fine organ, bells, and clock. It has a free-ſchool for the inſtruction of poor boys, an hoſpital, and a college. The latter was erected by the ſociety for propagating the Chriſtian religion, in purſuance of the will of Colonel Chriſtopher Codrington, who left about 2000 l. a-year for its endowment, for maintaining profeſſors and ſcholars to ſtudy and practiſe divinity, ſurgery, and phyſic. See CODRINGTON. Lon. 59. 36. W. Lat. 13. 5. N.

(9.) BRIDGE-TOWN, the capital of Cumberland county, in New-Jerſey. It is ſituated on Cohanzy creek, 12 miles N. E. of Greenwich. The county court is held in it quarterly. It is 54 miles S. of Philadelphia. Lon. 0. 2. E. Lat. 39. 29. N.

BRIDGEWATER, a town of Somerſetſhire, ſeated on the river Parret, over which there is a ſtone bridge, near which ſhips of 100 tons burden may ride with eaſe. It is a large well frequented place, and ſends two members to parliament. There are in it ſeveral large inns, and the market is well ſupplied with proviſions. It is 31 miles SSW. of Briſtol, 137 W. by S. of London, and 2 from Star-point. Lon. 3. 10. W. Lat. 51. 7. N.

BRIDGUME, *n. ſ. obſ.* A bridegroom.

(1.) * BRIDLE. *n. ſ.* [*bride*, Fr.] 1. The headſtall and reins by which a horſe is reſtrained and governed.—

They ſeiz'd at laſt
His courſer's *bridle*, and his feet embrac'd. *Dryd.*

2. A reſtraint; a curb; a check.—The king reſolved to put that place, which ſome men fancied to be a *bridle* upon the city, into the hands of ſuch a man as he might rely upon. *Clarend.*—A bright genius often betrays itſelf into many errours, without a continual *bridle* on the tongue. *Watts.*

(2.) BRIDLE, PARTS OF A, &c. Theſe are the bit or ſnaffle; the head-ſtall, or leathers from the top of the head to the rings of the bit; the fillet, over the fore-head, and under the fore-top; the throat-band, which buttons from the head-band under the throat; the reins, or long thongs of leather that come from the rings of the bit, and being caſt over the horſe's head, the rider holds them in his hand; the noſe-band, going through loops of the back of the head-ſtall, and buckled under the cheeks; the trench; the caveſan; the martingal; and the chaff-halter.

(3.) BRIDLES, ANCIENT ACCOUNTS OF. Pliny aſſures us that one Pelethonius firſt invented the bridle and ſaddle; though Virgil aſcribes the invention to the Lapithæ, to whom he gives the epithet, *Plethronii*, from a mountain in Theſſaly named PELETHRONIUM, where horſes were firſt begun to be broken. The firſt horſemen, not being acquainted with the art of governing horſes with bridles managed them only with a rope or a ſwitch, and the accent of the voice. This was the practice of the Numidians, Getulians, Libyans, and Maſſilians. The Roman youth alſo learned the art of fighting without bridles, which was an exerciſe or leſſon in the manege; and hence it is, that on the Trojan column, ſoldiers are repreſented riding at full ſpeed without any bridles on.

(4.) BRIDLES, BOWLING. See BOWLING BRIDLES.

(5.) BRIDLES, SCOLDING. See BRANK, N° 1.

(1.) * *To* BRIDLE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To reſtrain, or guide by a bridle.—

I *bridle* in my ſtruggling muſe with pain,
That longs to launch into a bolder ſtrain. *Addiſ.*

2. To put a bridle on any thing.—

The queen of beauty ſtop'd her *bridled* doves;
Approv'd the little labour of the Loves. *Prior.*

3. To reſtrain; to govern.—The diſpoſition of things is committed to them, whom law may at all times *bridle*, and ſuperiour power controul. *Hooker.*

With a ſtrong, and yet a gentle hand,
You *bridle* faction, and our hearts command.
Waller.

(2.) * *To* BRIDLE. *v. n.* To hold up the head.

* BRIDLEHAND. *n. ſ.* [from *bridle* and *hand*.] The hand which holds the bridle in riding.—In the turning one might perceive the *bridlehand* ſomething gently ſtir; but, indeed ſo gently, as it did rather diſtil virtue than uſe violence. *Sidney.*—The heat of ſummer put his blood into a ferment, which affected his *bridlehand* with great pain. *Wiſeman.*

BRIDLINGTON, or BURLINGTON, a ſea-port town in the E. riding of Yorkſhire. It is ſeated on a creek of the ſea near Flamborough-head, having a commodious quay for ſhips to take in their lading. It has a ſafe harbour, and is a place of good trade. It is 36 miles N. of Hull, and 208 of London. Lon. 0. 5. W. Lat. 54. 8. N.

BRIDON, } or SNAFFLE, after the Engliſh
BRIDOON, } faſhion, is a very ſlender bit-mouth without any branches. The Engliſh make much uſe of them, and ſcarcely uſe any true bridles except in the ſervice of war. The French call them *bridons*, by way of diſtinction from bridles.

BRIDPORT, a neat and well built ſea-port town of Dorſetſhire, ſituated between two rivers, on a ſmall hill, 6 miles from Lyme. It ſends two members to parliament, who are choſen by ſuch of the inhabitants as are houſekeepers. It is noted for

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for making ropes and cables for shipping; whence arises the proverb of a man that is hanged, that he is *stabbed with a Bridport dagger*. It is 12 miles W. of Dorchester, and 135 W. by S. of London. Lon. 2. 52. W. Lat. 50. 42. N.

BRIDSTOW, a village in Herefordsh. near Ross.

(1.) BRIDY, BONVIL'S, (2.) BRIDY, LITTLE, and (3.) BRIDY, LONG, three English villages in Dorsetsh. near each other.

(1.) BRIE, a ci-devant territory of France, now comprehended in the department of Seine and Marne. It abounds in corn, cattle, and pasture; and has been long noted for excellent cheese.

(2.) BRIE, or BRIE COMTE ROBERT, a town of France, in the department of Seine and Marne. The latter name is doubtless now disused, as savouring of the ancient aristocracy.

BRIECH, a river of Scotland, in Mid Lothian, which falls into the Amon.

(1.) * BRIEF. *adj.* [*brevis*, Lat. *brief*, French.] 1. Short; concise. It is now seldom used but of words.—

A play there is, my lord, some ten words long,
Which is as *brief* as I have known a play;
But by ten words, my lord, it is too long,
Which makes it tedious. *Shak.*

I will be mild and gentle in my words.—
—And *brief*, good mother, for I am in haste. *Shak.*

I must begin with rudiments of art,
To teach you gamut in a *briefer* sort,
More pleasant, pretty and effectual. *Shak.*

—They nothing doubt prevailing, and to make it *brief* wars. *Shak. Coriolanus.*—The *brief* stile, is that which expresseth much in little. *Ben Jonson.*—If I had quoted more words, I had quoted more profaneness; and therefore Mr Congreve has reason to thank me for being *brief*. *Collier.* 2. Contracted; narrow.—

The shrine of Venus, or straight pight Minerva,
Postute, beyond *brief* nature. *Shak.*

(2.) * BRIEF. *n. s.* [*brief*, Dutch, a letter.] 1. A writing of any kind.—

There is a *brief*, how many sports are ripe;
Make choice of which your highness will see first. *Shak.*

—The apostolical letters are of a twofold kind and difference, *viz.* some are called *briefs*, because they are comprised in a short and compendious way of writing. *Aylife.* 2. A short extract, or epitome.—

But how you must begin this enterprize,
I will your highness thus in *brief* advise.
F. Queen.

—I doubt not but I shall make it plain, as far as a sum or *brief* can make a cause plain. *Bacon.*—The *brief* of this transaction is, these springs that arise here are impregnated with vitriol. *Woodward.* 3. [In law.] A writ whereby a man is summoned to answer to any action; or it is any precept of the king in writing, issuing out of any court, whereby he commands any thing to be done, *Cowel.* 4. The writing given the pleaders, containing the case.—

The *brief* with weighty crimes was charg'd,
On which the plea ler much enlarg'd. *Swift.*

5. Letters patent, giving licence to a charitable collection for any publick or private loss. 6. [In musick.] A measure of quantity, which contains two strokes down in beating time, and as many up. *Harris.*

(3.) BRIEF, in English law, (§ 2. *def.* 3.) an abridgment of the client's case, made out for the instruction of council on a trial at law; wherein the case of the plaintiff, &c. is to be briefly but fully stated: the proofs must be placed in due order, and proper answers made to whatever may be objected to the client's cause by the opposite side; and herein great care is requisite, that nothing be omitted, to endanger the cause.

(4.) BRIEF, in Scots law, a writ issued from the chancery, directed to any judge ordinary, commanding and authorising that judge to call a jury to enquire into the case mentioned in the brief, and upon their verdict to pronounce sentence.

(5.) BRIEFS, APOSTOLICAL, letters which the pope dispatches to princes, or other magistrates relating to any public affair.—These briefs are distinguished from bulls, the latter being more ample, always written on parchment, and sealed with lead or green wax; whereas briefs are very concise, written on paper, sealed with red wax, and with the seal of a fisherman, or St Peter in a boat.

* BRIEFLY. *adv.* [from *brief*.] Concisely; in few words.—I will speak in that manner which the subject requires; that is, probably, and moderately, and *briefly*. *Bacon.*—

The modest queen a while, with downcast eyes,
Ponder'd the speech; then *briefly* thus replies.
Dryden.

* BRIEFNESS. *n. s.* [from *brief*.] Conciseness; shortness.—They excel in grandity and gravity, in smoothness and propriety, in quickness and *briefness*. *Camden.*

(1.) BRIEG, a territory of Silesia in Germany.

(2.) BRIEG, a town in the above territory. (N° 1.) It was a handsome place before the last siege; the castle, the college, and the arsenal, being very great ornaments, and most of the houses very well built. But the Prussians, who besieged it in 1741, threw 2172 bombs into it, and 4714 cannon bullets, which reduced a great part of the town to ashes, and quite ruined a wing of the castle. It was obliged to surrender, after sustaining continual fire, for 7 days. The Prussians, to whom it was ceded by the peace, augmented the fortifications, and built a new suburb. It stands upon the Oder; on the other side of which there are plenty of fallow deer, and large forests of beech and oak trees. It has a fair, at which about 12,000 horned cattle are annually sold. Since 1728, a manufacture of fine cloth has been established. It is 20 miles S. E. of Breslaw. Lon. 17. 20. E. Lat. 50. 50. N.

BRIEL, or BRILL, a maritime town of the United Provinces, and capital of the island of Vuorn. It was one of the cautionary towns which was delivered into the hands of Q. Elizabeth, and garrisoned by the English during her reign and part of the next. The Dutch took it from the Spaniards, in 1572, which was the foundation of their republic. It is seated at the mouth of the Meuse, 13 miles S. W. of Rotterdam. Lon. 3. 56. E. Lat. 51. 53. N.

BRIENNE,

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BRIENNE, a town of France, in the ci-devant province of Champagne.

BRIENNOIS, a ci-devant territory of France, on the Loire. It was the S. diviſion of burgundy.

BRIENNTZ, a lake of Switzerland in Bern.

(1.) * BRIER. *n. ſ.* [*brær*, Sax.] A plant. The ſweet and the wild ſort are both ſpecies of the *roſe*.—

What ſubtle hole is this.
Whoſe mouth is covered with rude growing *briers?* *Shakeſpeare.*

Then thrice under a *brier* doth creep,
Which at bottom ends was rooted deep,
And over it three times doth leap;
Her magick much availing. *Drayton's Nymph.*

(2.) BRIER, in botany. See ROSA.

BRIERLY, the name of three Engliſh villages; viz. 1. in Herdfordſhire, S. E. of Leominſter: 2. in Staffordſhire, E. of Sedgley: and 3. in Yorkſhire, near Barnſley.

* BRIERY. *adj.* [from *brier.*] Rough; thorny; full of briers.

BRIESCIA, a palatinate of Poland, in the duchy of Lithuania; by ſome called POLESIA. It is bounded on the N. by Novogrode and Troki; on the W. by Bielſko and Lublin; on the S. by Chelm and Upper Volhinia; and on the E. by the territory of Rziczica. It is of conſiderable extent from E. to W. and is watered by the rivers Bug and Pripeſe: it is full of woods and marſhes; and has lakes that yield large quantities of fiſh, which are ſalted by the inhabitants, and ſent into the neighbouring provinces.

BRIETIUS, Philip a learned French geographer, born at Abbeville, in 1601. He became a Jeſuit in 1619, and died librarian of their college at Paris in 1668. His *Parallela Geographiæ Veteris et Novæ*, publiſhed in 3 vols. 4to, 1648-9, is a very exact methodical work. He publiſhed alſo *Annales Mundi*, in 7 vols. 12mo, from the creation to A. D. 1663: and *Theatrum Geographiæ Europæ Veteris*, in 1653, fol. He was likewiſe concerned in a Chronological work with father Labbé.

BRIEUX, St, a town of France, in the department of Finiſterre, and ci-devant province of Upper Brittany. It is ſeated in a bottom, ſurrounded with mountains, which deprive it of a proſpect of the ſea, though it is not above a mile and a quarter from it, and there forms a ſmall port. The churches, ſtreets, and ſquares, are tolerably handſome; but the town is without walls and ditches. The church of Michael is in the ſuburb of the ſame name, and is the largeſt in the place. The convent of the Cordeliers is well built, and the garden is ſpacious. The college, which is very near, is maintained by the town for the inſtruction of youth. Lon. 2. 38. W. Lat. 48. 31. N.

BRIEY, a town of France, in the department of Moſelle, and ci-devant province of Lorrain; 30 miles N. E. of St Michael.

(1.) * BRIG, and poſſibly alſo BRIX, is derived from the Saxon *brieg*, a bridge; which, to this day, in the northern countries, is called a *brigg*, and not a *bridge*. *Gibſon's Camden.*

(2.) BRIG, or BRIGANTINE, a merchant ſhip with two maſts. This term is not univerſally confined to veſſels of a particular conſtruction, or which are maſted and rigged in a manner different from all others. It is variouſly applied, by the mariners of different European nations, to a peculiar ſort of veſſel of their own marine. Amongſt Britiſh ſeamen, this veſſel is diſtinguiſhed by having her main-ſails ſet nearly in the plane of her keel; whereas the main-ſails of larger ſhips are hung athwart, or at right angles with the ſhip's length, and faſtened to a yard which hangs parallel with the deck: but in a brig, the foremoſt edge of the main-ſail is faſtened in different places to hoops which encircle the main-maſt, and ſlide up and down it as the ſail is hoiſted or lowered, it is extended by a gaff above and a boom below.

(3.) BRIG, BRIGG, or GLANDFORD BRIDGES, a town in Lincolnſhire, ſeated on the river Ankam; 25 miles N. of Lincoln, and 153 N. of London. Lon. 0. 20. W. Lat. 53. 40. N.

BRIGA, *n. ſ.* in old records, a quarrel.

(1.) * BRIGADE. *n. ſ.* [*brigade*, Fr. It is now generally pronounced with the accent on the laſt ſyllable.] A diviſion of forces; a body of men, conſiſting of ſeveral ſquadrons of horſe, or battalions of foot.—

Or fronted *brigades* form. *Milton.*
Here the Bavarian duke his *brigades* leads.
Gallant in arms, and gaudy to behold. *Philips.*

(2.) BRIGADES. An army is divided into brigades of horſe and brigades of foot. A brigade of horſe is a body of 8 or 10 ſquadrons; a brigade of foot conſiſts of 4, 5, or 6 battalions. The eldeſt brigade has the right of the firſt line, and the ſecond the right of the ſecond; the two next take the left of the two lines, and the youngeſt ſtand in the centre.

* BRIGADE MAJOR. An officer appointed by the brigadier to aſſiſt him in the management and ordering of his brigade; and he there acts as a major does in an army. *Harris.*

(1.) * BRIGADIER GENERAL. An officer who commands a brigade of horſe or foot in an army; next in order below a major general.

(2.) BRIGADIER GENERAL is a poſt to which the eldeſt colonels are generally advanced. He that is upon duty is brigadier of the day.—They march at the head of their own brigades, and are allowed a ſerjeant and ten men of their own brigade for their guard. But the rank of brigadier general in the Britiſh ſervice is now aboliſhed.

BRIGADIERS, or SUB BRIGADIERS, are poſts in the horſe guards.

* BRIGAND. *n. ſ.* [*brigand*, Fr.] A robber; one that belongs to a gang of robbers.—There might be a rout of ſuch barbarous thieviſh *brigands* in ſome rocks; but it was a degeneration from the nature of man, a political creature. *Bramhall againſt Hobbes.*

* BRIGANDINE, BRIGANTINE. *n. ſ.* [from *brigand.*] 1. A light veſſel; ſuch as has been formerly uſed by corſairs or pirates.—

Like as a warlike *brigandine*, apply'd
To fight, lays forth her threatful pikes afore
The engines, which in them ſad death to hide. *Spenſer.*

In your *brigantine* you ſail'd to ſee
The Adriatick wedded. *Otway's Venice Preſ.*

—The conſul obliged him to deliver up his fleet, and

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and reſtore the ſhips, reſerving only to himſelf two *brigantines*, *Arbuthnot*. 2. A coat of mail.—

Then put on all thy gorgeous arms, thy helmet
And *brigandine* of braſs, thy broad habergeons
Vantbraſs and greves. *Milt. Samſon Agoniſtes.*

(2.) BRIGANDINES, (§ 1. *def.* 2.) were a kind of ancient defenſive armour, conſiſting of thin jointed ſcales of plate, pliant and eaſy to the body.

(1.) BRIGANTES, an ancient people of Britain, who occupied the territory from ſea to ſea, the whole breadth of the iſland; now called Yorkſhire, Lancaſter, Durham, Weſtmoreland, and Cumberland.

(2.) BRIGANTES, an ancient people of Ireland, of uncertain poſition.

(1.) BRIGANTIA, or BRIGANTIUM, in ancient geography, a town of Vindelicia; now called BREGENTZ.

(2.) BRIGANTIA. See BRIGANTINUS, N° 1.

BRIGANTII, an ancient people of Rhætia, who dwelt near the Brigantine lake.

BRIGANTINE. See BRIG, and BRIGANDINE.

(1.) BRIGANTINUS LACUS, in ancient geography, a lake of Rhætia, or Vindelicia, which Tacitus includes in Rhætia. Ammianus calls it BRIGANTIA. It took its name either from the BRIGANTII, or from the adjoining town. It is now called CONSTANCE or BODENZEE.

(2.) BRIGANTINUS PORTUS, in ancient geography, a port of the Hither Spain; ſo called from Flavium Brigantium; now *El Poerto de la Corunna*, and more commonly the GROYNE.

(1.) BRIGANTIUM, in ancient geography, a town in the Alpes Cottiæ, now thought to be BRIANCON.

(2.) BRIGANTIUM. See BRIGANTIA, N° 1.

BRIGG. See BRIG, N° 3.

BRIGGE, *n. ſ. obſ.* A bridge. *Chaucer.*

BRIGGENS, a village in Hertfordſhire, near Hunſdon and Epping Foreſt.

BRIGGESLEH, 6 m. S. of Grimſby, Lincolnſhire.

(1.) BRIGGS, a range of rocks on the N. ſide of Carrickfergus bay, in Down, Ireland.

(2.) BRIGGS, Henry, one of the greateſt mathematicians in the 16th century, was born at Warley Wood, Yorkſhire, in 1556. In 1592, he was made examiner and lecturer in mathematics, and ſoon after reader of the phyſical lecture founded by Dr Linacre. When Greſham college in London was eſtabliſhed, he was choſen the firſt profeſſor of geometry there, in 1596. In 1609, he contracted an intimacy with Mr Uſher afterwards Abp. of Armagh, which continued many years by letters, two of which, written by Mr Briggs, are yet extant. In one of theſe letters, dated Aug. 1610, he tells his friend, he was engaged in the ſubject of eclipſes; and in the other, dated March 10th, 1615, he acquaints him with his being wholly employed about the noble invention of logarithms, then lately diſcovered, in the improvement of which, he had afterwards, a large ſhare. In 1619, he was made Savilian profeſſor of geometry at Oxford; and reſigned his profeſſorſhip of Greſham college on the 26th of July, 1620. Soon after his going to Oxford, he was made M. A. in that univerſity; where he continued till his death, on Jan. 26, 1630. Dr Smith gives him the character of a man of great probity; a contemner of riches, and contented with his own ſtation; preferring a ſtudious retirement to all the ſplendor of life. He wrote, 1. *Logarithmorum chilias prima.* 2. *Arithmetica logarithmica.* 3. *Trigonometria Britannica.* 4. A ſmall tract on the north-weſt paſſage; and ſome other works.

(3.) BRIGGS, William, an eminent phyſician in the latter end of the 17th century, was the ſon of Auguſtine Briggs, Eſq; 4 times member for the city of Norwich, where our author was born. He ſtudied phyſic at Cambridge, and travelled into France, where he attended the lectures of the famous anatomiſt M. Vieuſſens at Montpelier. After his return, he publiſhed his *Ophthalmographia*, in 1676. In 1677, he was created M. D. at Cambridge; and ſoon after was made fellow of the college of phyſicians, at London. In 1682, his *Theory of Viſion* was publiſhed by Hooke. In 1683, ſent to the Royal Society a continuation of that diſcourſe, which was publiſhed in their tranſactions; and the ſame year, he was, by K. Charles II. appointed phyſician to St Thomas's hoſpital. In 1684, he communicated to the Royal Society two remarkable caſes relating to viſion, which were alſo printed in their tranſactions; and, in 1685, he publiſhed a Latin verſion of his *Theory of Viſion*, at the deſire of Mr Newton, afterwards Sir Iſaac, profeſſor of mathematics at Cambridge, with a recommendatory epiſtle from him prefixed to it. He was afterwards made phyſician in ordinary to K. William, and continued in great eſteem for his ſkill in his profeſſion till Sept. 4, 1704, when he died.

BRIGGS's LOGARITHMS are that ſpecies of them in which 1 is the logarithm of the ratio of 10 to 1, or the logarithm of 10.

BRIGHAM, two villages, viz. 1. in Cumberland, 2 miles W. of Cockermouth: 2. in Yorkſhire, near Frodlingham.

* BRIGHT. *adj.* [*beort*, Sax.] 1. Shining; full of light.—

Through a cloud
Drawn round about thee like a radiant ſhrine,
Dark, with exceſſive *bright*, thy ſkirts appear.
Milton.

Then ſhook the ſacred ſhrine, and ſudden light
Sprung through the roof, and made the temple *bright*. *Dryden.*

2. Shining as a body reflecting light.—

Bright braſs, and brighter doomes. *Chapm.*
The eyes are ſeen in diamonds *bright*. *Gay.*
Bright as the ſun her eyes the gazers ſtrike.
Pope.

3. Clear; conſpicuous.—

From the *brighteſt* wines
He'd turn abhorrent. *Thomſon.*
While the *bright* Seine t' exalt the ſoul,
With ſparkling plenty crowns the bowl. *Fenton.*

4. Clear; evident.—He muſt not proceed too ſwiftly, that he may with more eaſe, and with *brighter* evidence, and with ſurer ſucceſs, draw the learner on. *Watt's Improvement of the Mind.* 5. Reſplendent with charms.—

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Thy beauty appears,
In its graces and airs,
All *bright* as an angel new drop'd from the sky.
Parnel.

O Liberty, thou goddess heav'nly *bright*,
Profuse of bliss, and pregnant with delight!
Addison.

Bright as the sun, and like the morning fair,
Such Chloe is, and common as the air. *Granv.*

To day black omens threat the *brightest* fair
That e'er engag'd a watchful spirit's care.
Pope.

Thou more dreaded foe, *bright* beauty, shine.
Young.

6. Illuminated with science; sparkling with wit.—
Gen'rous, gay and gallant nation,
Great in arms, and *bright* in art. *Anonymous.*
If parts allure thee, think how Bacon shin'd,
The wisest, *brightest*, meanest of mankind. *Pope.*

7. Illustrious; glorious.—
This is the worst, if not the only stain,
I' th' *brightest* annals of a female reign. *Cotton.*

(1.) * *To* BRIGHTEN. *v. a.* [from *bright.*]

1. To make bright; to make to shine.—
The purple morning rising with the year,
Salutes the spring as her celestial eyes
Adorn the world, and *brighten* up the skies.
Dryden.

2. To make luminous by light from without.—
An ecstasy, that mother's only feel,
Plays round my heart, and *brightens* all my sorrow,
Like gleams of sunshine in a louring sky.
Philips.

3. To make gay, or cheerful.—
Hope elevates, and joy
Brightens his crest. *Milton's Paradise Lost.*

4. To make illustrious.—The present queen would *brighten* her character, if she would exert her authority to instil virtues in her people. *Swift.*—
Yet time ennobles, or degrades each line;
It *brighten'd* Craggs's and may darken thine.
Pope.

5. To make acute, or witty.

(2.) * *To* BRIGHTEN. *v. n.* To grow bright; to clear up; as, the sky *brightens.*—
But let a lord once own the happy lines,
How the style *brightens*, how the sense refines.
Pope.

BRIGHTHELMSTONE, or BRIGHTON, a sea port town of Sussex in England. It is a pretty large and populous town, though ill built, and has a pretty good harbour. At this place, King Charles II. embarked for France, 1651, after the battle of Worcester. It has lately been considerably extended and embellished, in consequence of its being become a place of great resort for sea bathing. The Prince of Wales has erected a seat in it. It lies very low; which protected it on different occasions from the cannon of the French, whose balls flew over it, when they attempted to demolish it; but exposes it to a still more formidable enemy, viz. the sea, which is continually encroaching on it. Within these 45 years, it has destroyed above 150 tenements, to the value of near L.40,000. In Nov. 1786, in particular, it destroyed the block house and several other houses worth many thousand pounds. Brighton has a market on Thursday, and two fairs on Holy Thurs. and Sept. 4. Before the war, it was the station of the packet boats to and from Dieppe, in France. It is 74 miles NW. from Dieppe; 56 S. of London, and 12 from Lewes. Lon. 0. 6. W. Lat. 50. 52. N.

BRIGHTLEY, a village of Devonshire, SW. of Moulton.

BRIGHTLING, a town in Sussex.

* BRIGHTLY. *adv.* [from *bright.*] Splendidly; with lustre.—
Safely I slept, till *brightly* dawning shone
The morn, conspicuous on her golden throne.
Pope.

* BRIGHTNESS. *n. s.* [from *bright.*] 1. Lustre; splendour: glitter.—
The blazing *brightness* of her beauty's beam,
And glorious light of her sun-shining face,
To tell, were as to strive against the stream.
Fairy Queen.

—A sword, by long lying still, will contract a rust, which shall deface its *brightness*. *South.*—
The moon put on her vail of light,
Mysterious veil, of *brightness* made;
That's both her lustre and her shade. *Hudibras.*
Vex'd with the present moment's heavy gloom,
Why seek we *brightness* from the years to come!
Prior.

2. Acuteness.—The *brightness* of his parts, the solidity of his judgment, and the candour and generosity of his temper distinguished him in an age of great politeness. *Prior.*

BRIGHTON. See BRIGHTHELMSTONE.

BRIGHT-WALTON, a village in Berkshire.

BRIGHTWELL, 3 villages; 1. in Berkshire, near Wallingford: 2. in Oxfordshire, near Astrop-Wells: and 3. in Suffolk, E. of Ipswich.

BRIGITTINS, or BRIDGETINS, a religious order, denominated from their founder St BRIDGET. The Brigittins are sometimes also called the *order of our Saviour*; it being pretended that Christ himself dictated their rules and constitutions to St Bridget. In the main, the rule is that of St Austine; only with additions pretended to have been revealed by Christ. The first monastery of the Bridgetin order was erected by the foundress A. D. 1344, in the diocese of Lincopen; on the model of which all the rest were formed. The constitution of these houses was very singular: though the order was principally intended for nuns, who were to pay a special homage to the holy Virgin, there are also many friars of it, to minister to them spiritual assistance. The number of nuns is fixed at 60 in each monastery, and that of friars to 13, answerable to the number of apostles, of whom St Paul made the 13th; besides which there are 4 deacons, to represent the 4 doctors of the church, St Ambrose, St Austin, St Gregory, and St Jerome; and 8 lay brothers; making, together with the nuns, the number of the 72 disciples. The order being instituted in honour of the Virgin, the direction is committed to an abbess, who is superior both of the nuns and of the friars. Each house consists of 2 convents, or monasteries, separately inclosed, but having one church in common; the nuns being placed above, and the friars on the ground. The Bridgetins profess great mortification, poverty, and self-denial,

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denial, as well as devotion: and they are not to poſſeſs any thing they can call their own, not ſo much as an halfpenny; nor even to touch money on any account. This order ſpread much through Sweden, Germany, the Netherlands, &c. In England we read of but one monaſtery of Brigittins, built by Henry V. in 1415, oppoſite to Richmond, now called *Sion houſe*; the ancient inhabitants of which, after the diſſolution, ſettled at Liſbon. The revenues were reckoned at 1495 l. per annum.

BRIGLEY, a town N. of Bradford, Yorkſhire.

BRIGMILSTON, a village in Wiltſhire, oppoſite to Ablington.

BRIGNEL, 2 miles from Barnard-Caſtle, Yorkſhire.

BRIGNOLES, a town of France, in the department of Var, and ci-devant province of Provence, famous for its prunes. It is ſeated among mountains, in a pleaſant country, 325 miles SSE. of Paris. Lon. 6. 15. E. Lat. 43. 24. N.

BRIGOWNE, a town of Ireland, in Cork.

BRIGSTER, a village in Weſtmoreland.

BRIGSTOCK, in Northamptonſhire, near Weldon. It has 3 fairs; May 6, Sept. 5, Nov. 22.

BRIHUEGA, a town of Spain, in New Caſtile, where Gen. Stanhope with 8 ſquadrons and 8 battalions of the Engliſh army were taken priſoners, in 1710, after they had ſeparated themſelves from that commanded by count Staremberg. It is ſeated at the foot of the mountain Tajuna, 43 miles NE. of Madrid. Lon. 3. 20. W. Lat. 41. 6. N.

BRIKE, *adj. obſ.* Strait; narrow. *Chauc.*

(1.) BRIL, Matthew, a native of Antwerp, and a good painter, born in 1550, and educated at Rome. He was eminent for his performances in hiſtory and landſcape, in the galleries of the Vatican; where he was employed by Pope Gregory XIII. He died in 1584, aged only 34.

(2.) BRIL, Paul, was born in 1554; followed his brother Matthew, (N° 1.) to Rome; painted ſeveral things in conjunction with him; and after his deceaſe, raiſed his own fame by his landſcapes; owing to his having ſtudied the manner of Hannibal Carrache, and copied ſome of Titan's works of the ſame kind. He was much in favour with Pope Sixtus V. and painted for his ſucceſſor Clement VIII. the famous piece, about 68 feet long, wherein St Clement is repreſented caſt into the ſea with an anchor about his neck. He died at Rome in 1526, aged 72.

BRILL, two villages; 1. in Buckinghamſhire near Aſhenden: and 2. in Middleſex, between London and Pancras.

BRILLEY, a village in Herefordſhire, near Eardiſley.

* BRILLIANCY. *n. ſ.* [from *brilliant.*] Luſtre; ſplendour.

(1.) * BRILLIANT. *adj.* [*brilliant*, Fr.] Shining; ſparkling; ſplendid; full of luſtre.—

So have I ſeen in larder dark
Of veal a lucid loin,
Replete with many a *brilliant* ſpark,
As wiſe philoſophers remark,
At once both ſtink and ſhine. *Dorſet.*

(2.) * BRILLIANT. *n. ſ.* A diamond of the fineſt cut, formed into angles, ſo as to refract the light and ſhine more.—

In deference to his virtues, I forbear
To ſhow you what the reſt in orders were;
This *brilliant* is ſo ſpotleſs and ſo bright,
He needs not foil, but ſhines by his own proper light. *Dryden.*

(3.) BRILLIANT, in the manege, is applied to a briſk, high mettled, ſtately, horſe, having a raiſed neck, a fine motion, and excellent haunches, upon which he riſes, though ever ſo little put on.

* BRILLIANTNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *brilliant.*] Splendour; luſtre;

* BRILLS. *n. ſ.* The hairs on the eye-lids of a horſe. *Dict.*

(1.) * BRIM. *n. ſ.* [*brim*, Icelandiſh.] 1. The edge of any thing.—His hat being in the form of a turban, daintily made, the locks of his hair came down about the *brims* of it. *Bacon.* 2. The upper edge of any veſſel.—

How my head in ointment ſwims!
How my cup o'erlooks her *brims*. *Craſhaw.*
So when with crackling flames, a cauldron fries,
The bubbling waters from the bottom riſe,
Above the *brims* they force their fiery way.
Dryden's Æn.

Thus in a baſon drop a ſhilling,
Then fill the veſſel to the *brim*,
You ſhall obſerve, as you are filling,
The pond'rous metal ſeems to ſwim. *Swift.*

3. The top of any liquor.—The feet of the prieſts that bare the ark were dipped in the *brim* of the water. *Joſhua*, iii. 15. 4. The bank of a fountain.

It told me it was Cynthia's own,
Within thoſe cheerful *brims*
That curious nymph had oft been known
To bathe her ſnowy limbs. *Drayton.*

(2.) BRIM denotes the outmoſt verge or edge, eſpecially of round things. The brims of veſſels are made to project a little over, to hinder liquors, in pouring out, from running down the ſide of the veſſel. The brimming of veſſels was contrived by the ancient potters, in imitation of the ſupercilium or drip of the cornices of columns: it is done by turning over ſome of the double matter when the work is on the wheel.

(1.) * *To* BRIM. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To fill to the top.—

May the *brimmed* waves, for this,
Their full tribute never miſs,
From a thouſand rills. *Milton.*

This ſaid a double wreath Evander twin'd:
And poplars black and white his temples bind;
Then *brims* his ample bowl; with like deſign
The reſt invoke the gods, with ſprinkled wine.
Dryden.

(2.) * *To* BRIM. *v. n.* To be full to the brim.—

Now horrid frays
Commence, the *brimming* glaſſes now are hurl'd
With dire intent. *Philips.*

(3.) *To* BRIM, in country affairs. A ſow is ſaid to *brim*, or, *to go to brim*, when ſhe is ready to take the boar.

BRIMA, a name of Proſerpine.

* BRIMFUL. *adj.* [from *brim* and *full.*] Full to the top; overcharged.—

Meaſure my caſe, how by thy beauty's filling,
With ſeed of woes my heart *brimful* is charg'd.
Sidney.

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We have try'd the utmoſt of our friends;
Our legions are *brimful*, our cauſe is ripe.
Shakeſp. J. Cæſar.

Her *brimful*, eyes, that ready ſtood,
And only wanted will to weep a flood,
Releas'd their watry ſtore. *Dryden's Fables.*

The good old king at parting wrung my hand,
His eyes *brimful* of tears; then ſighing cry'd,
Prithee be careful of my ſon. *Addiſon's Cato.*

* BRIMFULNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *brimful.*] Fulneſs to the top.—

The Scot, on his unfurniſh'd kingdom,
Came pouring like a tide into a beach,
With ample and *brimfulneſs* of his force.
Shakeſp. Hen. V.

BRIMINGTON, a village in Derbyſhire, near Cheſterfield.

BRIMLEY, a town near Little Hereford.

* BRIMMER. *n. ſ.* [from *brim.*] A bowl full to the top.—

When healths go round and kindly *brimmers* flow,
Till the freſh garlands on their foreheads glow.
Dryden.

* BRIMMING. *adj.* [from *brim.*] Full to the brim.

And twice beſides her beeſtings never fail,
To ſtore the dairy with a *brimming* pale. *Dryd.*

BRIMPSFIELD, a village in Glouceſterſhire, 7 miles from Glouceſter, and 6 from Cheltenham.

BRIMPTON, 2 ſmall towns; viz. 1. in Berkſhire: and 2. in Somerſetſhire, near Yeovil.

BRIMSLEY, a village in Nottinghamſhire.

BRIMSTAGE, in Cheſhire, near Barnſton.

(1.) * BRIMSTONE. *n. ſ.* [corrupted from *brin* or *brenſtone*, that is, fiery ſtone.] Sulphur. See SULPHUR.—

From his infernal furnace forth he threw
Huge flames, that dimmed all the heaven's light,
Enroll'd in duſkiſh ſmoke and *brimſtone* blue.
Fairy Queen.

—The vapour of the *grotto del Cane* is generally ſuppoſed to be ſulphureous, though I can ſee no reaſon for ſuch a ſuppoſition: I put a whole bundle of lighted *brimſtone* matches to the ſmoke, they all went out in an inſtant. *Addiſon on Italy.*

(2.) BRIMSTONE MEDALS, FIGURES, &c. may be caſt in the following manner: Melt half a pound of brimſtone over a gentle fire: with this mix half a pound of fine vermillion; and after clearing the top, take it off the fire, ſtir it well together, and it will diſſolve like oil: then caſt it into the mould which ſhould be firſt anointed with oil. When cool, the figure may be taken out; and if it ſhould change to a yellowiſh colour, it need only be wiped over with aquafortis, and it will look like the fineſt coral.

* BRIMSTONY. *adj.* [from *brimſtone.*] Full of brimſtone; containing ſulphur; ſulphureous.

BRIN, or BRINN, a ſtrong town of Bohemia, in Moravia. It is pretty large, and well built: the aſſembly of the ſtates is held alternately there and at Olmutz. The caſtle of Spilberg is on an eminence, out of the town and is its principal defence. It was inveſted by the king of Pruſſia in 1742, but he was obliged to raiſe the ſiege.—It is near the Swart. Lon. 7. 8. E. Lat. 49. 8. N.

* BRINDED. *adj.* [*brin*, Fr. a branch.] Streaked; tabby; marked with ſtreaks.—

Thrice the *brinded* cat hath mew'd.
Shakeſp. Macbeth.

She tam'd the *brinded* lioneſs,
And ſpotted mountain pard. *Milton.*

My *brinded* heifer to the ſtake I lay;
Two thriving calves ſhe ſuckles twice a-day.
Dryden.

BRINDICE. *n. ſ.* [from *brinde*, French.] A health: health. *Scott.*

BRINDISI, anciently BRUNDUSIUM, a celebrated town of Naples, in the Terra d'Otranto, with an archbiſhop's ſee. Its walls are ſtill of great extent, but the inhabited houſes do not fill above half the encloſure. The ſtreets are crooked and rough; the buildings poor and ruinous; without any remarkable church or edifice. The cathedral, dedicated to St Theodore, is a work of king Roger, but not equal in point of architecture to many churches founded by that monarch, who had a ſtrong paſſion for building. Little remains of ancient Brunduſium, except innumerable broken pillars fixed at the corners of ſtreets to defend the houſes from carts; fragments of coarſe Moſaic, the floors of former habitations; the column of the lighthouſe; a large marble baſon, into which the water runs from brazen heads of deer; ſome inſcriptions, ruins of aqueducts, coins, and other ſmall furniture for an antiquary's cabinet. Its caſtle, built by the emperor Frederick II. to protect the northern branches of the harbour, is large and ſtately. Charles V. repaired it. The port is double, and the fineſt in the Adriatic. The outer part is formed by two promontories, which ſtretch off gradually from each other as they advance into the ſea, leaving a very narrow channel at the baſe of the angle. The iſland of St Andrew, on which Alphonſus I. built a fortreſs, lies between the capes, and ſecures the whole road from the fury of the waves. In this triangular ſpace, large ſhips may ride at anchor. At the bottom of the bay the hills recede in a ſemicircular ſhape, to leave room for the inner haven; which, as it were, claſps the city in its arms, or rather encircles it in the figure of a ſtag's head and horns.—This form is ſaid to have given riſe to the name of *Brunduſium*, which, in the old Meſſapian language, ſignified *the head of a deer.* In ancient days the communication between the two havens was marked by lights placed upon columns of the Corinthian order, ſtanding on a riſing ground, in a direct line with the channel. Of theſe one remains entire upon its pedeſtal. Its capitals is adorned with figures of Syrens and Tritons, intermingled with the acanthus leaf, and upon it a circular vaſe, which formerly held the fire. Near it is another pedeſtal of ſimilar dimenſions, with one piece of the ſhaft lying on it. The ſpace between theſe pillars anſwered to the entrance of the harbour. "The whole kingdom of Naples (ſays Mr Swinburne) cannot ſhow a more complete ſituation for trade than Brindiſi. Here goodneſs of ſoil, depth of water, ſafety of anchorage, and a central poſition, are all united; yet it has neither commerce, huſbandry nor populouſneſs. From the obſtructions in the channel, which communicates with the two havens, ariſes the tribe of evils that afflict and deſolate this unhappy town. Julius Cæſar may be ſaid to have begun its ruin, by

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attempting to block up Pompey's fleet. He drove piles into the neck of land between the two ridges of hills; threw in earth, trees, and ruins of houſes; and had nearly accompliſhed the blockade, when Pompey ſailed out and eſcaped to Greece. In the 15th century, the prince of Taranto ſunk ſome ſhips in the middle of the paſſage, to prevent the royaliſts from entering the port, and thereby provided a reſting place for ſea weeds and ſand, which ſoon accumulated, choaked up the mouth and rendered it impracticable for any veſſels whatſoever. In 1752 the evil was increaſed, ſo as to hinder even the waves from beating through; and all communication was cut off, except in violent eaſterly winds, or rainy ſeaſons, when an extraordinary quantity of freſh water raiſes the level. From that period the port became a fetid green lake, full of infection and noxious inſects; no fiſh but eels could live in it, nor any boats ply except canoes made of a ſingle tree. They can hold but one perſon, and overſet with the leaſt irregularity of motion. The low grounds at each end were overflowed and converted into marſhes, the vapours of which created every ſummer a real peſtilence; and in the courſe of very few years ſwept off, or drove away the largeſt portion of the inhabitants. From the number of 18,000 they were reduced, in 1766, to that of 5000 livid wretches, tormented with agues and malignant fevers. In 1755, above 1500 perſons died during the autumn; a woeful change of climate! Thirty years ago, the air of Brindiſi was eſteemed ſo wholeſome and balſamic, that the convents of Naples were wont to ſend their conſumptive friars to this city for the recovery of their health. This ſtate of miſery and deſtruction induced the remaining citizens to apply for relief to Don Carlo Demarco, one of the king's miniſters, and a native of Brindiſi. In conſequence of this application, Don Vito Caravelli was ordered to draw up plans, and fix upon the means of opening the port afreſh: Don Andrea Pigonati was laſt year ſent to execute his projects; and, by the help of machines and the labour of the galley-ſlaves, has ſucceeded in ſome meaſure. The channel has been partly cleared, and has now 2 fathoms of water. It can admit large boats, a great ſtep towards the revival of trade; but what is of more immediate importance, it gives a free paſſage to the ſea, which now ruſhes in with impetuoſity, and runs out again at each tide; ſo that the water of the inner port is ſet in motion, and once more rendered wholeſome. The canal is to be 700 yards long, and drawn in a ſtraight line from the column. At preſent its parapets are defended by piles and faſcines; but if the original plan be purſued, ſtone piers will be erected on both ſides. When the canal ſhall be ſcooped out to a proper depth, and its piers ſolidly eſtabliſhed, veſſels of any burden may once more enter this land-locked port, which affords room for a whole navy. Docks wet and dry may be dug, goods may be ſhipped at the quay, and convenient watering places be made with great eaſe. If merchants ſhould think it a place of riſing trade, and worthy of their notice, there is no want of ſpace in the town for any factory whatever. Circulation of caſh would give vigour to huſbandry, and proviſions would ſoon abound in this market. The ſands at the foot of the hills, which form the channel, are to be laid out in beds for muſcles and oyſters. Some eccleſiaſtics are raiſing nurſeries of orange and lemon trees; and other citizens intend introducing the cultivation of the mulberry trees, and breeding of ſilk worms. The engineer would have done very little for the health of Brindiſi, had he only opened a paſſage, and given a free courſe to the water; and marſhes at each extremity of the harbour would ſtill have infected the air: he, therefore, at the expence of about 1000 ducats, had the fens filled up with earth, and a dam raiſed to confine the waters, and prevent their flowing back upon the meadows. The people of Brindiſi, who are ſenſible of the bleſſings already derived from theſe operations, who feel a return of health, and ſee an opening for commerce and opulence, ſeem ready to acknowledge the obligation. They intend to erect a ſtatue to the king, with inſcriptions on the pedeſtal in honour of the miniſter and agents. The workmen, in cleaning the channel, have found ſome medals and ſeals, and have drawn up many of the piles that were driven in by Cæſar. They are ſmall oak ſtripped of their bark, and ſtill as freſh as if they had been cut only a month, though buried above 18 centuries, 7 feet under the ſand. The ſoil about the town is light and good. It produces excellent cotton, with which the Brindiſians manufacture gloves and ſtockings. It is impoſſible to determine who were the founders of Brundufium, or when it was firſt inhabited. The Romans took early poſſeſſion of a harbour ſo convenient for their enterpriſes againſt the nations dwelling beyond the Adriatic. In the year of Rome 509, they ſent a colony hither. Pompey took refuge here; and finding his poſt untenable, made a precipitate retreat to Greece. In this city, Octavianus firſt aſſumed the name of Cæſar, and here he concluded one of his ſhort lived peaces with Antony. Brundufium had been already celebrated for giving birth to the tragic poet Pacuvius, and about this time became remarkable for the death of Virgil. The barbarians, who ravaged every corner of Italy, did not ſpare ſo rich a town; and, in 836, the Saracens gave a finiſhing blow to its fortunes. The Greek emperors, ſenſible of the neceſſity of having ſuch a port as this in Italy, would have reſtored it to its ancient ſtrength and ſplendour, had the Normans allowed them time and leiſure. The Greeks ſtruggled manfully to keep their ground; but, after many varieties of ſucceſs, were finally driven out of Brindiſi by William I. The frenzy for expeditions to Paleſtine, though it drained other kingdoms of their wealth and ſubjects, contributed powerfully to the re-eſtabliſhment of this city, one of the ports where pilgrims and warriors took ſhipping. It alſo benefited by the reſidence of the emperor Frederick, whoſe frequent armaments for the Holy Land required his preſence at this place of rendezvous. The lots of Jeruſalem, the fall of the Grecian empire, and the ruin of all the Levant trade after the Turks had conquered the Eaſt, reduced Brindiſi to a ſtate of inactivity and deſolation, from which it has never been able to emerge." Lon. 17. 45. E. Lat. 40. 25. N.

(1.) BRINDLE, a village in Lancaſhire.

(2.) * BRINDLE.

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(2.) * BRINDLE. *n. f.* [from *brinded.*] The ſtate of being brinded.—A natural *brindle. Clariſſa.*

* BRINDLED. *adj.* [from *brindle.*] Brinded; ſtreaked.—

The boar, my ſiſters! aim the fatal dart,
And ſtrike the *brindled* monſter to the heart.
Addiſon's Ovid.

BRINDLEY, James, a moſt uncommon genius for mechanical inventions, and particularly excellent in planning and conducting inland navigations, was born in 1716, at Tunſted in Derbyſhire. Through the miſmanagement of his father, (for there was ſome little property in his houſe,) his education was totally neglected; and at 17, he bound himſelf an apprentice to a mill-wright, near Macclesfield, in Cheſhire. He ſerved his apprenticeſhip; and, afterwards ſetting up for himſelf, advanced in the mill-wright buſineſs by inventions and contrivances of his own, to a degree of perfection which it had not attained before. His fame, as a moſt ingenious mechanic, ſpreading widely, his genius was no longer confined to the buſineſs of his profeſſion: for, in 1752, he erected a very extraordinary water engine at Clifton, in Lancaſhire, for the purpoſe of draining coal mines; and in 1755, was employed to execute the larger wheels for a new ſilk mill, at Congleton, in Cheſhire. The potteries of Staffordſhire were alſo, about this time, indebted to him for ſeveral valuable additions in the mills uſed by them for grinding flint ſtones. In 1756, he undertook to erect a ſteam engine near Newcaſtle under Line upon a new plan; and it is believed he would have brought this engine to a great degree of perfection, if ſome intereſted engineers had not oppoſed him. His attention, however, was ſoon afterwards called off to another object, which, in its conſequences, has proved of high importance to trade and commerce; namely, the projecting and executing "Inland navigations." By theſe navigations, the expence of carriage is leſſened; a communication is opened from one part of the kingdom to another, and from each of theſe parts to the ſea; and hence, products and manufactures are afforded at a moderate price. The duke of Bridgewater had, at Worſley, about 7 miles from Manchester, a large eſtate abounding with coal, which had hitherto lain uſeleſs, becauſe the expence of land carriage was too great to find a market for conſumption. The duke, wiſhing to work theſe mines, perceived the neceſſity of a canal from Worſley to Manchester; upon which occaſion Brindley, now become famous, was conſulted; and declaring the ſcheme practicable, an act for this purpoſe was obtained in 1758 and 1759. It being, however, afterwards diſcovered, that the navigation would be more beneficial, if carried over the river Irwell to Manchester, another act was obtained to vary the courſe of the canal agreeable to the new plan, and likewiſe to extend a ſide branch to Longford bridge in Stretford. Brindley, in the mean time, had begun theſe great works, being the firſt of the kind every attempted in England, with navigable ſubterraneous tunnels and elevated aqueducts; and as, in order to preſerve the level of the water, it ſhould be free from the uſual obſtructions of locks, he carried the canal over rivers, and many large and deep valleys. When it was completed as far as Barton, where the Irwell is navigable for large veſſels, he propoſed to carry it over that river, by an aqueduct of 39 feet above the ſurface of the water; and though this project was treated as wild and chimerical, yet, ſupported by his noble patron, he began his work in Sept. 1760, and the firſt boat ſailed over it in July, 1761. The duke afterwards extended his ideas to Liverpool; and obtained, in 1762, an act for branching his canal to the tideway in the Merſey: this part of the canal is carried over the rivers Merſey and Bolland, and over many wide and deep valleys. The ſucceſs of the duke of Bridgewater's undertakings encouraged a number of gentlemen and manufacturers in Staffordſhire, to revive the idea of a canal navigation through that country; and Brindley was therefore engaged to make a ſurvey from the Trent to the Merſey. In 1766, this canal was begun, and conducted under Brindley's direction as long as he lived; but finiſhed after his death by his brother-in-law Mr Henſhall, of whom he had a great opinion, in May, 1777. The proprietors called it, "the canal from the Trent to the Merſey;" but the engineer, more emphatically, "the Grand Trunk Navigation," on account of the numerous branches, which, as he juſtly ſuppoſed, would be extended every way from it. It is 93 miles in length; and beſides a great number of bridges over it, has 76 locks and five tunnels. The moſt remarkable of the tunnels is the ſubterraneous paſſage of Harecaſtle, being 2880 yards in length, and more than 70 yards below the ſurface of the earth. The ſcheme of this inland navigation had employed the thoughts of the ingenious part of the kingdom for upwards of 20 years before; and ſome ſurveys had been made; but Harecaſtle hill, through which the tunnel is conſtructed, could neither be avoided nor overcome by any expedient the moſt able engineers could deviſe. It was Brindley alone who ſurmounted this and other ſimilar difficulties, ariſing from the variety of ſtrata and quickſands, as no one but himſelf would have attempted to conquer. Brindley was engaged in many other ſimilar undertakings; for a fuller account of which, we refer our reader to the "Biographia Britannica;" or rather to a curious and valuable pamphlet, publiſhed ſome years ago, and entitled, "The Hiſtory of Inland Navigations, particularly that of the Duke of Bridgewater." He died at Turnhurſt in Staffordſhire, Sept. 27th 1772, in his 56th year: ſomewhat immaturely, as it ſhould ſeem; but he is ſuppoſed to have ſhortened his days by too intenſe application, and to have brought on a hectic fever, which continued on him for ſome years before he died. He never indulged and relaxed himſelf in the common diverſions of life, as not having the leaſt reliſh for them; and, though once prevailed on to ſee a play in London, yet he declared that he would on no account be preſent at another; becauſe it ſo diſturbed his ideas for ſeveral days after, as to render him unfit for buſineſs. When any extraordinary difficulty occurred to him in the execution of his works, he generally retired to bed; and has been known to lie there one, 2, or 3 days, till he had ſurmounted it. He would

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would then get up, and execute his design without any drawing or model: for he had a prodigious memory, and carried every thing in his head. As his station in life was low, and his education totally neglected, so his exterior accomplishments were suitable. He could indeed read and write, but both very indifferently; and he was perhaps, as *abnormis sapiens*—as much "of mother-wit, and wise without the schools"—as any man that ever lived. "He is as plain a looking man as one of the boors in the Peake, or one of his own carters: but when he speaks, all ears listen; and every mind is filled with wonder, at the things he pronounces to be practicable." His biographer gives us also no ungracious idea of his moral make: "being great in himself, he harbours no contracted notions, no jealousy of rivals; he conceals not his methods of proceeding, nor asks patents to secure the sole use of the machines, which he invents and exposes to public view. Sensible that he must one day cease to live, he selects men of genius, teaches them the power of mechanics, and employs them in carrying on the various undertakings in which he is engaged. It is not to the duke of Bridgewater only that his services are confined; he is of public utility, and employs his talents in rectifying the mistakes of despairing workmen, &c. His powers shine most in the midst of difficulties; when rivers and mountains seem to thwart his designs, then appears his vast capacity, by which he makes them subservient to his will."

(2, 3) BRINDLEY, 2 villages; viz. 1. in Cheshire, near Namptwich: 2. in Staffordshire, N. of Brewood.

BRINDONES, in natural history, the name of a fruit of the East Indies, called by John Bauhine, and some other botanical writers, *Indici fructus rubentes acidi*. It is by many accounted delicious, notwithstanding its great sharpness; and is used in dyeing, and in making vinegar.

(1.) * BRINE. *n. s.* 1. Water impregnated with salt.—The encreasing of the weight of water, will encrease its power of bearing; as we see *brine*, when it is salt enough, will bear an egg. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*—Dissolve sheeps dung in water, and add to it as much salt as will make a strong *brine*, in this liquor steep your corn. *Mort.* 2. The sea, as it is salt.—

All, but mariners,
Plung'd in the foaming *brine*, did quit the vessel,
Then all afire with me. *Shakesp. Tempest.*

The air was calm, and, on the level, *brine*,
Sleek Panope, with all her sisters, play'd. *Milt.*

As when two adverse winds
Engage with horrid shock, the ruffled *brine*
Roars stormy. *Philips.*

3. Tears, as they are salt.—

What a deal of *brine*
Hath wash'd thy sallow cheeks for Rosaline!
Shakespeare.

(2.) BRINE also denotes a pickle pregnant with salt, wherein things are steeped to keep.

(3.) BRINE, DIFFERENT KINDS OF. Brine is either native, as the sea-water, which by coction turns to salt; or factitious, formed by dissolving salt in water. In the salt-works at Upwick in Worcestershire, there are found, at the same time, and in the same pit, 3 sorts of brine, each of a different strength. They are drawn by a pump; and that in the bottom, first brought up, is called *first man*; the next, *middle man*; and the third, *last man*.

(4.) BRINE, LAW RESPECTING. Brine taken out of brine-pits, or brine-pans, used by some for curing or pickling of fish, without boiling it into salt; and rock salt, without refining it into white salt; are prohibited by 1 Ann. cap. 21.

(5.) BRINE, LEACH, a name given to what drops from the corned salt in draining and drying, which they preserve and boil again; being stronger than any brine in the pit. There is sand found in all the Staffordshire brines after coction; but naturalists observe, it did not pre-exist in the water, but rather is the product of the boiling. Some steep their seed-wheat in brine, to prevent the smut. Brine is also commended as of efficacy against gangrenes.

(6.) BRINE PANS, the pits wherein the salt water is retained, and suffered to stand, to bear the action of the sun, whereby it is converted into salt. There are divers sorts of salt pans, as the water pans, second pan, sun pan; the water being transferred only from one to another.

(7.) * BRINEPIT. *n. s.* [from *brine* and *pit*.] Pit of salt water.—

Then I lov'd thee,
And shew'd thee all the qualities o' th' isle,
The fresh springs, *brinepits*, barren place, and fertile. *Shakespeare.*

(8.) BRINE-PIT, in salt-making, is the salt spring from whence the water to be boiled into salt is taken. There are of these springs in many places; that at Namptwich, in Cheshire, is alone sufficient, according to the account of the people of the place, to yield salt for the whole kingdom; but it is under the government of certain lords and regulators, who, that the market may not be overstocked, will not suffer more than a certain quantity of the salt to be made yearly! See § 9.

(9.) BRINE SPRINGS are fountains which flow with salt water instead of fresh. Of these there are a good number in South Britain, but though not peculiar to this island, they are far from being common on the continent. There is a remarkable one at East Chennock in Somersetshire, about 20 miles from the sea. There is another at Leamington in Warwickshire, very near the river Learn; which, however, is but weak. A third runs into the river Cherwell in Oxfordshire; and there are several more in Westmoreland and Yorkshire: but as they are weak, and the fuel in most of those counties is scarce and dear, no salt is prepared from them. At Barrow-deal near Grange, 3 miles from Kesewick in Cumberland, a pretty strong spring rises in a level near a moss; 16 gallons of the water of which yield one of pure salt; which is remarkable, as the same quantity of salt cannot be obtained from less than 22 gallons of the waters of the German ocean. At Salt-water Haugh, near Butterby, in Durham, there are a multitude of salt springs which rise in the middle of the river Weare, for the space of about 40 yards in length and ten in breadth; but particularly one out of a rock, which is so strong that in a hot summer's day the surface is covered with a pure white salt.

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At Weſton, in Staffordſhire, there are brine ſprings which afford about a 9th part of very fine white ſalt. There are others at Enſon, St Thomas, and in the pariſh of Ingeſtre, but ſo weak that they are not wrought; though it is believed, that by boring, ſtronger ſprings might be found in the neighbourhood. In Lancaſhire there are ſeveral ſalt ſprings, but (if we except thoſe at Barton, which are as rich as the ſpring at Norwich) by no means ſo famous as thoſe of Cheſhire, called in general by the name of the WICHES. Namptwich on the river Weever, has a noble ſpring not far from the river, which is ſo rich as to yield one 6th part of pure white ſalt. At Northwich, ſix miles diſtant, at the confluence of the Weever and the Dan, the brine is ſtill richer; for 6 ounces of ſalt are obtained from 16 of water. The inhabitants of Wales, who, before that country was incorporated with England, were ſupplied chiefly, if not ſolely, with that neceſſary commodity from theſe two towns, called the former HELLATH WEN, and the latter HELLATH DU; i. e. the white and black ſalt pit. In 1670, a rock of ſalt was diſcovered at a ſmall diſtance from Norwich, which has been wrought to a great depth, and to a vaſt extent, ſo as to be juſtly eſteemed one of the greateſt curioſities in England; and it is highly probable, that there is an immenſe body of foſſile ſalt in the bowels of the earth, under this whole county; for, upon boring, brine pits have been found in many places on both ſides of the Weever. This is the more likely, ſince at Middlewich, which ſtands at the confluence of the Croke and the Dan, there are ſalt ſprings with a freſh brook running between them. The brines from theſe pits are of unequal ſtrength; but when mixed, they commonly obtain 4 ounces of ſalt from a pound of brine. In theſe ſprings the water is ſtrongeſt neareſt the bottom, richer in dry weather than in wet, and when long drawn than when firſt wrought. But theſe are no rules in reſpect to other ſalt ſprings, for in thoſe of Franche Comte the brine is ſtrongeſt in wet weather. There are ſeveral other bodies diſſolved in theſe brines beſides ſalt; in ſome a ſulphureous ſubſtance, which ſublimes as the brine heats; a ſort of dirty ochre which diſcolours the brine, but, if ſuffered to ſtand, ſpeedily ſubſides; and in moſt brines a calcareous, or rather ſelenitic earth, which ſettles to the bottom of the pans. See SALT, and SPRING.

* *To* BRINE, *v. a.* To ſteep in brine. See BRINING.

BRINEK, or } in aſtronomy, the bright ſtar in
BRINETI, } the conſtellation Lyra; more frequently called *Lucida Lyræ*.

(1.) * *To* BRING. *v. a.* [*bringan*, Sax. preter. I *brought*; part. paſſ. *brought*; *broht*, Sax.] 1. To fetch from another place; diſtinguiſhed from to *carry*, or convey to another place.—

I was the chief that rais'd him to the crown,
And I'll be chief to *bring* him down again. *Shak.*

—And as ſhe was going to fetch it, he called to her, and ſaid, *Bring* me, I pray thee, a morſel of bread in thy hand. *Kings.*—A regiſtry of lands may furniſh eaſy ſecurities of money, that ſhall be *brought* over by ſtrangers. *Temple.* 2. To convey in one's own hand; not to ſend by another.—

And if my wiſh'd alliance pleaſe your king,
Tell him he ſhould not ſend thee peace, but *bring*. *Dryden.*

3. To produce; to procure, as a cauſe.—There is nothing will *bring* you more honour, and more eaſe, than to do what right in juſtice you may. *Bacon.* 4. To reduce; to recal.—*Bring* back gently their wandering minds, by going before them in the train they ſhould purſue, without any rebuke. *Locke.*—Nathan's fable had ſo good an effect, as to bring the man after God's own heart to a right ſenſe of his guilt. *Spectator.* 5. To attract; to draw along.—In diſtillation, the water aſcends difficultly, and *brings* over with ſome part of the oil of vitriol. *Newton's Opticks.* 6. To put into any particular ſtate or circumſtances, to make liable to any thing.—Having got the way of reaſoning, which that ſtudy neceſſarily *brings* the mind to, they might be able to transfer it to other parts of knowledge, as they ſhall have occaſion. *Locke.*—The queſtion for *bringing* the king to juſtice was immediately put, and carried without any oppoſition, that I can find. *Swift's Preſb. Plea.* 7. To lead by degrees.—A due conſideration of the vanities of the world, will naturally *bring* us to the contempt of it; and the contempt of the world will as certainly *bring* us home to ourſelves. *L'Eſtrange.*—The underſtanding ſhould be *brought* to the difficult and knotty parts of knowledge, by inſenſible degrees. *Locke.* 8. To recal; to ſummons.—

But thoſe, and more than I to mind can *bring*,
Menalcas has not yet forgot to ſing. *Dryden.*

9. To induce; to prevail upon.—The nature of the things, contained in thoſe words, would not ſuffer him to think otherwiſe, how, or whenſoever, he is *brought* to reflect on them. *Locke.*—It ſeems ſo prepoſterous a thing to men, to make themſelves unhappy in order to happineſs, that they do not eaſily *bring* themſelves to it. *Locke.*—Profitable employments would be no leſs a diverſion than any of the idle ſports in faſhion, if men could but be *brought* to delight in them. *Locke.* 10. *To bring about.* [See ABOUT.] To bring to paſs; to effect.—

This he conceives not hard to *bring about*,
If all of you would join to help him out.
Dryden's Ind. Emp.

—This turn of mind threw off the oppoſitions of envy and competition: it enabled him to gain the moſt vain and impracticable into his deſigns, and to *bring about* ſeveral great events, for the advantage of the publick. *Addiſon's Freeholder.* 11. *To bring forth.* To give birth to; to produce.—

The good queen,
For ſhe is good, hath *brought* you *forth* a daughter:
Here 'tis; commends it to your bleſſing. *Shak.*

More wonderful
Than that which, by creation, firſt *brought forth*
Light out of darkneſs! *Paradiſe Loſt.*

Bewail thy falſehood, and the pious works
It hath *brought forth*, to make thee memorable
Among illuſtrious women, faithful wives.
Milton's Agoniſt.

Bellona leads thee to thy lover's hand,
Another queen *brings forth* another brand,
To burn with foreign fires her native land! *Dryd.*

—Idleneſs

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—Idleneſs and luxury *bring forth* poverty and want; and this tempts men to injuſtice; and that cauſeth enmity and animoſity. *Tillotſon.*—The value of land is raiſed, when it is fitted to *bring forth* a greater quantity of any valuable product. *Locke.* 22. *To bring forth.* To bring to light.—The thing that is hid, *bringeth* he *forth* to light. *Job* xxxviii. 11. 23. *To bring in.* To place in any condition.—

He proteſts he loves you,
And needs no other ſuitor, but his liking,
To *bring* you *in* again. *Shakeſp. Othello.*

24. *To bring in.* To reduce.—Send over into that realm ſuch a ſtrong power of men as ſhould perforce *bring in* all that rebellious rout, and looſe people. *Spenſer on Irel.* 25. *To bring in.* To afford gain.—The ſole meaſure of all his courteſies is, what return they will make him, and what revenue they will *bring* him *in*. *South.*—Trade *brought* us *in* plenty and riches. *Locke.* 26. *To bring in.* To introduce.—Entertain no long diſcourſe with any; but, if you can, *bring in* ſomething to ſeaſon it with religion. *Taylor.*—There is but one God, who made heaven and earth, and ſea and winds; but the folly and madneſs of mankind *brought in* the images of gods. *Stillingfleet.*—The fruitfulneſs of Italy, and the like, are not *brought in* by force, but naturally ariſe out of the argument. *Addiſon.*—Since he could not have a ſeat among them himſelf, he would *bring in* one who had more merit. *Tatler.*—Quotations are beſt *brought in*, to confirm ſome opinion controverted. *Swift.* 27. *To bring off.* To clear; to procure to be acquitted; to cauſe to eſcape.—I truſted to my head, that has betrayed me; and I found fault with my legs, that would otherwiſe have *brought* me *off*. *L'Eſtr.*—Set a kite upon the bench, and it is forty to one he'll *bring off* a crow at the bar. *L'Eſtrange.*—The beſt way to avoid this imputation, and to *bring off* the credit of our underſtanding, is to be truly religious. *Tillotſon.* 28. *To bring on.* To engage in action.—If there be any that would reign, and take up all the time, let him find means to take them off, and *bring* others *on*. *Bacon.* 29. *To bring on.* To produce as an occaſional cauſe.—The fountains of the great deep being broke open, ſo as a general deſtruction and deva-ſtation was *brought upon* the earth, and all things in it. *Burn: Theory.*—The great queſtion, which, in all ages, has diſturbed mankind, and *brought on* them thoſe miſchiefs. *Locke.* 30. *To bring over.* To convert; to draw to a new party.—This liberty ſhould be made uſe of upon few occaſions of ſmall importance, and only with a view of *bringing over* his own ſide, another time, to ſomething of greater and more publick moment. *Swift on the Sentiments of a Church of Engl. man.*—The proteſtant clergy will find it, perhaps, no difficult matter to *bring* great numbers *over* to the church. *Swift.* 31. *To bring out.* To exhibit; to ſhew.—If I make not this cheat *bring out* another, and the ſhearers prove ſheep, let me be unrolled. *Shakeſp. Winter's Tale.*—

Which he could *bring out*, where he had,
And what he bought them for, and paid. *Hudib.*
Theſe ſhake his ſoul, and, as they boldly preſs,
Bring out his crimes, and force him to confeſs.
Dryden.

—Another way made uſe of, to find the weight of the denarii, was by the weight of Greek coins; but thoſe experiments *bring out* the denarius heavier. *Arbuth.* 32. *To bring under.* To ſubdue; to repreſs.—That ſharp courſe which you have ſet down, for *bringing under* of thoſe rebels of Ulſter, and preparing a way for their perpetual reformation. *Spenſer.*—To ſay, that the more capable, or the better deſerver, hath ſuch right to govern, as he may compulſorily *bring under* the leſs worthy, is idle. *Bacon.* 33. *To bring up.* To educate; to inſtruct; to form.—The well *bringing up* of the people, ſerves as a moſt ſure bond to hold them. *Sidney.*—He that takes upon him the charge of *bringing up* young men, eſpecially young gentlemen, ſhould have ſomething more in him than Latin. *Locke.*—They frequently converſed with his lovely virgin, who had been *brought up* by her father in knowledge. *Addiſon's Guardian.* 34. *To bring up.* To introduce to general practice.—Several obliging deferences, condeſcenſions, and ſubmiſſions, with many outward forms and ceremonies, were firſt of all *brought up* among the politer part of mankind, who lived in courts and cities. *Spectator.* 35. *To bring up.* To cauſe to advance.—

Bring up your army; but, I think, you'll find,
They've not prepar'd for us. *Shakeſpeare.*

36. *Bring* retains in all its ſenſes the idea of an agent, or cauſe producing a real or metaphorical motion of ſomething towards ſomething; for it is oft ſaid that *he* brought *his companion* out. The meaning is, that he was *brought to* ſomething that was likewiſe *without*.

(2.) *To* BRING IN A HORSE, in the menage, is the ſame as to keep down the noſe of one that boars and toſſes his noſe in the wind. This is done by means of a branch.

(3.) *To* BRING TO, in navigation, to check the courſe of a ſhip when ſhe is advancing, by arranging the ſails in ſuch a manner, that they ſhall counteract each other, and prevent her either from retreating or moving forward. In this ſituation the ſhip is ſaid to lie by, or lie to; having, according to the ſea-phraſe, ſome of her ſails *aback*, to oppoſe the force of thoſe which are full; or having them otherwiſe ſhortened by being *furled*, or *hauled up in the brails*. Bringing to is generally uſed to detain a ſhip in any particular ſtation, in order to wait the approach of ſome other that may be advancing towards her; or to retard her courſe occaſionally near any port in the courſe of a voyage.

(1.) * BRINGER. *n. ſ.* [from *bring*.] The perſon that brings any thing.—

Yet the firſt *bringer* of unwelcome news
Hath but a loſing office: and his tongue
Sounds ever after as a ſullen bell,
Remember'd tolling a dead friend. *Shak.*
Beſt you ſee ſafe the *bringer*
Out of the hoſt: I muſt attend mine office.
Shakeſpeare.

(2.) * BRINGER UP. Inſtructor; educator.—Italy and Rome have been breeders and *bringers up* of the worthieſt men. *Aſcham's Schoolmaſter.*

BRINGHURST, a town near Weſton, Leiceſter.

BRINGTON GREAT, and BRINGTON LITTLE, } two villages in Northamptonſh. near Althorp.

BRING-

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BRINGWIN, in Monmouthſh. near Ragland.

BRINHAM, near Putly-bridge, Yorkſhire.

(1.) BRINING OF CORN, in huſbandry, an operation performed on the wheat ſeed, to prevent the ſmut. A liquor is to be prepared for this purpoſe, by putting 70 gallons of water into a tub (like a maſh-tub uſed for brewing), and a corn buſhel of unſlacked lime-ſtone. This is to be well ſtirred till the whole is diſſolved, and left to ſtand for 30 hours; after which it is to be drained off into another tub, in the manner practiſed for beer. In this way about a hogſhead of ſtrong lime-water will be obtained, to which muſt be added 3 pecks of ſalt. The wheat muſt be ſteeped in this prickle, by running it gently, and in ſmall quantities, into a broad bottomed baſket of about 24 inches in diameter, and 20 inches deep, and ſtirring it. The light ſeed that floats muſt be ſtrained off with a ſtrainer, and muſt not be ſown. When the baſket has been drawn up, and drained of the pickle, the wheat will be fit for ſowing in two hours after the brining.

(2.) BRINING OF HAY RICKS, a practice common in America, of mixing ſalt with the hay as it is ſtacked.

* BRINISH. *adj.* [from *brine*.] Having the taſte of brine; ſalt.—

Nero would be tainted with remorſe
To hear and ſee her plaints, her *briniſh* tears.
Shakeſpeare.

For now I ſtand, as one upon a rock,
Environ'd with a wilderneſs of ſea,
Who marks the waxing tide grow wave by wave;
Expecting ever when ſome envious ſurge
Will, in his *briniſh* bowels, ſwallow him. *Shak.*

* BRINISHNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *briniſh*.] Saltneſs; tendency to ſaltneſs.

* BRINK. *n. ſ.* [*brink*, Daniſh.] The edge of any place, as of a precipice or a river.—

Th' amazed flames ſtand gather'd in a heap,
And from the precipice's *brink* retire,
Afraid to venture on ſo large a leap. *Dryden.*

—We ſtand therefore on the *brinks* and confines of thoſe ſtates at the day of doom. *Atterbury.*—

So have I ſeen, from Severn's *brink*,
A flock of geeſe jump down together,
Swim where the bird of Jove wou'd ſink,
And, ſwimming, never wet a feather. *Swift.*

BRINKHILL, a village in Lincolnſhire, near Somerby.

BRINKLEY, two villages; viz. 1. in Cambridge, near Carlton: 2. in Northumberland near Blakedon.

BRINKLOW, in Warwickſ. near Cumberland.

BRINKWORTH, S. of Brandon foreſt, Wilts.

BRINLEY, James. See BRINDLEY, N. 1.

BRINN. See BRIN.

To BRINNE, *v. a. obſ.* to burn. *Chaue.*

BRINNY, a town of Ireland, in Cork.

BRINSAP, in Lancaſhire, N. of Wigan.

BRINSOP, 4 miles NW. of Hereford.

BRINSUPDELL, near Aſpiddle, Dorſetſhire.

BRINTON, two ſmall towns; viz. 1. in Huntindongſhire, near Molesworth: 2. in Norfolkſhire, near Holt.

* BRINY. *adj.* [from *brine*.] Salt.—

He, who firſt the paſſage try'd,
In harden'd oak his heart did hide;
Or his, at leaſt, in hollow wood,
Who tempted firſt the *briny* flood. *Dryden.*

Then, *briny* ſeas, and taſteful ſprings, farewel,
Where fountain nymphs, confus'd with Nereids, dwell. *Addiſon.*

—A muriatick or *briny* taſte ſeems to be produced by a mixture of an acid and alkaline ſalt; for ſpirit of ſalt, and ſalt of tartar, mixed, produce a ſalt like ſea ſalt. *Arbuthnot.*

BRIOCH, INCH. See INCH-BRAYOCK.

BRIONNE, a town of France, in the department of Lower Seine, and ci-devant province of Normandy, ſeated on the river Rille. Lon. 0. 51. E. Lat. 49. 51. N.

* BRIONY. See BRYONY.

BRIOUDE, a town of France, in the department of Upper Loire, and ci-devant province of Lower Auvergne. The houſes are built after the antique manner, and are boldly diſpoſed. Under the old regime it was ranked in no dioceſe; but depended immediately on the Pope; and the canons were all counts and temporal lords. One half of it had the name of *Church Brioude*. The church of St Ferrol, is highly celebrated. Near the Old Town is a ſtone bridge over the Allier, of one arch. It is a ſtupendous ſtructure, and is thought to be a work of the Romans. Brioude is ſituated 16 m. S. of Iſſoire, and 225 S. by E. of Paris. Lon. 2. 50. E. Lat. 46. 15. N.

BRIQUERAS, a town in Piedmont, ſeated in the valley of Lucern, 3 miles from the town of that name, and 4 from Pignerol. It had a very ſtrong caſtle towards the end of the 12th century; but when the French got footing in it, it was ruined, before they delivered it up to the duke of Savoy in 1696. Lon. 7. 24. E. Lat. 44. 41. N.

(1.) BRISACH, or OLD BRISACH, a town of Germany, and capital of Briſgaw. It was twice in poſſeſſion of the French; but reſtored to the houſe of Auſtria, in conſequence of treaties of peace. It was a very ſtrong place, but the fortifications have been demoliſhed. It is ſeated on the Rhine, where there is a bridge of boats; 25 miles S. of Straſburg. The French took this town in 1795; but were driven from it by a party of Auſtrians under Prince Charles, in 1796. A party of the republicans, however, under Gen. St Cyr, expelled the Auſtrians, and again took poſſeſſion of it on the 13th Oct. 1796. Lon. 7. 49. E. Lat. 48. 8. N.

(2.) BRISACH, NEW, a town of France, in the department of Upper Rhine, and ci-devant province of Alſace, built by order of Lewis XIV. over againſt Old Briſach, and fortified by Vauban. It is 32 miles S. of Straſburg, and one from the Rhine. Lon. 7. 40. E. Lat. 48. 5. N.

BRISÆUS, in mythology, a name of Bacchus.

(1.) BRISCO, a village near Carliſle.

(2.) BRISCO, EAST, } two villages in Yorkſhire
(3.) BRISCO, WEST, } W. of Barnard's caſtle.

BRISCOIDES. See BRISSOIDES.

BRISE, *adj.* in heraldry, broken.

BRISEIS, or HIPPODAMIA, in fabulous hiſtory, the wife of Mynes king of Lyrneſſa. After Achilles had taken the city, and killed her huſband, ſhe became his captive. The hero loved her tenderly; but Agamemnon taking her from him, ſhe became the accidental cauſe of number-

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leſs diſorders in the Grecian army. Achilles, enraged, retired to his tent: and, till the death of Patroclus, refuſed to fight againſt the Trojans. The reſentment of this prince is finely painted in the Iliad.

BRISE-NORTON, a town in Oxfordſhire.

BRISET, in Suffolk near Bliſton.

BRISGAW, a territory of Germany, in the circle of Suabia, on the eaſtern banks of the Rhine, about 50 miles in length, and 30 in breadth. The principal places are Old and New Briſach, Freyburgh, Rhinmark, and an iſland in the Rhine. This country has been a ſcene of frequent and bloody conteſts between the French and Auſtrians during the revolutionary war. The French took Fribourg, the capital, after a very hard fought battle in June, 1796. Upon the retreat of Gen. Moreau's army in October 1796, the Archduke Charles became once more maſter of Briſgaw.

BRISIACUS MONS, in ancient geography, a town on the right or E. ſide of the Rhine; ſituated on a round hill; a fortified town of Suabia; now called OLD BRISAC.

* BRISK. *adj.* [*bruſque*, French.] 1. Lively; vivacious; gay; ſprightly; applied to men.—

Pr'ythee, die, and ſet me free,
Or elſe be
Kind and *briſk*, and gay like me. *Denham.*

—A creeping young fellow, that had committed matrimony with a *briſk* gameſome laſs, was ſo altered in a few days, that he was liker a ſkeleton than a living man. *L'Eſtrange.*—

Why ſhou'd all honour then be ta'en
From lower parts, to load the brain:
When other limbs we plainly ſee,
Each in his way, as *briſk* as he? *Prior.*

2. Powerful; ſpirituous.—

Our nature here is not unlike our wine;
Some ſorts, when old, continue *briſk* and fine. *Denham.*

Under ground, the rude Riphæan race
Mimick *briſk* cyder, with the brake's product wild,
Sloes pounded, hips, and ſervis' harſheſt juice. *Philips.*

—It muſt needs be ſome exteriour cauſe, and the *briſk* acting of ſome objects without me, whoſe efficacy I cannot reſiſt. *Locke.* 3. Vivid; bright. This is not uſed.—Objects appeared much darker, becauſe my inſtrument was overcharged; had it magnified thirty or twenty-five times, it had made the object appear more *briſk* and pleaſant. *Newton.*

* BRISKET. *n. ſ.* [*brichet*, Fr.] The breaſt of an animal.—See that none of the wool be wanting, that their gums be red, teeth white and even, and the *briſket* ſkin red. *Mortimer.*

* BRISKLY. *adv.* [from *briſk.*] Actively; vigorouſly.—We have ſeen the air in the bladder ſuddenly expand itſelf ſo much, and ſo *briſkly*, that it manifeſtly lifted up ſome light bodies that leaned upon it. *Boyle.*—I could plainly perceive the creature to ſuck in many of the moſt minute animalcula, that were ſwiming *briſkly* about in the water. *Ray on the Creation.*

* BRISKNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *briſk.*] 1. Livelineſs; vigour; quickneſs.—Some remains of corruption, though they do not conquer and extinguiſh, yet will ſlacken and allay the vigour and *briſkneſs* of the renewed principle. *South.* 2. Gayety.—But the moſt diſtinguiſhing part of his character ſeems to me, to be his *briſkneſs*, his jollity, and his good humour. *Dryden.*

* *To* BRISK UP. *v. n.* To come up briſkly.

BRISLEY, a town near Lytcham, Norfolkſh.

BRISLINGTON, in Somerſetſh. near Briſtol.

BRISSAC, a town of France, in the department of Maine and Loire, ſeated on the Aubence, 13 m. S. of Angers. Lon. 0. 27. W. Lat. 47. 20. N.

BRISSOIDES, in natural hiſtory, a genus of the echini marini. The diſtinguiſhing characters are, that they are of an oval figure, and have their backs ſtriated, not furrowed, and their rays ſmooth, not marked with ridges. Of this genus there are two known ſpecies.

BRISSONIUS, Barnaby, an eminent French lawyer and preſident of the parliament of Paris, born at Fontenay about the middle of the 16th century. He was much eſteemed and honoured by Henry III. who boaſted of him, as the moſt learned man in Chriſtendom. He employed him in various negociations, particularly ambaſſador to England. Being at Paris, when it was beſieged by Henry IV. and remonſtrating againſt the treaſonable practices of the Leaguers, they fell upon him, dragged him to priſon, and ſtrangled him, Nov. 15, 1591. He wrote, 1. *De Verborum ſignificatione*: 2. *De formalis ſolemnibus populi Romani verbis*: 3. *De Regio Perſarum principatu*; and ſome other works.

(1.) BRISSOT, Peter, one of the ableſt phyſicians of the 16th century, was born at Fontenai le Comte in Poictou. He ſtudied at Paris; and, having taken his degree of M. D. bent his thoughts to the reforming of phyſic, by reſtoring the precepts of Hippocrates and Galen, and exploding the maxims of the Arabians. For this purpoſe he publicly explained Galen's works, inſtead of thoſe of Avicenna, Rhaſis, and Meſſue. He afterwards travelled to acquire the knowledge of plants; and going to Portugal, practiſed phyſic in Ebora. His new method of bleeding in pleuriſies, on the ſide where the pleuriſy was, raiſed a kind of civil war among the Portugueſe phyſicians; it was brought to the univerſity of Salamanca, who at laſt gave judgment, that the opinion aſcribed to Briſſot was the pure doctrine of Galen. The partizans of Denys, his opponent, appealed, in 1529, to the emperor, to prevent the practice, as being attended with deſtructive conſequences; but Charles III. duke of Savoy happening to die at this time of a pleuriſy, after having been bled on the oppoſite ſide, the proſecution dropped. He wrote an Apology for his practice; but died before it was publiſhed, in 1552; but Anthony Luceus, his friend, printed it at Paris in 1555. Renatus Moreau procured a new edition of it at Paris, in 1622, and annexed to it a treatiſe, intitled *De miſſione ſanguinis in pleuritide*, together with the Life of Briſſot.

(2.) BRISSOT, John Peter, was the ſon of an innkeeper at Chartres, and born in 1754. He was left a ſmall eſtate called *de Ouarville*, the ſpelling of which he angliciſed *Warville*, by which name he was pretty generally known. He met with little ſucceſs in Paris as a literary man, and therefore went to Geneva, and afterwards to London, where he

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he publiſhed a periodical journal which was not encouraged. Returning to Paris he was patronized by Orleans, and wrote ſeveral inflammatory pamphlets, which obliged him to fly to America. At the commencement of the Revolution he returned, and became the leader of a party which was deſtroyed by Robeſpierre; Briſſot and 21 of the leaders being guilhotined in 1793. He was the author of a theory of Criminal Law; Travels in America; and other works.

BRISSOTINES, a political party in France, during its revolutionary ſtate, ſo denominated from citizen Briſſot, their chief leader. They were keen republicans, but wiſhed to eſtabliſh a federal government in France like that of America.

BRISSUS, in natural hiſtory, a genus of the echini marini. The characters are, that they are of an oval figure, and have the aperture of the *anus* on one of the ſides of the ſuperficies; their back is ſmooth and even, not furrowed; but on the vertex they have ſeveral very elegant crenated and dotted lines. Their baſe is as if cut off on the end neareſt the mouth, and is not flat as in the SPATANGI, but raiſed in the manner of a cuſhion.

* BRISTLE. *n. ſ.* [*briſtl*, Sax.] The ſtiff hair of ſwine.—I will not open my lips ſo wide as a *briſtle* may enter. *Shakeſpeare.*—He is covered with hair, and not as the boar, with *briſtles*, which probably ſpend more upon the ſame matter, which, in other creatures, makes the horns; for *briſtles* ſeem to be nothing elſe but a horn ſplit into a multitude of little ones. *Grew.*—

Two boars whom love to battle draws,
With riſing *briſtles*, and with frothy jaws,
Their adverſe breaſts with tuſks oblique they wound. *Dryden.*

(1.) * *To* BRISTLE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To erect in briſtles.—

Now for the bare pickt bone of majeſty,
Doth dogged war *briſtle* his angry creſt,
And ſnarleth in the gentle eyes of peace. *Shak.*
Which makes him plume himſelf, and *briſtle* up
The creſt of youth againſt your dignity. *Shak.*

(2.) * *To* BRISTLE. *v. n.* To ſtand erect as briſtles.—

Be it ounce, or cat, or bear,
Pard, or boar with *briſtled* hair,
In thy eye that ſhall appear,
When thou wak'ſt, it is thy dear. *Shak.*
Stood Theodore ſurpriz'd in deadly fright,
With chatt'ring teeth, and *briſtling* hair upright:
Yet arm'd with inborn worth. *Dryd.*
Thy hair ſo *briſtles* with unmanly fears,
As fields of corn that riſe in bearded ears. *Dryd.*

(3.) * *To* BRISTLE A THREAD. To fix a briſtle to it.

* BRISTLY. *adj.* [from *briſtle*.] Thick ſet with briſtles.—The leaves of the black mulberry are ſomewhat *briſtly*, which may help to preſerve the dew. *Bacon.*—If the eye were ſo acute as to rival the fineſt microſcope, the ſight of our own eyes would affright us; the ſmoothest ſkin would be beſet with rugged ſcales and *briſtly* hairs. *Bentley.*—

Thus maſtful beech the *briſtly* cheſnut bears,
And the wild aſh is white with bloomy pears. *Dryden.*
The careful maſter of the ſwine,
Forth haſted he to tend his *briſtled* care. *Pope.*

(1.) BRISTOL, a city of England, of very great importance in wealth, trade, and the number of its inhabitants. Briſtol is a corruption of BRIGHTSTOW, the name given it by the Saxons. It is thought to have ſtood anciently altogether on the Somerſetſhire or W. ſide of the Avon, before the bridge was built; but afterwards, it came to be partly in Somerſetſhire and partly in Glouceſterſhire, until it was made a county of itſelf. Before that, in the parliament rolls, it was always placed in Somerſetſhire. At preſent, the E. ſide is by much the largeſt and moſt populous. It had anciently a caſtle, built by Robert E. of Glouceſter, natural ſon to Henry I. which was demoliſhed by Cromwell; and the ground is now laid out into ſtreets. The corporation conſiſts of a mayor; recorder; and 12 aldermen, of whom the recorder is one; two ſheriffs; and 28 common council men. The recorder is generally a ſerjeant at law, and ſits as judge in all criminal cauſes. The mayor, to ſupport his dignity, is intitled to certain fees from ſhips, which long ago amounted to L. 500 or L. 600. Briſtol is a biſhop's ſee, being one of the ſix erected by Henry VIII. out of the ſpoils of the monaſteries. The cathedral church was the church of the abbey of St Auſtin in Briſtol, founded by Robert Fitzharding, ſon to a king of Denmark, once a citizen here, and by him filled with canons regular in 1148. At the reformation, Henry VIII. placed therein a dean and ſix prebendaries, which mode of government ſtill continues. During a great part of Q. Elizabeth's reign, this ſee was held *in Commendam* by the biſhop of Glouceſter. This dioceſe was formed chiefly out of that of Saliſbury, with a ſmall part from thoſe of Wells and Worceſter. It contains moſt of the city of Briſtol, and all the county of Dorſet, in which are 236 pariſhes. It has only one archdeaconry, viz. of Dorſet; is valued in the king's books L. 338 : 8 : 4, and is computed to be annually worth L. 1500, including its *commendams*. The tenths of the clergy, L. 353, 18s. old. The revenue of the abbey of St Auguſtine, or St Auſtin, in Briſtol, was valued at the diſſolution at L. 670 : 13 : 11, when it was erected into a cathedral by king Henry VIII. by the name of the *Cathedral Church of the Holy Trinity*. To this cathedral belongs a biſhop, a dean, an archdeacon, a chancellor, ſix prebendaries, and other inferior officers and ſervants. Beſides the cathedral, there are 18 pariſh churches; and diſſenters of all denominations, of whom the Quakers are very reſpectable both for wealth and numbers. Among the pariſh churches, that of St Mary Ratcliff is reckoned one of the fineſt in the kingdom. In this church, beſides two monuments of the founder, William Canning, who had been 5 times mayor, one in the habit of a magiſtrate, and another in that of a prieſt, (for in his latter days he took orders,) there is one of Sir William Penn, father to the famous quaker. The old bridge over the Avon conſiſted of 4 broad arches, with houſes on both ſides like thoſe formerly on London bridge; but this has been lately pulled down, and another erected in its place. No carts or waggons are admitted into Briſtol, leaſt they ſhould damage the ſubterraneous vaults and ſewers. Sledges are uſed in their ſtead. Queen's ſquare

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is fully as large as Lincoln's-inn-fields, in London, and has in the centre an equeſtrian ſtatue of William III. All the gates of this city remain entire, and a part of the walls; the reſt were razed in the reign of William II. It is almoſt as broad as long, about 7 miles in circumference, and contains about 13,000 houſes, and 95,000 inhabitants. Of the hoſpitals, the chief are, 1. Q. Elizabeth's, in which 100 boys are taught reading, writing, arithmetic, and navigation; ſix of whom, when they go out, have L. 10, and the reſt L. 8. 8s. to bind them apprentices: the maſter is allowed L. 450 a-year for their maintenance. 2. Colſton's hoſpital; in which 100 boys are maintained for 7 years, and taught and apprenticed, as in the other. 3. Another founded alſo by Mr Colſton, in 1691, for 12 men and 12 women, with an allowance of 3s. per week, and 24 ſacks of coals in the year. This charity coſt the founder L. 25,000. 4. Another founded partly by Mr Colſton and partly by the merchants, in which 18 men on account of the merchants, and 12 men and women on account of Mr Colſton, are maintained. 5. An infirmary, which was opened in 1736 for the ſick, lame, and diſtreſſed poor, is maintained by ſubſcription, beſides L. 5000 bequeathed to it by John Eldridge, Eſq; formerly comptroller of the cuſtoms at this port. There are alſo a bridewell, ſeveral alm houſes, and charity ſchools; a guildhall for the ſeſſions and aſſizes, the mayors and ſheriffs courts; a council-houſe, where the mayor and aldermen meet daily, to adminiſter juſtice; a handſome new exchange, with 3 entrances, about two thirds as large as that of London; and a quay half a mile in length, the moſt commodious in England for ſhipping and landing goods; for which purpoſe it is provided with ſeveral cranes. In College-green is a ſtately high croſs, with the effigies of ſeveral kings round it. In Winch-ſtreet is a guard-houſe, with barracks for ſoldiers. The trade of this city was computed many years ago to be much greater in proportion, eſpecially to America and the Weſt Indies, than that of London. Fifty ſail, ſome of them ſhips of conſiderable burthen, have arrived here at one time, or very near one another from the Weſt Indies. For this trade, and that to Ireland, it is much better ſituated than London, beſides the great advantage it poſſeſſes of an inland navigation by the Wye and Severn: yet, notwithſtanding its favourable ſituation, its commerce has of late rather declined. Their trade extends to the Baltic, Norway, Holland, Hamburgh, Guinea, and the Straits. The largeſt ſhips are diſcharged at Hungroad, 4 miles below the city, and the goods are brought to the quay by lighters. For building, equipping, and repairing ſhips, there are docks, yards, rope-walks, and ſhip-wrights. Briſtol has ſome conſiderable woollen manufactures; and no fewer than 15 glaſs-houſes, for which Kingſwood and Mendip furniſh the coals. The city companies are 13: 1. Merchant adventurers. 2. Merchant tailors. 3. Mercers. 4. Soap-boilers. 5. Tobacconiſts. 6. Butchers. 7. Barbers. 8. Tylers. 9. Holliers, or ſledmen. 10. Shoemakers. 11. Coopers. 12. Bakers. 13. Smiths. For ſupplying the city with water there are 6 public conduits. Handſome hackney coaches may be hired, at very reaſonable rates, but they do not ply in the ſtreets; and there are alſo ſtage coaches, which ſet out every day for Bath, London, and other places. Here likewiſe is a theatre, where plays are acted almoſt every night during the receſs of the comedians from the metropolis. There are two annual fairs, to which the concourſe is ſo great, that the neighbouring inns have filled 100 beds a piece with their gueſts. In winter there is an aſſembly every Thurſday for the gayer part of the citizens of both ſexes. About half way betwixt Briſtol and Bath, at a place called WARMLY, a company of Briſtol merchants have erected a noble manufacture of pins and other braſs utenſils, which employs a great number of hands, including about 200 children of both ſexes from 7 to 12 or 13 years of age. All the different operations of melting, plitting, drawing, hammering, turning, &c. are performed by wheels worked with water, which is raiſed by two fire-engines of a very curious mechaniſm. Briſtol ſends two members to parliament. Whoever marries a citizen's daughter becomes free of the city. It has 3 markets, on Wed. Frid. and Sat. It is 40 m. S. of Hereford, 60 NE. of Exeter, 34 SW. by S. of Glouceſter, 50 SSW. of Worceſter, 12 WNW. of Bath, and 124 W. of London. Lon. 2. 36. W. Lat. 51. 28. N.

(2.) BRISTOL, a maritime county of the United States, in Maſſachuſetts; bounded on the N. by Norfolk, on the SW. by the State of Rhode-Iſland, on the S. and SE. by Buzzard's bay, and on the NE. by Plymouth county. It is 42 miles in length, and 32 in breadth; and is divided into 15 townſhips, viz. Taunton, Norton, Eaſton, Mansfield, Attleborough, Swanzy, Somerſet, Dighton, Raynham, Berkley, Freetown, Weſtport, Dartmouth, New-Bedford, and Rehoboth. It contains 4,514 houſes, and 31,709 inhabitants. This county contains valuable mines of iron ore, which are worked to a large amount. Cooper ore has been diſcovered in Attleborough townſhip. The chief town is Taunton.

(3.) BRISTOL, a maritime county of the ſtate of Rhode-Iſland, 7 miles in length and 3 in breadth. It is bounded on the E. by Mount-Hope, or Briſtol-bay, on the W. by Warwick-bay, on the N. by the ſtate of Maſſachuſetts, and on the S. by part of Narraganſet bay. It is divided into three townſhips, viz. Briſtol, Warren, and Barrington; and contains 3,113 free inhabitants, and 98 ſlaves.

(4.) BRISTOL, a poſt town, and the capital of the preceding county; (N. 3.) It is ſituated on the main, 12 miles NNE. of Newport, and contains about 250 dwellings, a handſome court-houſe, a church for Epiſcopalians, and one for Congregationaliſts. This town was bombarded by captain Wallace, commanding a ſmall Britiſh ſquadron, in October, 1775, and laid under contribution; no lives were loſt on the occaſion, except the miniſter of the congregational church, who left his houſe at the commencement of the bombardment, and being ſick and very weak, periſhed in the fields. Several of the houſes were deſtroyed; but they have been ſince rebuilt. It is now flouriſhing, and carries on a conſiderable trade to Africa, the Weſt Indies, and the different States. Within the juriſdiction of this town, is Mount

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Mount Hope, the laſt reſidence of the famous king Philip. It is now the ſeat of Mr Bradford, ſenator in Congreſs. This place is remarkable for the large quantities of fine vegetables, with which it furniſhes the neighbouring towns, upwards of 300,000 ropes of onions, beſides immenſe quantities of beets, carrots, turnips, &c. &c. are raiſed here annually. A ſupreme court is held here the 1ſt Monday in April, and October, and a court of common pleas the 1ſt Monday in January and July. It is 4 miles S. of Warren, 14 SE. by E. of Providence, and 300 from Philadelphia.

(5.) BRISTOL, or } the capital of the county of
BRISTOL, NEW, } Bucks in Pennſylvania, ſituated on the river Delaware, about 20 miles N. of Philadelphia. It contains about 50 dwellings, ſome of which are neat and commodious. It is an agreeable handſome place; and is the reſort of much company in ſummer. It was incorporated by Sir William Kieth, in 1720; and was governed by a burgeſs and common council men, until the revolution. Lon. 75. 0. W. Lat. 40. 45. N.

(6.) * BRISTOL STONE. A kind of ſoft diamond found in a rock near the city of Briſtol.—Of this kind of cryſtal are the better and larger ſort of *Briſtol ſtones*, and the Kerry ſtones of Ireland. *Woodward.*

(7.) BRISTOL STONES are found in St Vincent's rock above the hot well of BRISTOL; (§ 8.) They are ſix-cornered, and very beautiful and tranſparent; but they are not ſo plentiful now as in Camden's days, when he ſays whole buſhels might have been eaſily gathered.

(8.) BRISTOL WELLS. A mile below the city, (N° 1.) cloſe by the river, is the hot well, whoſe waters are good in phthiſical, ſcorbutic, and inflammatory diſorders. To this there is a great reſort in the ſummer, of invalids, as well as other company; for whoſe accommodation and entertainment there is a pump-room, ball-room, coffee-houſe, with taverns, and a great number of elegant lodging houſes, both below on a level with the well, and above, in the delightful village of CLIFTON, which is ſituated on the brow of a hill, from whence there are downs extending ſeveral miles, where the company ride out for exerciſe. Nothing can be more pure and ſalutary than the air of theſe downs, which afford many romantic and agreeable proſpects, comprehending Kingroad, with the ſhips at anchor, the mouth of the Severn, and the mountains of Wales. Of the 4 principal warm waters naturally produced in England thoſe of this well are the leaſt ſo. As the Bath waters are proper where the ſecretions are defective, ſo the Briſtol water is of ſervice where they exceed the requirements of health. The Bath water warms; the Briſtol cools. Bath water helps the ſtomach, inteſtines, and nerves; the Briſtol favours the lungs, kidneys, and bladder. Except a jaundice attend, the Briſtol water may be of uſe in dropſies by its drying and diuretic qualities. Dr Winter aſſerts, that there is no iron in Briſtol water; and that its mineral contents are chalk, lapis calcareus, and calaminaris. Five gallons of this water, after evaporation, afforded only 3 iii. and gr. ii. of a mineral-like ſubſtance. The diſeaſes in which this water is uſeful are internal hæmorrhagies, immoderate menſes, internal inflammations, ſpitting blood, dyſentery purulent ulcers of the viſcera, conſumption, dropſy, ſcurvy with heat, ſtone, gravel, ſtrangury, habitual gout, atrophy, ſlow fever, ſcrophula, gleets, and diabetes, in which laſt it is a ſpecific, and may be drunk as freely as the thirſt requires it. The hot months are the beſt for uſing it.—The Briſtol and Matlock waters are of exactly the ſame qualities. Doctors Mead and Lane firſt eſtabliſhed the reputation of Briſtol waters in diſeaſes of the kidneys and bladder. Beſides the hot well, there is a cold ſpring which guſhes out of a rock on the ſide of the Avon, and ſupplies the cold bath.

BRISTOW-CAUSEWAY, a village in Surry, near Clapham.

BRISTOW-PARK, in Leiceſterſhire.

BRISURE, in fortification, a line of 4 or 5 fathoms, parallel to the line of defence.

* BRIT *n. ſ.* the name of a fiſh.—The pilchards were wont to purſue the *brit*, upon which they feed, into the havens. *Carew.*

(I. 1.) BRITAIN, or GREAT BRITAIN, the moſt conſiderable of all the European iſlands, extends from the Lizard Point, in the latitude of about 50° to Duneſbay Head, in latitude 58. 40. N. or, taking it in a ſtraight line from N. to S. about 8° or 550 miles; and from Dover head on the E. to Lands end on the W. comprehends about 7° of longitude, which may be computed at about 290 miles. Others eſtimate its length at 700 miles, and its breadth at 300; but the form being very irregular, and leſſening continually towards the north, proper allowances muſt be made in computing its dimenſions.

(2.) BRITAIN, ANCIENT NAMES AND ETYMOLOGIES OF. The ancient name of this iſland was ALBION, the name *Britain* being then common to all the iſlands round it. Hence Agathemerus, ſpeaking of the Britiſh iſlands, "They are many in number, (ſays he,) but the moſt conſiderable among them are Hibernia and Albion." And Ptolemy, to the chapter wherein he deſcribes this iſland, prefixes the following title; "The ſituation of *Albion*, a Britiſh iſland." But as this far excelled the other Britiſh iſlands, the name of *Albion* in time was laid quite aſide, and that of *Britain* uſed in its ſtead. By this name it was known in Pliny's time, and even in Cæſar's.—The origin of both theſe names is very uncertain. Some derive that of Albion from the Greek word *alphon*, which according to Feſtus, ſignifies *white*, the chalky cliffs, that in ſeveral places riſe on the ſouthern coaſts having that colour; while others pretend this name was borrowed from a fabulous giant, the ſon of Neptune, mentioned by ſeveral ancient authors. Some etymologiſts have recourſe to the Hebrew, and others to the Phœnician; *alben* in the former ſignifying *white*, and *alp* in the latter ſignifying *high*. The origin of the name *Britain* is no leſs uncertain than that of *Albion*. Nennius and ſome other Britiſh writers derive it from BRUTUS, or BRITO, the 5th in deſcent from the celebrated Æneas. Others derive it from the Britiſh words *prid cain*, that is a *white form*, ſoftened by degrees into *Britannia*. Camden derives it from the word *brith*, which, in the ancient language of the iſland, ſignifies *painted*;

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painted; and *tania*, importing, in Greek, a region or country; so that the word *Britbania*, changed in process of time into *Britannia*, expresses what the Britons really were that is, *painted*. Somner, says, that the name *Britain* comes from *brydio*: signifying, in the British tongue, *rage*, and pointing out the violent motion of the sea that surrounds the island. Mr Whittaker, in his history of Manchester, derives it from the word *brith*, *briet*, *brit*, *bris*, or *brig*, which he says, signifies *divided* or *striped*. Against the first of these etymologies it may be objected, that it is founded on a fable: and against the other 4, lies one common and unanswerable objection; which is, that the name of *Britain* was given to the island by foreigners, who could not borrow it from the British tongue, with which they were in all likelihood unacquainted. That the island received the name of *Britain* from foreigners is evident, since the natives never styled themselves *Britons*, nor their country *Britain*; their true name being *Cumri*, or *Cumbri*; whence *Cambria* the name of Wales to this day among the Welsh. The learned Bochart, speaking of the colonies and language of the Phœnicians, offers a conjecture, which most of our modern writers have adopted as the most natural. The Phœnicians, according to that writer, called this island and some others near it, *Baart Anac*, that is *the land or country of tin or lead*, and more contractedly *Bratannae*; which name, passing from the Phœnicians to the Greeks, and from these to the Romans, might have been softened into those of *Britannicæ*, and *Britannia*. That the Phœnicians first discovered these islands, which were afterwards by the Greeks called *Cassiterides*, and are proved by Camden to be our Scilly islands, appears both from Strabo and Pliny; of which the former tells us, that the Phœnicians first brought tin from the Cassiterides, which they sold to the Greeks; but kept the trade to themselves, and the place private; and the latter writes, that Mediocritus was the first who brought lead from the Cassiterides; where Bochart shows that we ought to read *Melichartus*, who is the Phœnician Hercules of Sanchoniatho, to whom that nation ascribe their first western discoveries. But notwithstanding the care of the Phœnicians to conceal these islands, the Greeks at last discovered them; and gave them the name of *Cassiterides*, which in the Greek tongue, signifies the same with *Ilarat Anac* in the Phœnician. The name was at first given to the islands of Scilly already mentioned, but by degrees communicated to all the others lying in the same sea. Thus for Bochart.—But after all, his opinions, however plausible, may be as far from the truth as any of the rest; many instances of names given to new discovered countries showing, that the origin of such names is not always owing to reason, but often to chance or caprice.

(3.) BRITAIN, ANCIENT NATIONS OF. The Romans, upon their arrival in this island, found the people, who inhabited the various parts of it, divided into a number of different tribes. The chief nations, as denominated by the Romans, were the *Cantii*, who inhabited Kent; *Trinobantes*, Middlesex; *Belgæ*, or *Regni*, in Hampshire, Wiltshire, and Somersetshire; *Durotriges*, in Dorsetshire; *Damnonii*, in Devonshire and Cornwall; *Atrebates*, in Berkshire; *Silures*, in South Wales; *Ordovices*, in North Wales; *Iceni*, in Essex, Suffolk, Norfolk, &c.; *Brigantes*, in Yorkshire; and several others. *Caledonia*, or *Britannia Barbara*, was never subdued by the Romans, who did not penetrate farther than the *montes Grampii*. It was inhabited by the *Caledonians* and *Picts*, so called, because they painted their bodies; which practice indeed was common to all the Britons, as well as to other barbarous nations. *Scoti*, the Scots, are only mentioned by later writers, after the time of Theodosius; and generally supposed to have come from Ireland. The SE. part of Britain is thought to have been peopled from Gaul. Tacitus imagines that the Caledonians, from their size and the colour of their hair, were of German extraction. The *Silures*, or Welsh, for similar reasons, are believed to have come from Spain.

(4.) BRITAIN, ANCIENT ROMAN DIVISIONS OF, &c. The Romans divided our island into two parts; BRITANNIA ROMANA, and BRITANNIA BARBARA. These were of different extent at different times, according to the progress of their conquests. *Britannia Romana* was subdivided into *Superior*, answering to Wales, and *Inferior*, comprehending the rest of it: likewise into *Britannia, prima, secunda, Valentia, Maxima Cæsariensis*, and *Flavia Cæsariensis*; but the limits of these are not known. The principal rivers of Britain, they denominated *Tamesis*, the Thames; *Sabrina*, the Severn; *Abus*, the Humber, composed of the Ouse, Trent, and other branches; *Vedra*, the Were; *Tina*, the Tyne; *Ituna*, the Eden, when runs into the *Æstuarium Itunæ*, the Solway frith; *Tuaesis*, or *Tuesis*, the Tweed; *Bodotria*, or *Boderia*, the Forth; *Glota*, the Clyde; *Taus*, the Tay; *Devana*, the Dee, &c. The W. & N. parts of the island are in general mountainous. The only mountain, however, or rather range of mountains, which the Romans have distinguished by a name, is *Mons Grampius*, the Grampian mountains, which, beginning near the mouth of the Dee, not far from Aberdeen, run westward to Cowal, in Argyllshire, almost the whole breadth of the island.

(5.) BRITAIN, ANCIENT STATE OF GOVERNMENT IN. When the Romans invaded Britain, it was divided into a number of small independent states, which facilitated the conquest of it. Each state was governed by a king or chief magistrate, and under him by several chieftains, who ruled each his own tribe with a kind of subordinate authority. One of the chief parts of the regal office was to command in war; which these sovereigns always executed in person, whether they were kings or queens; for in this respect, as in succeeding to the crown, there was no distinction of sexes. These kings were frequently at war with one another, though Diodorus Siculus says they usually lived in peace. The authority of the kings of Britain was greatly controuled by the priests called DRUIDS, who were not only the ministers of religion, but also possessed the right of making laws, of explaining and executing them. Their power, and consequently the honour paid them, was incredibly great. They were considered as the interpreters of the Gods; they were exempted

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ed from all taxes and military ſervices; and their perſons were held ſacred and inviolable.

(6.) BRITAIN, ANCIENT TOWNS OF. The Britons had ſcarcely any towns of note when invaded by the Romans. The termination *Cheſter*, which is common to ſo many towns in England, is thought to be derived from the Latin *caſtra*, and that theſe were places of Roman encampments. LONDINUM, London, was early remarkable for a great reſort of merchants. *Camelodunum*, Malden, or according to others, Colcheſter, was the firſt Roman colony in Britain. The ports moſt frequented under the emperors, were *Rutupiæ*, Richborough, in Kent; the *Portus Dubris*, Dover, and *Lemanis*, Lymo, near which, Cæſar is ſuppoſed to have landed. Other remarkable places were, *Durovernum*, Canterbury; *Durobrivis*, Rocheſter; *Venta Belgarum*, Wincheſter; *Durnium*, or *Durnovaria*, Dorcheſter; *Iſca*, Exeter; *Verulamium*, Verulam, near St Alban's; *Aquæ Solis*, or *Calidæ*, Bath; *Clanum*, Glouceſter; *Deva*, Cheſter, on the river Dee, where the ancient walls and fortifications ſtill remain; *Lindum Colonia*, Lincoln; *Eboracum*, York; *Luguvallum*, Carliſle; *Alatæ caſtra*, ſuppoſed to be Edinburgh, called anciently *Edinodunum*, from its Celtic appellation, *Dun Aidan*, the eminence or citadel of Aidan; *Burg*, Saxon, anſwering to *dune* in the Celtic; or, according to others, from *Eden*, a Northumbrian king who built or poſſeſſed it.

(7.) BRITAIN, CUSTOMS AND MANNERS OF THE ANCIENT INHABITANTS OF. Beſides the Druids, (§ 5.) there were two other claſſes highly reſpected both in Gaul and Britain, the one called BARDS, who ſang hiſtorical and heroic ſongs in praiſe of brave warriors; and the other, PROPHETS, who foretold future events, from omens and the entrails of victims; for the Druids were much addicted to divination, and to gratify that propenſity committed acts of the greateſt cruelty. The Britons were much more united with reſpect to religious than political matters. The conſtant jealouſy and frequent hoſtility which ſubſiſted between the different ſtates were very unfavourable to external defence. To this want of union Tacitus aſcribes their ſubjection to the Romans, who, with their uſual policy firſt formed alliances with ſome of the ſtates, and uſed their aſſiſtance to cruſh the reſt; then quarrelling with their allies, they reduced them alſo; which was ſooner or later the fate of all the allies of Rome. The dwellings of the ancient Britons were ſcattered over the country, like thoſe of the ancient Germans, and generally ſituated on the brink of ſome rivulet, for the ſake of water, and on the ſkirt of ſome wood or foreſt, for the convenience of hunting, and paſture for their cattle. For moſt of the inhabitants of the interior parts of Britain lived on milk and fleſh, without corn; and had no clothing but ſkins. The principal ſtrength of the Britiſh forces conſiſted in infantry; although they alſo had a numerous cavalry; and ſome nations likewiſe fought from chariots armed with ſcythes, which they managed with great dexterity. The chieftains managed the reins, while their dependents fought from the chariot. The cruel policy of the Romans in diſarming the inhabitants of the conquered provinces, produced a wonderful change of character in the Britons; which the more humane tho' artful conduct of Agricola contributed greatly to accelerate. See AGRICOLA, N° 1. By degrees, they acquired a taſte for thoſe refinements which ſtimulate to vice (*delinimenta vitiorum*,) porticos, baths, and elegant entertainments; and what conſtituted part of their ſlavery was, through inexperience, termed by them *humanity* or politeneſs. Thus the Britons, after being ſubjected to the Roman yoke, although greatly increaſed in numbers, and improved in point of domeſtic enjoyment, ſunk in a ſhort time from being one of the braveſt of nations into feebleneſs and effeminacy; ſo that when the Romans left them, they were in a manner quite defenceleſs, and thus became an eaſy prey to the firſt invaders.

(8.) BRITAIN, HISTORY OF. The hiſtory of Britain, or rather of SOUTH BRITAIN, (for the northern part was for many ages only known by the name of CALEDONIA,) is naturally divided into ſix periods, viz. 1. Before the Roman Invaſion: 2. From that invaſion to the Union of all England under Egbert the Great: 3. From that period to the overthrow of the Anglo-Saxon conſtitution and government, by William the Norman: 4. From the Norman conqueſt to the Union of the two crowns under James I.: 5. From the acceſſion of James I. to the revolution: and, 6. From that grand æra, to the preſent important period. The firſt of theſe periods being filled with nothing but fabulous legends, merits little or no notice: the hiſtory of the 2d, 3d, and 4th periods, belongs properly to ENGLAND, and will therefore be found under that article, although South Britain was not known by that name, till long after the Roman Invaſion. The hiſtory of GREAT BRITAIN, therefore is properly reſtricted to the two laſt periods. But, although we think there is an impropriety in ſtiling the kingdom, conſtitution, government, inhabitants, &c. &c. of GREAT BRITAIN, *Engliſh*, inſtead of *Britiſh*, yet to avoid making a chaſm in the Engliſh hiſtory, by ſtopping at the death of Elizabeth, we ſhall refer the reader, of both theſe intereſting periods to the article ENGLAND.

(9.) BRITAIN, ISLANDS OF. The chief iſlands round Britain, as denominated by the Romans are, *Vectis*, Wight; *Caſſiterides*, ſuppoſed to be the Scilly Iſlands, ſo called, from their producing tin, by the Phœnician Greeks, who gave this name likewiſe to *promontorium Bolerium*, Landſend, and *Damnonium* or *Ocrinum*, the Lizard point, as alſo a part of Cornwall; *Mona*, Angleſey, the ſeat of the Druids, and *Mona* or *Monæda*, Man; *Ebudæ*, or *Hebrides*, the weſtern iſles of Scotland; *Orcades*, the Orkneys, oppoſite to the promontory *Orcas*, Dungſby: to which add the Shetland iſlands, ſuppoſed to be the *Ultima Thule* of the ancients, which they imagined the moſt remote part of the earth towards the north.

(10.) BRITAIN, MODERN DIVISION OF. The whole iſland of Great Britain has long been divided into ENGLAND, SCOTLAND, and WALES; all of which were formerly under different ſovereigns, though now happily united under one. For a particular deſcription and hiſtory of each, ſee theſe articles.

(11.) BRITAIN, NORTH. See SCOTLAND.

(12.) BRI-

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(12.) BRITAIN, SOUTH. See ENGLAND.

(II.) BRITAIN, CAPE. See BRETON, CAPE.

(III.) BRITAIN, NEW, a large country of North America, called alſo *Terra Labrador*, has Hudſon's bay and ſtrait, on the N. and W.; Canada and the river St Lawrence, on the S.; and the Atlantic ocean on the E. It is ſubject to Great Britain, but yields only ſkins and furs. The following is the beſt deſcription of this country that we have met with. It was drawn up by the commander of the Otter ſloop, and communicated to the Royal Society by the hon. Daines Barrington, in 1774. "There is no part of the Britiſh dominions ſo little known as the immenſe country of Labrador. So few have viſited the northern parts of this vaſt country, that almoſt from the ſtraits of Belleiſle until you come to the entrance to Hudſon's bay, for more than 10° of lat. no chart which can give any tolerable idea of the coaſt hath been hitherto formed. The barrenneſs of the country explain why it has been ſo ſeldom frequented. Here avarice has but little to feed on. Perhaps, without an immoderate ſhare of vanity, I may venture to preſume, that as far as I have been, which is to the latitude of 59. 10. the draught which I have been able to form is by much the beſt of any that has hitherto been made. Others have gone before me bleſt with abilities ſuperior to mine, and to whom I hope to be thought equal in aſſiduity. But I had advantages which they were deſtitute of; with a ſmall veſſel, and having an Indian with me, who knew every rock and ſhoal upon the coaſt, I was enabled to be accurate in my obſervations; and theſe are the reaſons why I deem my own ſketch preferable to all others. As this country is one of the moſt barren in the whole world, ſo its ſea coaſt is the moſt remarkable. Bordered by innumerable iſlands, and many of them being a conſiderable diſtance from the main land, a ſhip of burden would ſail a great way along the coaſt without being able to form any notion of its true ſituation. Hence it is that all charts of it have been ſo extremely erroneous; and hence aroſe thoſe opinions that ſome of the inlets extended a vaſt diſtance into the country, if not quite into the ſea of Hudſon's bay. Davis's inlet, which has been ſo much talked of, is not 20 leagues from the entrance of it to its extremity. The navigation here is extremely hazardous. Towards the land, the ſea is covered with large bodies and broken pieces of ice; and the farther you go northward, the greater is the quantity you meet with. Some of thoſe maſſes, which the ſeamen call *iſlands of ice*, are of a prodigious magnitude; and they are generally ſuppoſed to ſwim two thirds under water. You will frequently ſee them more than 100 feet above the ſurface; and to ſhips in a ſtorm, or in thick weather, nothing can be more terrible. Thoſe prodigious pieces of ice come from the north, and are ſuppoſed to be formed by the freezing of cataracts upon the lands about Eaſt Greenland and the pole. As ſoon as the ſeverity of the winter begins to abate, their immenſe weight breaks them from the ſhore, and they are driven to the ſouthward. To the miſerable inhabitants of Labrador, their appearance upon the coaſt ſerves as a token of the approach of ſummer. This vaſt tract of land is extremely barren, and altogether incapable of cultivation. The ſurface is every where uneven and covered with large ſtones, ſome of which are of amazing dimenſions. There are few ſprings; yet throughout the country there are prodigious chains of lakes or ponds, which are produced by the rains and the melting of the ſnow. Theſe ponds abound in trout, but they are very ſmall. There is no ſuch thing as level land. It is a country formed of frightful mountains, and unfruitful valleys. The mountains are almoſt devoid of every ſort of herbage. A blighted ſhrub and a little moſs is ſometimes to be ſeen upon them, but in general the bare rock is all you behold. The valleys are full of crooked low trees, ſuch as the different pines, ſpruce, birch, and a ſpecies of cedar. Up ſome of the deep bays, and not far from the water, it is ſaid, however, there are a few ſticks of no inconſiderable ſize. In a word, the whole country is nothing more than a prodigious heap of barren rocks. The climate is extremely rigorous. There is but little appearance of ſummer before the middle of July; and in September the approach of winter is very evident. It has been remarked, that the winters within theſe few years have been leſs ſevere than they have been known heretofore. The cauſe of ſuch an alteration it would be difficult to diſcover. All along there are many rivers that empty themſelves into the ſea, yet there are but few of any conſideration; and you muſt not imagine, that the largeſt are any thing like what is generally underſtood by a river. Cuſtom has taught us to give them this appellation; but the greateſt part of them are nothing more than broad brooks or rivulets. As they are only drains from the ponds, in dry weather they are every where fordable; for, running upon a ſolid rock, they become broad without having a bed of any depth below the ſurface of the banks. The ſuperficial appearance of this country is extremely unfavourable. What may be hidden in its bowels, we cannot pretend to ſuggeſt: probably it may produce ſome copper; the rocks in many places are impregnated with an ore of that reſemblance. Something of a horny ſubſtance, which is extremely tranſparent, and which will ſcale out into a multitude of ſmall ſheets, is often found amidſt the ſtones; there are both black and white of this ſort, but the black is the moſt rare. It has been tried in fire, but ſeems to be noways affected by heat. The ſpecies of wood here are not very various: excepting a few ſhrubs which have as yet received no name from the Europeans, the principal produce of the country is the different ſorts of ſpruce and vine. Of theſe, even in the more ſouthern parts, there is not abundance; as you advance northwards they gradually diminiſh; and by the time you arrive at 60° lat. the eye is not delighted with any ſort of herbage. Here the wretched reſidents build their miſerable habitations with the bones of whales. If ever they cheer their aching limbs with a fire, they gather a few ſticks from the ſea ſhore, which have probably been waſhed from Norway or Lapland. Here a vaſt quantity of ſnow remains upon the land throughout the year. Although the winter here is ſo exceſſively rigid, in ſummer the heat is ſometimes diſagreeable; and in that ſeaſon the weather

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weather is very moderate, and remarkably ſerene. It is but ſeldom foggy, ſpeaking comparatively, between this and Newfoundland; nor are you ſo frequently liable to thoſe deſtructive gales of wind which viſit many other parts of the globe. It is in general high land, and ſometimes you meet with mountains of an aſtoniſhing height; you are alſo frequently preſented with proſpects that are really awful, and extremely romantic. The inhabitants of New Britain are called ESKIMAUX." *Philoſ. Tranſ.* lxiv. p. 372. See GREENLAND and HUDSON'S BAY.

(IV.) BRITAIN, NEW, an iſland in the S. Pacific ocean, ſituated N. of New Guinea. Capt. Dampier firſt ſailed through the ſtrait which ſeparates it from New Guinea; and in 1767, Capt. Carteret ſailed through another ſtrait, which ſeparates it from another iſland, on the N. of it, which he called NEW IRELAND. New Britain on the N. and W. extends to 152. 19. lon. E. and 4. 0. lat. S. But its ſouthern and eaſtern limits are not ſo well aſcertained. New Ireland extends from lon. 149. 2. E. and lat. 20. 30. S. The coaſts of both are rocky; the inland parts high and mountainous; but covered with various trees: ſuch as the nutmeg, the cocoa nut, and different kinds of palm trees. The natives are black and woolly headed, like negroes, but have not their flat noſes and thick lips.

(1.) BRITANNIA, in ancient geography, Great Britain and all the iſlands belonging to it.

(2.) BRITANNIA MINOR, the ci-devant province of BRITTANY, or BRETAGNE, in France.

(1.) BRITANNIC, *adj.* belonging to Britain.

(2.) BRITANNIC, PLAGUE, a name given by ſome writers to the *Anglicanus ſudor*, or ſweating diſeaſe.

BRITANNICA, in the botany and materia medica of the ancients, the name of a plant deſcribed as having leaves of a dark colour, very large, and in ſhape reſembling thoſe of the common wild-dock, but ſomewhat hairy and of an aſtringent taſte; the root ſmall and ſlender, and the ſtalk not large. This is the deſcription of Dioſcorides, who attributes to its inſpiſſated juice great virtues as an aſtringent, and a remedy for ulcers of the mouth and tonſils; and Pliny acquaints us of its prodigious efficacy in a diſtemper attending the army of Germanicus, who, when they had croſſed the Rhine, encamped in a place where there was only one ſpring of water, the drinking of which affected them in a terrible manner in their mouths, and made their teeth drop out; and that the phyſicians, who called the diſeaſe *ſtomacace* and *ſcelotyrbe*, were at length directed to the herb Britannica, as a remedy, by the Friſians who were in their camp. The virtues attributed to this plant are obſerved, by later phyſicians, to agree with thoſe of the *hydrolopathum majus*, or great water-dock, a plant produced very abundantly with us, but at preſent neglected in the practice of phyſic; and Muntingius, who has written profeſſedly of the Britannica of the ancients, is perſuaded that this is the genuine plant; which appears extremely probable.

(1.) BRITANNICUS, ſon of the emperor Claudius by Meſſalina, was excluded from the empire after his father had married Agrippina; who put her ſon Nero on the throne, and cauſed Britannicus to be poiſoned, A. D. 55.

(2.) BRITANNICUS, John, one of the beſt humaniſts of the 15th century, was born at Breſcia. He publiſhed notes on Perſius, Juvenal, Terence, Statius, and Ovid. He died in 1510.

* *To* BRITE. *To* BRIGHT. *v. n.* Barley, wheat, or hops, are ſaid to *brite*, when they grow over ripe.

(1.) BRITISH, *adj.* of or from Britain.

(2.) BRITISH LANGUAGE, the ſame with the Welch. The ancient Britiſh, or Cambro-Britiſh, is a dialect of the Celtic. Some pretend, but with no probability, that the Britiſh is formed immediately from the Teutonic. Cooper abſurdly enough calls the Engliſh language the Britiſh.

BRITOMARTIS, in the mythology, a daughter of Jupiter, who threw herſelf into the ſea, to avoid the purſuit of Minos.

BRITO. See BRITAIN, N° 2. and BRUTUS, N° 3.

BRITONS, the people of Britain. See BRITAIN, § 7. ENGLAND, SCOTLAND, and WALES.

BRITTANY, or BRETAGNE, a ci-devant province of France, 150 miles in length and 112 in breadth; anciently called ARMORICA. It is a peninſula, ſurrounded on all ſides by the ocean except on the E. where it joined Anjou, Maine, Normandy, and Poitou. It was divided into the upper and lower. The natives carry on great trade, by the many harbours on its coaſt. It was united to the crown of France in 1532, and abounds in large foreſts. Some authors ſuppoſe that Great Britain was firſt peopled from Brittany. It is now divided into 5 departments. See BRETAGNE.

BRITTENS, a village in Eſſex, near Hornchurch.

* BRITTLE. *adj.* [*brittan*, Sax.] Fragile; apt to break; not tough.—The wood of vines is very durable; though no tree hath the twigs, while they are green, ſo *brittle*, yet the wood dried is extremely tough. *Bacon.*—

From earth all came, to earth muſt all return.
Frail as the cord, and *brittle* as the urn. *Prior.*
Of airy pomp, and fleeting joys,
What does the buſy world conclude at beſt,
But *brittle* goods, that break like glaſs? *Granv.*

—If the ſtone is *brittle*, it will often crumble, and paſs in the form of gravel. *Arbuthnot.*

(1.) * BRITTLENESS. *n. ſ.* [from *brittle*.] Aptneſs to break; fragility.—A wit quick without brightneſs, ſharp without *brittleneſs*. *Aſcham's Schoolmaſter.*—Artificers, in the tempering of ſteel, by holding it but a minute or two longer or leſſer in the flame, give it very differing tempers, as to *brittleneſs* or toughneſs. *Boyle.*

(2.) BRITTLENESS may be farther defind, that quality of bodies which ſubjects them to be eaſily broken by preſſure or percuſſion. Brittle bodies are extremely hard; a very ſmall percuſſion exerts a force on them equivalent to the greateſt preſſure. This effect is particularly remarkable in glaſs ſuddenly cooled, the brittleneſs of which is thereby much increaſed. Tin, though in itſelf tough, gives a brittleneſs to all the other metals when mixed therewith. The brittleneſs of glaſs has been ſaid to ariſe from the heterogenity of the parts whereof it is compoſed, as ſalt and ſand can never bind ſufficiently

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ſufficiently together: but this cannot be the caſe; for the pure calces of metals, or any other ſimple ſubſtances when vitrified, become brittle alſo. In timbers, brittleneſs ſeems to be connected with durability; the more brittle any ſort of wood is, the more durable it is found. Thus oak is of very long duration; while beech and birch, being tough, preſently rot, and are of little ſervice in building.

(1.) BRITTON, a town near Barnſley, Yorkſh.

(2.) BRITTON, Thomas, the famous muſical ſmall coal-man, was born at Higham Ferrers in Northamptonſhire. He ſerved his time in London, where he ſet up in a ſtable, next door to the little gate of St John of Jeruſalem, on Clerkenwell-green, which he converted into a houſe. Here getting acquainted with Dr Garenciers, his near neighbour, he became an excellent chemiſt, conſtructing a moveable laboratory which was much admired by all who ſaw it. His ſkill in muſic was noways inferior to that in chemiſtry, either in the theory or practice; he had for many years a well frequented muſical club, meeting at his own little cell; and was as well reſpected as known by perſons of the firſt quality; being, above all, a valuable man in his moral character. In Ward's account of clubs, we are told, that "Britton's was firſt begun, or at leaſt confirmed, by Sir Roger L'Eſtrange, a very muſical gentleman; and that the attachment of Sir Roger and other ingenious gentlemen, lovers of the muſes, to Britton, aroſe from the profound regard he had in general to all manner of literature." This meeting was the firſt of the kind, and gave riſe to ſome of the moſt celebrated concerts in London. Ward, who was his cotemporary, ſays, that at the firſt inſtitution of it, his concert was performed in his own houſe, which is thus deſcribed. "On the ground floor was a repoſitory for ſmall coal: over that was the concert room, which was very long and narrow; and had a ceiling ſo low, that a tall man could but juſt ſtand upright in it. The ſtairs to this room were on the outſide of the houſe, and could ſcarce be aſcended without crawling. The houſe itſelf was very old and low built, and in every reſpect ſo mean as to be a fit habitation only for a very poor man." Notwithſtanding, this manſion, deſpicable as it may ſeem, attracted to it as polite an audience as ever the opera did. At thoſe concerts Dr Pepuſch, Mr Handel, Mr Banniſter, Mr Henry Needler, and other capital maſters, were performers. At the firſt inſtitution of this club, it is certain Britton would receive no gratuity whatever from his gueſts, and was offended when ever any was offered him. According to ſome, however, he departed from this; and the rules were Britton found the inſtruments, the ſubſcription was 10s. a year, and they had coffee at a penny a diſh. The ſingularity of his character, the courſe of his ſtudies, and the collections he made, induced ſuſpicions that Britton was not the man he ſeemed to be. Among other groundleſs conjectures, his muſical aſſembly was thought by ſome to be only a cover for ſeditious meetings; by others, for magical purpoſes; and Britton himſelf was taken for an atheiſt, a Jeſuit, &c. The circumſtances of this man's death are not leſs remarkable than thoſe of his life. There lived at that time one Samuel Honeyman, a blackſmith by trade, who became very famous for a faculty which he poſſeſſed of ſpeaking as if his voice proceeded from ſome diſtant part of the houſe where he ſtood: in ſhort, he was one of thoſe men called VENTRILOQUISTS, *i. e.* thoſe that ſpeak from their bellies. See VENTRILOQUISM. One Robe, an acquaintance of Britton's, was fooliſh enough to introduce this man, unknown to Britton, for the ſole purpoſe of terrifying him; and he ſucceeded but too well in it. Honeyman, without moving his lips, or ſeeming to ſpeak announced, as from afar off, the death of Britton within a few hours, with an intimation that the only way to avert his doom was for him to fall on his knees immediately, and ſay the Lord's prayer: the poor man did as he was bid, went home and took to his bed, and in a few days died, leaving his friend Robe to enjoy the fruits of his fooliſh mirth. This happened in September 1714. Britton left behind him a large collection of books, muſic, and muſical inſtruments. Of the former Sir Hans Sloane was a conſiderable purchaſer. His collection of muſic, moſtly pricked by himſelf, and very neatly, ſold for near 100l. In the Britiſh Muſeum there is a painting of him taken from the life. A mezzotinto print was taken from this picture, for which Mr Hughes (author of the ſiege of Damaſcus, and a frequent performer at Britton's concerts,) wrote the following lines:

Tho' mean thy rank, yet in thy humble cell
Did gentle peace and arts unpurchas'd dwell;
Well pleas'd, Apollo thither led his train,
And muſic warbled in her ſweeteſt ſtrain.
Cyllenius ſo, as fables tell, and Jove,
Came willing gueſts to poor Philemon's grove.
Let uſeleſs pomp behold, and bluſh to find
So low a ſtation, ſuch a lib'ral mind.

BRITTONER, *n. ſ.* a boaſter.

BRITWELL, a village in Oxfordſhire, 3 miles from Maidenhead.

BRITWELL-SALOME, near Walington, Oxford.

BRIVA ISARÆ, in ancient geography, a town of Gallia Belgica on the river Iſara or Oyſe; now called PONTOYSE.

BRIVATES, in ancient geography, a port of Gallia Celtica; now called BREST.

BRIVES LA GAILLARDE, a town of France, in the department of Correze, and ci-devant province of Lower Limoſin. It ſtands in a fruitful plain, oppoſite to an iſland formed by the Correze, over which there are two handſome bridges. It has elegant buildings, fine walks, and manufactures of ſilks, muſlins, gauzes, &c. It is 37 miles S. of Limoges, and 220 S. by W. of Paris. Lon. 1. 45. E. Lat. 45. 15. N.

BRIX. See BRIG, N° 1.

BRIXELLUM, in ancient geography, a town of Gallia Ciſpadana; remarkable for being the place where Otho killed himſelf after the battle of Bedriacum: now called BRESSELLO.

(1.) BRIXEN, a biſhopric of Germany, in Tirol, near the frontiers of Friuli and Carinthia, towards the E. The biſhop has a vote and ſeat in the diet of the empire, and furniſhes his contingent when any tax is laid on Tirol. The principal places are Brixen, Sertzingen, Bruneck, and Lienz.

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Lientz. This country was over-run by the French army, under Gen. Buonaparte, in the beginning of 1797.

(2.) BRIXEN, the capital of the bishopric, and the bishop's common residence, is seated on the river Eisache, at some distance from the mountain Brenner. It is surrounded with mountains, where there are plenty of vineyards, which yield good red wine. It is a populous town; and the houses are well built with piazzas, and painted on the outside. The public buildings are very handsome, and there are several spacious squares. It is much frequented, on account of the mineral waters near it. Lon. 11. 50. E. Lat. 46. 35. N.

BRIXHAM, a village on the coast of Devonsh. SW. of Berry-Point.

BRIXIA, in ancient geography, a town of the Cenomani in the Regio Transpadana; now called BRESCIA.

BRIXTON, two small towns; 1. in Devonsh. SE. of Plymstock: 2. in W. Medina, Isle of Wight.

BRIXTON-CAUSEY, a village in Surry.

BRIXWORTH, 7 miles from Northampton.

(1.) BRIZA, in botany, QUAKING GRASS: A genus of the digynia order, and triandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 4th order, Gramina. The calyx is two-valved, and multiflorous; the spicula bifarious; with the small valves heart-shaped and blunt, and the inner one small in proportion to the rest. There are 5 species of briza; two of which are natives of Britain, viz.

1. BRIZA MEDIA, the middle quaking grass; and 2. BRIZA MINOR, the small quaking grass. Both grow in pasture grounds.

(II.) BRIZA, in the materia medica, a name used for the grain of the ZEA MONOCOCCUS, or St Peter's corn.

(1.) BRIZE, a town of Ireland, in Mayo.

(2.) BRIZE, in husbandry, ground that has lain long untilled.

(3.) * BRIZE. *n. s.* The gadfly.—

A *brize*, a scorned little creature,
Thro' his fair hide his angry sting did threaten.
Spenser.

BRIZEN, a town of Brandenburg.

BRIZE-VENTS, shelters used by gardeners who have not walls on the N. side, to keep cold winds from damaging their beds of melons. They are inclosures about 6 or 7 feet high, and an inch or more thick; made of straw, supported by stakes fixed into the ground, and props across on both inside and outside; and fastened together with willow twigs, or iron wire.

BRIZLES, a hill in Northumberland, 2 miles from Alnwick. The duke of Northumberland has erected a tower on the top of it, within sight of his castle. It is 90 feet high, and has a winding stair-case. It was finished in 1783.

BRIZO, in the mythology, the goddess of sleep.

(1.) * BROACH. *n. s.* [*broche*, Fr.] 1. A spit.—He was taken into service to a base office in his kitchen; so that he turned a *broach*, that had worn a crown. *Bacon's Henry* VII.—

Whose offered entrails shall his crime reproach,
And drip their fatness from the hazle *broach*.
Dryden.

2. A musical instrument, the sounds of which are made by turning round a handle. *Dict.* 3. [With hunters.] A start of the head of a young stag, growing sharp like the end of a spit. *Dict.*

(2.) BROACH, BROCHA, BROCHE, or BROTCHE, in Scotland, is the name of an utensil, or rather ornament, which the Highlanders use, like the *fibula* of the Romans, to fasten their vests. They are usually made of silver; of a round figure; with a tongue crossing its diameter, to fasten the folds of the garment; sometimes with two tongues, one on each side of a cross bar in the middle. There are preserved, in several families, ancient brotches of very elegant workmanship, and richly ornamented. Some of them are inscribed with names, to which particular virtues used to be attributed; others are furnished with receptacles for relics, supposed to preserve from harm. So that these brotches seem to have been wore not only for use and ornament, but as amulets. One or two of this sort are figured and described by Mr Pennant, in his *Tour in Scotl.* i. 90. iii. 14. edit. 3d.

(3.) BROACH, with hunters, the start of a young stag's horn.

(1.) * *To* BROACH. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To spit; to pierce as with a spit.—

Were now the general of our gracious empress,
As in good time he may, from Ireland coming,
Bringing rebellion *broached* on his sword. *Shak.*

—He felled men as one would mow hay, and sometimes *broached* a great number of them upon his pike, as one would carry little birds spitted upon a stick. *Hakewill.* 3. To pierce a vessel in order to draw the liquor; to tap. 3. To open any store.—I will notably provide, that you shall want neither weapons, victuals, nor aid; I will open the old armouries, I will *broach* my store, and bring forth my stores. *Knolles.* 4. To let out any thing.—

And now the field of death, the lists,
Were enter'd by antagonists,
And blood was ready to be *broach'd*,
When Hudibras in haste approach'd. *Hudibras.*

5. To give out, or utter any thing.—This errour, that Pison was Ganges, was first *broached* by Josephus. *Raleigh.*—Those who were the chief instruments of raising the noise, made use of those very opinions themselves had *broached*, for arguments to prove, that the change of ministers was dangerous. *Swift's Examiner.*

(2.) *To* BROACH TO, in sea language, is used for inclining suddenly to windward of the ship's course, when she sails with a large wind; or for deviating from the line of her course, when she sails directly before the wind, so as to bring her side to windward, and expose her to the danger of oversetting.

* BROACHER. *n. s.* [from *broach*.] 1. A spit.

The youth approach'd the fire, and, as it burn'd,
On five sharp *broachers* rank'd, the roast they turn'd;
These morsels stay'd their stomachs. *Dryden.*

2. An opener, or utterer of any thing; the first author.—There is much pride ann vanity in the affectation of being the first *broacher* of an heretical opinion. *L'Estrange.*—Numerous parties denominate themselves, not from the grand Author

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and Finisher of our faith, but from the first *broacher* of their idolized opinions. *Decay of Piety.*—This opinion is commonly, but falsely, ascribed to Aristotle, not as its first *broacher*, but as its ablest patron. *Cheyne.*

(1.) * BROAD. *adj.* [*brad*, Sax.] 1. Wide; extended in breadth; distinguished from length; not narrow.—

The weeds that his *broad* spreading leaves did shelter,
Are pull'd up root and all. *Shakespeare.*

—The top may be justly said to grow *broader*, as the bottom narrower. *Temple.*—

Of all your knowledge this vain fruit you have,
To walk with eyes *broad* open to your grave.
Dryden.

So lofty was the pile, a Parthian bow,
With vigour drawn, must send the shaft below,
The bottom was full twenty fathom *broad.*
Dryden.

He launch'd the fiery bolt from pole to pole,
Broad burst the lightnings, deep the thunders roll. *Pope.*

2. Large.—To keep him at a distance from falsehood and cunning, which has always a *broad* mixture of falsehood; this is the fittest preparation of a child for wisdom. *Locke.* 3. Clear; open; not sheltered, not affording concealment.—

In mean time he, with cunning to conceal
All thought of this from others, himself bore
In *broad* house, with the wooers us before.
Chapman.

—It no longer seeks the shelter of night and darkness, but appears in the *broadest* light. *Decay of Piety.*—If children were left alone in the dark, they would be no more afraid than in *broad* sunshine. *Locke.* 4. Gross; coarse.—The reeve and the miller are distinguished from each other, as much as the lady prioress and the *broad* speaking gap-toothed wife of Bath. *Dryden.*—

Love made him doubt his *broad* barbarian sound;
By love, his want of words and wit he found.
Dryden.

If open vice be what you drive at,
A name so *broad* will ne'er connive at. *Dryden.*

The *broadest* mirth unfeeling folly wears,
Less pleasing far than virtue's very tears. *Pope.*

Room for my lord! three jockey's in his train;
Six huntsmen with a shout precede his chair;
He grins, and looks *broad* nonsense with a stare.
Pope.

5. Obscene; fulsome; tending to obscenity.—As chaste and modest as he is esteemed, it cannot be denied, but in some places he is *broad* and fulsome. *Dryden.*—

Tho' now arraign'd, he read with some delight;
Because he seems to chew the cud again,
When his *broad* comment makes the text too plain.
Dryden.

6. Bold; not delicate; not reserved.—Who can speak *broader* than he that has no house to put his head in? Such may rail against great buildings. *Shakespeare.*—

From *broad* words, and 'cause he fail'd
His presence at the tyrant's feast, I hear,
Macduff lives in disgrace. *Shakespeare.*

(2.) BROAD, in geography, a river of the United States, which rises in the White Oak mountains, in N. Carolina; thence pursuing a S. by E. course, passes into S. Carolina, and uniting with Saluda river, forms the Congaree. This river may be rendered navigable about 30 miles within the state of N. Carolina.

(3.) * BROAD AS LONG. Equal upon the whole. —The mobile are still for levelling; that is to say, for advancing themselves: for it is as *broad as long*, whether they rise to others, or bring others down to them. *L'Estrange.*

BROAD-ALBIN. See BRAIDALBIN.

BROADBULL, a village in Kent, between Hythe and Romney.

BROAD-CAMPDEN, in Gloucestershire.

BROAD-CAST, as opposed to the drill husbandry, denotes the method of cultivating corn, turnips, pulse, clover, the foreign grasses, and most other field plants, that are not transplanted by sowing them with the hand; in which method they are scattered over the ground at large, and thence said to be sown in broad-cast. This is called the *old husbandry*, to distinguish it from the drill, horse-hoeing, or new husbandry. See HUSBANDRY.

BROAD-CHALK, a village in Wiltshire, near Salisbury.

* BROAD-CLOTH. † *n. s.* [from *broad* and *cloth.*] A fine kind of cloth.—

Thus, a wise taylor is not pinching;
But turns at ev'ry seam an inch in:
Or else, be sure, your *broad-cloth* breeches
Will ne'er be smooth, nor hold their stitches.
Swift.

* *To* BRODEN. *v. n.* [from *broad.*] To grow broad. I know not whether this word occurs, but in the following passage.—

Low walks the sun, and *broadens* by degrees,
Just o'er the verge of day. *Thomson.*

* BROAD-EYED. *adj.* [from *broad* and *eye.*] Having a wide survey.—

In despite of *broad-ey'd* watchful day,
I would into thy bosom pour my thoughts:
But, ah! I will not. *Shakespeare.*

BROAD-

† *We have often more than once remarked the improper use of the hyphen, in constituting compounds, of distinct* substantives *and* adjectives; *as well as the unnecessary multiplication of compound words, in general.* BROAD *and* COTH *are certainly two as distinct words as any two in the English language: and the former when applied to the latter, is used in its natural and original sense, as stated above in Dr Johnson's explanation of it,—"Wide—not narrow."* Broad roads, narrow paths, *&c. might with equal propriety be made compounds, and joined together by hyphens. But even granting* broad cloth *to be* one word *and a compound, Dr* JOHNSON *is wrong in stating it as a* substantive noun. *In the quotation from* SWIFT, *it is plainly an* adjective, *agreeing with* breeches; *and if it is* in such cases only, *that the two words can be properly considered as* one. *Dr Johnson has great merit in distinguishing between* active *and* neuter verbs; *but he seems not to have paid equal attention to the difference between* simple *and* compound nouns, *—or even, at all times, to the distinction between* substantives *and* adjectives.

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BROADFIELD, a village in Hertfordshire.

BROADFORD, a town of Ireland, in Clare.

BROADHEMBURY, a village in Devonshire, SE. of Ashburton. It has a fair November 30.

BROAD-HILL, in Suffex, near Cuckfield.

BROAD-HOLME, in Yorksh. N. of Hatfield.

BROADHURST, in Suffex, NW. of Ashdown.

BROAD-JENESSE, a large and broad river of the United States, which rises in N. Carolina, and running into Georgia is so compressed in its passage through the Cumberland Mountains, as to produce a most rapid whirl. Below this it spreads to its former breadth, and, except a small interruption from some muscle shoals, flows in a beautiful and placid stream, under the name of the CHEROKEE, till it mingles with the Ohio.

BROAD-LANDS, near Rumsey, in Hampshire.

BROAD-LAW, a mountain of Scotland, in Tweed-dale, about 2800 feet above the level of the sea.

* BROAD-LEAVED. *adj.* [from *broad* and *leaf*.] Having broad leaves.—Narrow and *broad-leaved* cyprus grass. *Woodward on Fossils.*

* BROADLY. *adv.* [from *broad*.] In a broad manner.

BROAD MAIN, a village in Dorsetshire, 3 m. N. of Owen-Main.

BROAD-MEADOW, in Staffordshire, between Longnor and Hartington.

* BROADNESS. *n. s.* [from *broad*.] 1. Breadth; extend from side to side. 2. Coarseness; fulsomeness.—I have used the cleanest metaphor I could find, to palliate the *broadness* of the meaning. *Dryd.*

BROAD PIECE, a denomination given to certain gold pieces broader than a guinea; particularly Carolouses and Jacobuses.

BROAD RIVER, more properly an arm of the sea, which, together with Whale-branch, and Coosaw river, embraces the N. and NW. sides of Beaufort island. This river communicates with the ocean between Hilton-head, and St Philip's point; and forms one of the best harbours in the state of S. Carolina.

BROADSEA, a fishing village on the coast of Aberdeenshire, containing about 200 inhabitants.

* BROADSHOULDERED. *adj.* [from *broad* and *shoulder*.] Having a large space between the shoulders.—

Big-bon'd, and large of limbs, with sinews strong,
Broadshouldered, and his arms were round and long. *Dryden.*

—I am a tall, *broadshoulder'd*, impudent, black fellow; and, as I thought, every way qualified for a rich widow. *Spectator.*

(1.) * BROADSIDE. † *n. s.* [from *broad* and *side*.] 1. The side of a ship, distinct from the head or stern.—

From vaster hopes than this he seem'd to fall,
That durst attempt the British admiral:
From her *broadsides* a ruder frame is thrown,
Than from the fiery chariot of the sun. *Waller.*

2. The volley of shot fired at once from the side of a ship. 3. [In printing.] A sheet of paper containing one large page.

(2.) *A* BROADSIDE, (§ 1. *def.* 2.) ought never to be given at a distance from the enemy above musket-shot, at point blank.

BROADSTAIRS, a village in Kent, between N. Foreland and Ramsgate.

BROAD STONE, in building, a species of free-stone, thus denominated because it is raised broad and thin out of the quarries; or not exceeding 2 or 3 inches in thickness; chiefly used for paving.

* BROADSWORD. ‡ *n. s.* [from *broad* and *sword*.] A cutting sword, with a broad blade.—He, in fighting a duel, was run through the thigh with a *broadsword*. *Wiseman.*

BROADSWORTH, a village in Yorkshire, N. W. of Doncaster.

BROADWAS, on the N. bank of the Tame, W. of Worcester.

BROADWATER; 1. in Hertfordsh. between Welwyn and Stevenage: 2. in Suffex, W. of New Shoreham.

(1.) BROADWAY, in Wexford, Ireland.

(2—7.) BROADWAY, the name of 6 English villages: viz. 1. in Dorsetshire, near Weymouth: 2. in Gloucestersh. between Moreton and Evesham: 3. in Kent, N. of Hythe: 4. in Shropshire, between Church-stock and Baybury: 5. in Somersetsh. in the parish of Buckland Mary; and 6. in Worcestershire, W. of Campden.

BROADWELDON, in Somersetshire.

BROADWELL, 3 villages; viz. 1. and 2. in Gloucestershire about 2 m. from Stow: and 3. in Oxfordshire, 4 miles W. of Bampton.

BROAD-WINDSOR, in Dorsetshire, W. of Beminster.

* BROADWISE. *adv.* [from *broad* and *wise*.] According to the direction of the breadth.—If one should, with his hand, thrust a piece of iron *broadwise* against the flat ceiling of his chamber, the iron would not fall as long as the force of the hand preserves to press against it. *Boyle.*

BROADWOOD-KELLY, a village in Devonshire, NE. of Hatherly.

BROADWOOD-WIGIER, W. Lyfton, Devonsh.

BROAD-WORM, *lumbricus latus*, a name given to the TÆNIA, or tape worm.

BROBERRY, a village in Staffordshire, SW. of Stanton.

(1.) * BROCADE. *n. s.* [*brocado*, Span.] A silken stuff, variegated with colours of gold or silver.—I have the conveniency of buying and importing rich *brocades*. *Spectator.*—

Or stain her honour, or her new *brocade*,
Forget her pray'rs, or miss a masquerade. *Pope.*

(2.) BROCADE, or BROCADO, a stuff of gold, silver, or silk, raised and enriched with the flowers, foliages, and other ornaments, according to the fancy of the merchants or manufacturers. Formerly the word signified only a stuff, wove all of gold, both in the warp and in the woof, or all of

† *This word in the* 2d *sense above stated* ("a volley of shot,") *is a very proper compound, as the adjective* broad *in a considerable degree loses its original meaning, while it saves circumlocution; but in the* 1st *sense,* ("THE SIDE OF A SHIP,") *as well as in the illustration from* WALLER, broad *and* sides *are two distinct words, and ought not to be joined together.*

‡ BROADSWORD *is another erroneous compound, similar to* BROAD-CLOTH. *See the Note on that article.*

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of silver, or of both mixed together; thence it passed to those of stuffs in which there was silk mixed, to raise and terminate the gold or silver flowers; but at present all stuffs, even those of silk alone, whether they be grograms of Tours or of Naples, sattins, and even taffeties or lustrings, if they be but adorned and worked with some flowers or other figures, are called *brocades*.

(3.) BROCADES, METHODS OF MANUFACTURING. In manufacturing brocades, the flatted gilt wire is spun on threads of yellow silk approaching as near as may be to the colour of gold itself. The wire, winding off from a bobbin, twists about the thread as it spins round; and, by means of curious machinery, too complex to be described here, a number of threads are thus twisted at once by turning of one wheel. The principal art consists in so regulating the motion, that the several circumvolutions of the flatted wire on each side may just touch one another, and form, as it were, one continued covering. It is said, that at Milan there is made a sort of flatted wire gilt only on one side, which is wound upon the thread so that only the gilt side appears; and that the preparation of this wire is kept a secret, and has been attempted in other places with little success. There is also a gilt copper wire, made in the same manner as the gilt silver. Savary observes, that this kind of wire, called *false gold*, is prepared chiefly at Nuremberg; and that the ci-devant ordinances of France required it to be spun, for distinction from the gilt silver, on flaxen or hempen threads. One of our writers takes notice, that the Chinese, instead of flatted gilt wire, use slips of gilt paper, which they both interweave in their stuffs and twist upon silk threads: this practice he inconsiderately proposes as a hint to the British weaver. But, whatever be the beauty of stuffs of this kind of manufacture, it is obvious that they must want durability. The Chinese themselves, according to Du Halde's account, sensible of this imperfection, scarcely use them any otherwise than in tapestries, and such other ornaments as are not intended to be much worn, or exposed to moisture. The Venetians have carried on a large trade to the Levant, in a kind of brocade called *domasquete*, which, though it has only about half the quantity of gold or silver as that made among us, looks far more beautiful. The flatted wire is neither wound close together on the silk threads, nor the threads stuck close in the weaving; yet by passing the stuff betwixt rolls, the disposition and management of which is kept a secret, the tissue or flower is made to appear one entire brilliant plate of gold or silver. The French ministry, judging this manufacture worthy of public attention, engaged the ingenious Mr Vaucanson, to contrive the machinery; a gentleman well known for his curious pieces of mechanism. See § 4.

(4.) BROCADES, M. VAUCANSON'S INVENTIONS FOR MAKING. This gentleman, in the memoirs of the academy for 1757, gives an account of his success, and of the establishment of this manufacture at Lyons. The lower roll is made of wood, 32 inches in length and 14 in diameter; the upper one of copper, 36 inches long and 8 in diameter: this last is hollow, and open at one end, for introducing iron heaters. For making the roll, cylindrical, he has a particular kind of lathes wherein the cutting tool, which the most dexterous hand could not guide in a straight line through such a length as 36 inches, is made to slide, by means of a screw, on two large steel rulers, perfectly straight, and capable of being moved at pleasure, nearer, and always exactly parrallel, to the axis of the roll. He first disposed the rolls nearly as in the common flatting mill. In this disposition, ten men were scarcely sufficient for turning them with force enough to extend the gilding duly; and the collars, in which the axes of the rolls turned at each end, wore or gulled so fast, that the pressure continually diminished, insomuch that a piece of stuff of ten ells had the gilding sensibly less extended on the last part than on the first. He endeavoured to obviate this inconvenience by screwing the rolls closer and closer in proportion as the stuff passed through, or as the wearing of the collars occasioned more play between them; but this method produced an imperfection in the stuff, every turn of the screw making a sensible bar across it. To lessen the attrition, each end of the axis, instead of a collar, was made to turn between three iron cylinders called *friction wheels*: but even this did not answer fully, for now another source of unequal pressure was discovered. The wooden roll, being compressible, had its diameter sensibly diminished: it likewise lost its roundness, so that the pressure varied in different points of its revolution. On trying different kinds both of European and Indian woods, all the hard ones split, the soft ones warped without splitting, and of more than 20 rolls, there was not one which continued round for 24 hours, even without being worked in the machine. These failures put him upon contriving another method of pressing the rolls together, so that the force should always accommodate itself to whatever inequalities might happen. The axis of the copper roll being made to turn between friction-wheels as before, that of the wooden one is pressed upwards by a lever at each end, furnished with a half collar for receiving the end of the axis. Each lever has the end of its short arm supported on the frame of the machine, and the long arm is drawn upwards by an iron rod communicating with the end of the short arm of another lever placed horizontally: to the long arm of this lever is hung a weight, and the levers are so proportioned, that a weight of 30 lb. presses the rolls together with a force equivalent to 17,536 lb. which was found to be the proper force for the sufficient extension of the gilding. By this contrivance 4 men can turn the rolls with more ease than ten can turn those which are kept together by screws; and the same weight acting uniformly in every part, the pressure continues always equal, though the wooden roll should even become oval, and though the stuff be of unequal thickness. A piece of cloth, of about two ells, is sewed to the beginning and end of the stuff, to keep it out to its width when it enters and parts from the rolls, which could not be done by the hands for fear of burning or bruising them; as it would take too much time to sew these cloths to every small piece of an ell or two, a number of

these

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theſe are ſewed together. The ſtuff is rolled upon a cylinder, which is placed behind the machine, and its axis preſſed down by ſprings to keep the ſtuff tight as it comes off. Four iron bars, made red hot, are introduced into the copper roll, which in half an hour acquires the proper degree of heat, or nearly ſuch a one as is uſed for the ironing of linen: the wooden roll is then laid in its place, and the machine ſet to work. If more than 30 ells are to be paſſed at once, the wooden roll muſt be changed for another, for it will not bear a long continuance of the heat without danger of ſplitting: and therefore the manufacturer ſhould be provided with ſeveral of theſe rolls, that when one is removed, another may be ready to ſupply its room: as ſoon as taken off from the machine, it ſhould be wrapt in a cloth and laid in a moiſt place. The principal inconvenience attending the uſe of this machine, is, that the heat neceſſary for extending the gilding, though it improves the brightneſs of white and yellow ſilks, is injurious to ſome colours, as crimſon and green. A double preſſure will not ſupply the place of heat; and the only method of preventing this injury, of rendering it as light as poſſible, appeared to be, to paſs the ſtuff through with great celerity.

(5.) BROCADES, SULLIED, METHOD OF CLEANING. Although brocades, by the caprice of faſhion, are at preſent not worn, yet as they may ſoon become faſhionable again, it is proper to ſhow how to clean them. For this purpoſe neither alkalies nor ſoap muſt be uſed; becauſe the former, while they clean the gold, corrode the ſilk, and change or diſcharge its colour; and the latter alſo alters the ſhade, and even the ſpecies, of certain colours. But ſpirit of wine may be uſed without any danger of its injuring either the colour or quality of the ſubject; and in many caſes proves as effectual for reſtoring the luſtre of the gold as the moſt corroſive detergents. A rich brocade flowered with a variety of colours, after being diſagreeably tarniſhed, had the luſtre of the gold perfectly reſtored by waſhing it with a ſoft bruſh dipt in warm ſpirit of wine, and ſome of the colours of the ſilk which were likewiſe ſoiled became at the ſame time remarkably bright and lively. Spirit of wine ſeems to be the only material adapted to this intention, and probably the boaſted ſecret of certain artiſts is no other than this ſpirit diſguiſed. Dr Lewis ſays he does not know of any other that is of ſufficient activity to diſcharge the foul matter, without being hurtful to the ſilk. As to powders, however fine, and however cautiouſly uſed, they ſcratch and wear the gold, which here is only ſuperficial, and of extreme tenuity.

* BROCADED. *adj.* [from *brocade*.] 1. Dreſt in brocade. 2. Woven in the manner of a brocade.—

Should you the rich *brocaded* ſuit unfold,
Where riſing flow'rs grow ſtiff with froſted gold. *Gay.*

BROCADEL. See BROCATEL.

BROCADE-SHELL, a ſpecies of LIMAX.

* BROCAGE. *n. ſ.* [from *broke*.] 1. The gain gotten by promoting bargains.—

Yet ſure his honeſty
Got him ſmall gains, but ſhameleſs flattery,
And filthy *brocage*, and unſeemly ſhifts,
And borrow baſe, and ſome good ladies gifts. *Spenſer.*

2. The hire given for any unlawful office.—As for the politick and wholeſome laws, they were interpreted to be but *brocage* of an uſurer, thereby to woo and win the hearts of the people. *Bacon.* 3. The trade of dealing in old things; the trade of a broker.—

Poor poet ape, that would be thought our chief,
Whoſe works are e'en the frippery of wit,
From *brocage* is become ſo bold a thief,
As we, the robb'd, leave rage and pity it. *Ben Jonſ.*

4. The tranſaction of buſineſs for other men.—So much as the quantity of money is leſſened, ſo much muſt the ſhare of every one that has a right to this money be the leſs, whether he be landholder, for his goods, or labourer, for his hire, or merchant, for his *brocage*. *Locke.*

BROCARDICA, } denote maxims or princi-
BROCARDICS, } ples in law; ſuch as thoſe publiſhed by Azo, under the title of *Brocardica Juris*. Voſſius derives the word from the Greek προοιμεγμα, q. d. *firſt elements*. Others, with more probability, from *Burchard*, or *Brochard*, biſhop of Worms, who made a collection of canons, called from hence *Brocardica*; and as this work abounded much in ſentences and proverbs, the appellation was extended to ſimilar works.

BROCATEL, or BROCADEL, a kind of coarſe brocade; chiefly uſed for tapeſtry.

BROCATELLO, a name given by lapidaries to the white and gold veined red marble.

(1.) * BROCCOLI. *n. ſ.* [Italian.] A ſpecies of cabbage.—

Contented with little, I can piddle here,
On *broccoli* and mutton round the year;
But ancient friends, though poor or out of play,
That touch my bell, I cannot turn away. *Pope.*

(2.) BROCCOLI. See BRASSICA, § II.

BROCHE. See BROACH.

* *To* BROCHE. See *To* BROACH.—So Geoffry of Bouillon, at one draught of his bow, ſhooting againſt David's tower in Jeruſalem, *broched* three feetleſs birds. *Camden.*

BROCHOS, in ſurgery, a name uſed by ſome writers for bandages in general: in ſome of the old writers, the ſame word is alſo uſed for a perſon who has a very prominent upper lip, or teeth, and a thick mouth.

* BROCK. *n. ſ.* [*brock*, Saxon.] A badger.

BROCKDISH, a village in Norfolk, W. of Needham.

* BROCKET. *n. ſ.* A red deer, two years old.

BROCKFORD, a village in Suffolk.

BROCKHAM, in Surry, near Beachworth.

BROCKHAMPTON, 3 villages; viz. 1. in Dorſetſh. 2 miles NE. of Buckland Abbas: 2. in Glouceſterſhire; and 3. in Herefordſhire.

BROCKHOLE, in Northamptonſhire.

BROCKHOLE, in Nottinghamſhire.

BROCKHURST, in Warwickſhire, between Coventry and Lutterworth.

BROCKINGTON, in Dorſetſhire.

BROCKLESBY, near Caſtor, Lincolnſhire.

BROCKLETON, 8. of Fenbury, Worceſterſh.

BROCKLEY,

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BROCKLEY, two villages: 1. in Somerſetſh. N. of Wrinton: and 2. in Suffolk, near Debden.

BROCKLEY-HILL, two villages; 1. in Dorſetſhire, near Abbotſbury: 2. in Hertfordſhire.

BROCKMONTON, in Herefordſhire, E. of Leominſter.

BROCKMORE HEATH, in Staffordſhire.

BROCKRUP, or BROCKTHORP, in Glouceſterſh. 3 m. from Painſwick, and 4 from Glouceſter.

BROCKSBURN, or SPOTT, a rivulet of Scotland, in E. Lothian, which falls into the German Ocean at Broxmouth, near Dunbar.

BROCKTON, the name of 5 Engliſh villages; viz. 1. near Clune Foreſt; 2. near Eaſthop; 3. near Lower-Down; and 4. between Walton and Lee; all in Shropſhire: and, 5. in Staffordſhire.

BROCKWORTH, in Glouceſterſhire, 4 miles from Glouceſter, and 5 from Painſwick.

BROD, or BRODT, a town of Hungary, in the county of Poſſega in Sclavonia, ſeated on the Save; formerly more conſiderable than at preſent. It is memorable for a victory obtained over the Turks in 1668. Lon. 18. 36. E. Lat. 45. 20. N.

BRODÆUS, or BRODEAU, John, a great critic, on whom Lipſius, Scaliger, Grotius, and all the learned, have beſtowed great encomiums, was deſcended from a noble family in France, and born at Tours in 1500. He was liberally educated, and placed under Alciat to ſtudy the civil law; but he gave himſelf up wholly to languages and the belles lettres. He travelled into Italy, where he became acquainted with Sadolet, Bembus, &c. and applied himſelf to the ſtudy of mathematics, philoſophy, and the ſacred languages, in which he made no ſmall proficiency. Then, returning to his own country, he led a retired, but not an idle, life, as his many learned lucubrations abundantly teſtify. He was a man free from all ambition, and oſtentation, and ſuffered his works to be publiſhed rather under the authority of others than under his own. His chief works are, 1. A commentary on the *Anthologia*. 2. Ten books of miſcellanies. 3. Notes on Oppian, Euripides, &c. He died in 1563, aged 63.

BRODAGH, a town of Ireland, in Clare.

BRODERA, or BRODRA, a town of Aſia, in the province of Guzerat, on the great road between Surat and Ougenin; belonging to the Great Mogul. It ſtands in a large ſandy plain, on the river Waſſet; and is fortified, with pretty good walls and towers. It is inhabited by Banians and callico-weavers. The country produces cotton, wheat, rice, gum-lac and indigo. Lon. 73. 11. E. Lat. 22. 16. N.

BRODIATORES, in the middle age, a kind of *librarii*, or copyiſts, who did not write the words and letters plain, but variouſly flouriſhed and decorated, after the manner of embroidery. *Du-Cange Gloſſ. Lat.* tom. i.

BRODIUM, a term uſed by ſome writers in pharmacy, for a liquor in which any ſolid ſubſtance has been boiled, is to be preſerved, or with which a medicine too ſtrong for uſe alone is to be diluted.

BRODNAM, a village in Dorſetſhire.

BROD-NEMEKI, or TEUTSCH-BROD, a town of Bohemia on the river Sazawa, in the circle of Czaslaw.

BRODOCK, a village in the county of Cornwall, near Boconnoc.

BRODRA. See BRODERA.

BRODSTEER, a good harbour of Kent, in the iſle of Thanet.

BRODSWORTH, a village in Yorkſhire, 3 m. from Doncaſter.

BRODZIEC, a town of Poland, in Lithuania.

(1.) BROEK, a town of Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia and duchy of Berg.

(2.) BROEK, a very neat and beautiful village of Holland, 6 miles from Amſterdam. The manners of its inhabitants are ſingular. They marry invariably among themſelves. In every houſe they have one door appropriated to marriage and death. The new married couples enter in at it, and never paſs through it again but to their graves. In the interval it is kept conſtantly ſhut. The women ſcarcely ever ſtir from Broek, and "Amſterdam, (ſays Mr Walker,) is as little known to them as London or Conſtantinople." Their gardens are adorned with China vaſes, grottoes of ſhell work, &c. and their ſtreets are paved in Moſaic work, with variegated bricks. Behind their houſes and gardens are extenſive meadows, with vaſt herds of cattle. Their out-houſes are alſo behind, ſo that carts, waggons and cattle do not enter their neat ſtreets.

BROEKHUIZEN. See BROUKHUSIUS.

BROGLING for eels; the ſame with SNIGGLING.

(1.) BROGLIO, a county of Italy in Piedmont, ſituated near the frontiers of France.

(2.) BROGLIO, the capital of the county, (N° 1.) ſituated near the department of Lower Alps. Lon. 7. 42. E. Lat. 44. 12. N.

* BROGUE. *n. ſ.* [*brog*, Iriſh.] 1. A kind of a ſhoe.—

I thought he ſlept; and put
My clouted *brogues* from off my feet, whoſe rudeneſs
Anſwer'd my ſteps too loud. *Shakeſpeare.*

—Sometimes it is given out, that we muſt either take theſe halfpence, or eat our *brogues*. *Swift.* 2. A cant word for a corrupt dialect, or manner of pronunciation.—

His *brogue* will detect mine. *Farquhar.*

BROICHIN, CASTLE, an ancient fort of Inverneſs-ſhire, ſituated near the N. end of the iſle of Raaſay, on the E. coaſt, and well known as a land mark by mariners. "The rock on which it ſtands, nearly round and covering an area of 70 feet ſquare, is about 40 feet high; and is itſelf, caſtle-like, placed on another rock, 60 feet at leaſt above the level of the ſea. It is compoſed of different kinds of burnt ſtone, lime and ſhells, that have all the appearance of having been jumbled together, ſome time or other, by a volcanic eruption; and is of ſuch firm and ſolid conſiſtence, that the largeſt hammer, wielded by the ſtrongeſt arm, could ſcarcely make any impreſſion upon it." *Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc. Vol.* XVI. *p.* 143.

* *To* BROIDER. *v. a.* [*broidir*, Fr.] To adorn with figures of needle-work.—A robe, and a *broider'd* coat, and a girdle. *Exodus.*—

Infant Albion lay
In mantles *broide*'*d* o'er with gorgeous pride.
Tickell.

* BROIDERY.

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* BROIDERY. *n. f.* [from *broider*.] Embroidery; flower work; additional ornaments wrought upon cloth.—

The golden *broidery* tender Milkah wove,
The breaſt to Kenna ſacred, and to love,
Lie rent and mangled. *Tickell.*

* BROIL. *n. f.* [*brouillar*, Fr.] A tumult; a quarrel.—

Say to the king thy knowledge of the *broil*,
As thou didſt leave it. *Shakſpeare.*

—He has ſent the ſword both of civil *broils*, and publick war, amongſt us. *Wake.*—

Rude were their revels, and obſcene their joys,
The *broils* of drunkards, and the luſt of boys.
Granville.

(1.) * *To* BROIL. *v. a.* [*bruler*, Fr.] To dreſs or cook by laying on the coals, or before the fire.—

Some ſtrip the ſkin, ſome portion out the ſpoil,
Some on the fire the reeking entrails *broil*. *Dryd.*

(2.) * *To* BROIL. *v. n.* To be in the heat.—

Where have you been *broiling*.
——Among the croud i' th' abbey, where a finger
Could not be wedg'd in more. *Shak.*

—Long ere now all the planets and comets had been *broiling* in the ſun, had the world laſted from all eternity. *Cheyne.*

BROK, *n. ſ. obſ.* an old ſword.

BROKAGE. See BROCAGE.

(1.) BROKE, a river in Lancaſhire.

(2.) BROKE, a village in Norfolkſhire, 5 miles from Norwich.

(3.) BROKE, Sir Robert, lord chief juſtice of the common pleas, was the ſon of Thomas Broke, Eſq; of Claverly in Shropſhire, and educated at Oxford; whence he removed to the middle temple, and ſoon became a very eminent lawyer. In 1552, he was made ſerjeant at law; and in 1553, the firſt of queen Mary, lord chief juſtice of the common pleas; about which time he was knighted. He was alſo appointed recorder of London and ſpeaker of the houſe of commons. He died at Claverly in 1558, with the character of an upright judge. His works are, 1. An abridgement containing an abſtract of the year-books till the time of queen Mary. 2. Certain caſes adjudged in the reign of Henry VIII. Edward VI. and Q. Mary. 3. Reading on the ſtatute of limitations, 32 Henry VIII. c. 2.

(4.) BROKE. *v. pret.* of *To* BREAK.

* *To* BROKE. *v. n.* [of uncertain etymology, *Skinner* ſeems inclined to derive it from *To break*, becauſe *broken* men turn factors or *brokers*. *Caſaubon*, from *βρόκος*. *Skinner* thinks, again, that it may be contracted from *procurer*. Mr *Lye* more probably deduces it from *bruccan*, Sax. to be buſy.] To tranſact buſineſs for others, or by others. It is uſed generally in reproach.—

He does, indeed
And *brokes* with all that can, in ſuch a ſuit,
Corrupt the tender honour of a maid. *Shak.*

—The gains of bargains are of a more doubtful nature, when men ſhould wait upon others neceſſity; *broke* by ſervants and inſtruments to draw them on. *Bacon.*

BROKE-HAMPTON, a town in Warwickſhire, near Kyneton.

* BROKEN. [*particip. paſſ.* of *break*.] Preſerve men's wits from being *broken* with the very bent of ſo long attention. *Hooker.*

BROKEN-BACKED, in ſea language, denotes the ſtate of a ſhip which is ſo impaired, and looſened in her frame, as to droop at each end; a diſorder to which the French ſhips, are moſt expoſed on account of their length, &c.

BROKEN-BAY, a bay of New S. Wales, on the E. coaſt of New Holland.

BROKENBOROUGH, or BROKEN-BRIDGE, a town in Wiltſhire, a mile from Malmſbury, formerly called Caerberburg. It was a court of ſome of the Saxon kings under the Heptarchy.

* BROKENHEARTED. *adj.* [from *broken* and *heart*.] Having the ſpirits cruſhed by grief or fear.—He hath ſent me to bind up the *brokenhearted*. *Iſaiah.*

BROKENHURST, a village in Hampſhire.

* BROKENLY. *adv.* [from *broken*.] Without any regular ſeries.—Sir Richard Hopkins hath done ſomewhat of this kind, but *brokenly* and glancingly; intending chiefly a diſcourſe of his own voyage. *Hakewill.*

* BROKEN MEAT. Fragments; meat that has been cut.—Get three or four chairwomen to attend you conſtantly in the kitchen, whom you pay at ſmall charges; only with the *broken meat* a few coals, and all the cinders. *Swift.*

BROKEN WIND, among farriers. See FARRIERY.

BROKEN-WINDED. *adj.* having the wind broken.

(1.) * BROKER. *n. ſ.* [from *To broke*.] 1. A factor; one that does buſineſs for another; one that makes bargains for another.—*Brokers*, who, having no ſtock of their own, ſet up and trade with that of other men; buying here, and ſelling there, and commonly abuſing both ſides, to make out a little paultry gain. *Temple.*—

Some South-ſea *broker*, from the city,
Will purchaſe me, the more's the pity;
Lay all my fine plantations waſte,
To fit them to my vulgar taſte. *Swift.*

2. One who deals in old houſehold goods. 3. A pimp; a match-maker.—

A goodly *broker!*
Dare you preſume to harbour wanton lines;
To whiſper and conſpire againſt my youth?
Shakſpeare.

In chuſing for yourſelf, you ſhew'd your judgment;
Which being ſhallow, you ſhall give me leave
To play the *broker* in mine own behalf. *Shakſ.*

(II.) BROKER. The origin of this word is conteſted; ſome derive it from the French *broier*, to grind; others from *brocarder*, to cavil; others from a trader broken, and that from the Saxon *broc*, misfortune, which is often the true reaſon of a man's breaking. In this view, a broker is a broken trader by misfortune; and it is ſaid none but ſuch were formerly admitted to that employment. Brokers, are of 3 kinds; exchange brokers ſtock brokers, and pawn brokers.

1. BROKERS, EXCHANGE, are a ſort of negociators, who contrive, make, and conclude bargains between merchants and tradeſmen, in matters of money or merchandiſe, for which they have

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a fee or premium. These, in old English law-books, are called *broggers*, and in Scotland, *broccarii*, *i. e.* according to Skene, mediators or intercessors in any contract, &c. They make it their business to know the alteration of the course of exchange, to inform merchants how it goes, and to notify to those who have money to receive or pay beyond sea, who are proper persons for negociating the exchange with; and when the matter is accomplished, that is, when the money is paid, they have for brokage 2s. per 100l. sterling. These, by stat. of 8. and 9. Will. III. are to be licensed in London by the lord mayor, who gives them an oath, and takes bond for the faithful execution of their offices. If any person shall act as broker without being thus licensed and admitted, he shall forfeit the sum of 500l.; and persons employing him, 5l.; and brokers are to register contracts, &c. under the like penalty: also brokers shall not deal for themselves, on pain of forfeiting 200l.—They are to carry about with them a silver medal, having the king's arms and the arms of the city, and pay 40s. a-year to the chamber of the city. In France, till the middle of the 17th century, their exchange brokers were called *courtiers de change*; but an arret of council in 1639, the name was changed for that more creditable one of *agent de change, banque, et finance*; and in the beginning of the 18th century, to render the office still more honourable, the title of *king's counsellors* was added. At Grand Cairo, and several places of the Levant, the Arabs, who do the office of exchange brokers, are called *consuls*; the manner of whose negociating with the European merchants has something in it so very particular, that we refer it to a distinct article. See CONSUL. The exchange brokers at Amsterdam, called MAKELDERS, are of two kinds; the one, like the English, called, *sworn brokers*, because of the oath they take before the burgo-masters; but the others negociate without any commission, and are called *walking brokers*. The first are in number 395; whereof 375 are Christians, and 20 Jews: the others are near double that number; so that in Amsterdam there are near 1000 exchange brokers.—The difference between the two consists in this: The books and persons of the former are allowed as evidence in the courts of justice; whereas, in case of dispute, the latter are disowned, and their bargains disannulled. The fee of the sworn exchange brokers of Amsterdam is fixed by two regulations, of 1613 and 1623, with regard to matters of exchange, to 18 sols for 100 livres de gros, or 600 florins; i. e. 3 sols for 100 florins; payable, half by the drawer and half by the person who pays the money. But custom has made considerable alterations herein. The Jews, Armenians, and Banians, are the chief brokers throughout most parts of the Levant and the Indies. In Persia, all affairs are transacted by a sort of brokers whom they call *delal*, i. e. great talkers.—The manner of making their markets is very singular: after the brokers have launched out into long, and usually impertinent, discourses, coming towards a conclusion, they only converse with their fingers. The buyer and seller's broker each take the other by the right hand, which they cover with their coat or handkerchief: the finger stretched out stands for six; bent for five; the tip of the finger for one; the whole hand for 100; and the hand clinched, for 1000. They will express even pounds, shillings, and pence, by their hands. During all this mystic commerce, the two brokers appear as cold and composed as if there were nothing passing between them. The French distinguish two kinds of brokers; one for the service of merchants, the other of manufacturers, artificers, and workmen. The business of the former is to facilitate the sale of goods in the wholesale and mercantile way; that of the other, to procure the goods wanted for manufacturers, artificers, &c. or to sell their goods when made. At Paris there is scarce a company of tradesmen, or even mechanics, but have their brokers, who are usually taken out of their body, and make it their sole business to negociate in the particular kinds of goods to which such company is by statutes restrained. There are brokers for drapery, brokers for grocery, brokers for mercery, &c. There are even brokers for tanners, curriers, cutlers, and the like. Such, at least, was their method of conducting business before the revolution.

2. BROKERS, PAWN, persons who keep shops, and lend money upon pledges to necessitous persons, and most commonly at an exorbitant interest. They are more properly styled *pawn takers*, or *tally-me*; sometimes *fripers*, or *friperers*. These are meant in 1 Jac. I. cap. xxi. sect. 5. where it is declared, that the sale of goods wrongfully taken to any broker, or pawn broker, in London, Westminster, Southwark, or within two miles of London, does not alter the property. And (sect. 7.) if a broker, having received such goods, shall not, upon request of the owner, discover them, how and when he came by them, and to whom they are conveyed, he shall forfeit the double value thereof, to be recovered by action of debt, &c. In the cities of Italy, there are companies established by authority for the letting out money on pawns, called *mounts of piety*; a title little becoming such institutions. In some parts of Italy, they have also mounts of piety of another kind, wherein they only receive ready money, and return it again with interest, at a certain sum *per annum*. At Bologna, they have several such mounts, which are distinguished into *frank* and *perpetual*: the interest of the former is only four *per cent.*; that of the latter, seven.

3. BROKERS, STOCK, are those who are employed to buy and sell shares in the joint stock of a company or corporation, and in the public funds. As the practice of stock-jobbing has been carried to such an excess as became not only ruinous to a great number of private families, but even affected, or at least might soon affect, the public credit of the nation, the legislature thought fit to put a stop to it, or at least to bring it within certain bounds, and under some regulation. The negociations, &c. of these brokers are regulated by stat. 6 Geo. I. cap. 18. and 7 and 10 Geo. II. cap. 8. which among other things, enacted, that contracts in the nature of wagers, &c. incur a penalty of L. 500, and by the sale of stock, of which the seller is not possessed, a forfeit of L. 100, and that brokers keep a book, in which all contracts, with their

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their dates, and the names of the parties concerned, shall be entered, on pain of L. 50.

(III.) BROKERS OF FURNITURE, &c. See APPRAISERS, § 2.

* BROKERAGE. *n. s.* [from *broker*.] The pay or reward of a broker. See BROCAGE.

BROKESBY, a village in Leicestershire, 4 miles W. of Mowbray.

BROKEWER, a town in Gouceſterſhire.

To BROKIN. *v. n. obſ.* To brook. *Chauc.*

* BROKING. *particip. adj.* Practiſed by brokers.—

Redeem from *broking* pawn the blemiſh'd crown,
Wipe off the duſt that hides our ſceptre's guilt.
Shakeſpeare.

BROLAS, a diſtrict in Argyllſhire, about 22 miles long, and from 3 to 6 broad. There are baſaltic pillars in it.

BROLL. *n. ſ. obſ.* a part a piece, *Aſh.*

BROMAS, a name uſed by ſome botaniſts for the wild oats.

BROMBOROUGH, a town in Cheſhire.

(1.) BROME, Alexander, a poet and attorney in the reign of Charles II. was the author of the greateſt part of thoſe ſongs and epigrams which were publiſhed in favour of the royaliſts, and againſt the *rump*, both in Oliver Cromwell's time and during the rebellion. Theſe, together with his Epiſtles and Epigrams tranſlated from different authors, were all printed in one volume 8vo, after the Reſtoration. He alſo publiſhed a pretty good verſion of Horace, by himſelf and others. He left behind him a comedy entitled *The Cunning Lovers*: and the world is indebted to him for two volumes of Richard Brome's plays in 8vo. many of which, but for his care in preſerving and publiſhing them, would in all probability have been entirely loſt. He died in 1666.

(2.) BROME, Richard, a dramatic writer who lived in the reign of Charles I. and was cotemporary with Decker, Ford, Shirly, &c. He was originally a ſervant to the celebrated Ben Jonſon. He wrote himſelf, however, into high reputation, as is teſtified not only by various commendatory verſes written by his cotemporaries and prefixed to many of his plays, but alſo by ſome lines which his quondam maſter addreſſed to him on account of his comedy called *The Northern Laſs*. Brome in imitation of his maſter, applied cloſely to the ſtudy of men and manners. His genius was entirely turned to comedy; and therefore his proper province was obſervation more than reading. His plots are all his own, and are far from being ill conducted; and his characters, which for the moſt part are ſtrongly marked, were the offspring of his own judgement and experience, and his cloſe attention to the foibles of the human heart. In a word, his plays in general are good; met with great applauſe when firſt acted; and were thought by the players worthy to be revived, to their own profit and the author's honour, in that critical age in which he himſelf lived. Nay, we have had a proof, even in our own time, of the merit of one of his comedies, which with a very little alteration has lately been revived with great ſucceſs, viz. *The Jovial Crew*, which for no leſs than 3 ſeaſons running, brought crowded audiences to the theatre-royal in Covent Garden, at all the frequent repetitions of its performance. He left 15 comedies behind him, ten of which were collected together, by his nameſake, (N° 1.) He alſo joined with Thomas Heywood in a play called *The Lancaſhire Witches*.

(3—9.) BROME, the name of 7 Engliſh villages, viz. 1. in Bedfordſh. near Biggleſwade: 2. in Durham, W. of the city: 3. in Norfolk, near Bungay: 4. in Shropſhire, near Clunbury: 5. in ditto, 3 m. W. of Wenlock: 6. in Staffordſhire, near Cleht; and 7. in Suffolk, 2 miles from Dis.

BROME-BURNELL's in Warwickſhire, between Bitford and Saltford.

BROME-GRASS, or BROOM-GRASS. See BROMUS.

BROME-HALL, 3 villages, viz. 1. in Norfolk, between Loddon and Bungay: 2. in Shropſhire, near Oſweſtry: and, 3. in Yorkſhire, near Sheffield.

BROMEHAM, in Suſſex, near Battle-Abbey.

BLOMEHAM, 3 villages; viz. 1. in Dorſetſh. near Morton: 2. in Norfolk, N. of Walſham: and, 3. in Kent, 3 miles SW. of Lydde.

BROME-HOUSE, near Fulham, Middleſex.

(1.) BROMELIA, the PINE-APPLE: A genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the hexandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 10th order, Coronariæ. Linnæus enumerates 7 ſpecies of which the following are the moſt remarkable:

i. BROMELIA ANANAS with leaves very like ſome ſorts of aloes, but not ſo thick and ſucculent, which are ſtrongly armed with black ſpines. From the centre of the plant ariſes the flower ſtalk, which is near 3 feet high; the lower part is garniſhed with entire leaves placed alternately at every joint. The upper part is garniſhed with flowers ſet in a looſe ſpike of thyrſe quite round: theſe are ſucceeded by oval ſeed-veſſels, having a longitudinal partition, in the centre of which are faſtened ſmooth cylindrical ſeeds. There are ſix varieties, viz.

1. BROMELIA ANANAS GLABER, with ſmall leaves:

2. BROMELIA ANANAS LUCIDUS, with very ſmooth, ſhining graſs-green leaves:

3. BROMELIA ANANAS OVATUS, the oval ſhaped pine apple:

4. BROMELIA ANANAS PYRAMIDALIS, the pyramidal, or ſugar-loaf pine.

5. BROMELIA ANANAS SERRATINUS, with a yellowiſh coloured fleſh: and,

6. BROMELIA ANANAS VIRIDIS, the green pine-apple.

ii. BROMELIA LINGULATA, with obtuſe, ſawed, and prickly leaves.

iii. BROMELIA NUDICAULIS, with the lower leaves indented and prickly. Theſe leaves of this ſpecies are ſhorter than thoſe of the ANANAS (N° i.) They are ſharply ſawed on their edges, and of a deep green colour. The flower ſtem ariſes from the centre of the plant, which divides upward into ſeveral branches: the upper part of theſe are garniſhed with ſpikes of flowers, which come out alternately from the ſides of the branches, each having a narrow entire leaf juſt below it, which are longer than the ſpike. The flowers are

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placed very close on the spikes: and when they decay, the empalement turns to an oval pointed seed-vessel, inclosing seeds of the same shape with the other.

(2.) BROMELIÆ, CULTURE OF THE. The BROMELIA ANANAS OVATUS (N° 3.) is the most common in Europe; but the ANANAS PYRAMIDALIS (N° 4.) is much preferable, the fruit being larger and much better flavoured, the juice of this sort is not so astringent as that of the first; so that this fruit may be eaten in greater quantity with less danger. This sort frequently produces suckers immediately under the fruit, whereby it may be increased much faster than the common sort; so that in a few years it may be the best common sort in Britain.—The ANANAS GLABER (N° 1.) is preserved by some curious persons for the sake of variety; but the fruit is not worth any thing. The ANANAS LUCIDUS (N° 2.) was raised from the seeds taken out of a rotten fruit which came from the West Indies to the late Henry Heathcote, Esq; from whom Mr Miller received one plant, which produced large fruit: this is what the people of America call the *king pine*.—The plants are propagated by planting the crowns which grow on the fruit, or the suckers which are produced either from the sides of the plants or under the fruit: both which are found to be equally good; although by some persons the crown is thought preferable to the suckers, as supposing it will produce fruit sooner than the suckers, which is certainly a mistake. The suckers and crowns must be laid to dry in a warm, place for 4 or 5 days, or more (according to the moisture of the part which adhered to the old plant or fruit); for if they are immediately planted, they will rot. The certain rule of judging when they are fit to plant, is by observing if the bottom is healed over and become hard; for if the suckers are drawn off carefully from the old plants, they will have a hard skin over the lower part, and so need not lie so long as the crowns of those whose bottoms are moist. But whenever a crown is taken from the fruit, or the suckers from old plants, they should be immediately divested of their bottom leaves, so high as to allow depth for their planting; so that they may be thoroughly dry and healed in every part, lest when they receive heat and moisture they should perish, which often happens when this method is not observed. If these suckers or crowns are taken off late in autumn, or during winter, or early in spring, they should be laid in a dry place in the stove for a fortnight or 3 weeks before they are planted; but in summer they will be fit for planting in a week at farthest. These should be planted in a rich good kitchen garden mould, not too heavy so as to detain the moisture too long, nor over light and sandy; but where this is wanting, some fresh earth should be procured from good pasture, which should be mixed with about a third part of rotten neats dung, or the dung of an old melon or cucumber bed which is well consumed. These should be mixed 6 or 8 months before they are used, but if it be a year it will be better; and should be often turned, that their parts may be the better united, and the clods well broken. This earth should not be sifted very fine; for if it is only cleared of the great stones, it will be the better for the plants than when it is made too fine. Always avoid mixing any sand with the earth, unless it be extremely stiff, and then it will be necessary to have it mixed at least six months or a year before it is used; it must be frequently turned, that the sand may be incorporated in the earth so as to divide its parts: but do not put more than a 6th of sand; for too much sand is very injurious to the plants. In summer they must be frequently watered; but not with large quantities at a time; and the moisture should not be detained in the pots by the holes being stopped, for that will soon destroy the plants. If the season is warm, they should be watered twice a-week; but in a cool season, once a-week will be sufficient; and in summer they should once a-week be watered gently all over the leaves; which will greatly promote their growth. Some frequently shift these plants, but unless the pots be filled with the roots, by the time the plants begin to show their fruit, they commonly produce small fruit, which have generally large crowns; therefore the plants should not be new potted oftener than twice in a season. The first time should be about the end of April, when the suckers and crowns of the former year's fruit, (which remained all the winter in these pots in which they were first planted) should be shifted into larger pots, *i. e.* those which were in halfpenny or three farthing pots, should be put into penny or at most three-half-penny pots, according to the size of the plants; for we must not over-pot them, nothing being more prejudicial. The 2d time for shifting, is in the beginning of August; when those which are of a proper size for fruiting the following spring should be put into two-penny pots, which are full large enough for any of these plants. At each time of shifting, the bark bed should be stirred up, and some new bark added, to raise the bed up to the height it was at first made; and when the pots are plunged again into the bark-bed, the plants should be watered gently all over the leaves, to wash off the filth, and to settle the earth to the roots of the plants. If the bark-bed be well stirred, and a quantity of good fresh bark added to the bed, at this latter shifting, it will be of great service to the plants; for they may remain in the same tan until the beginning of November, or sometimes later, according to the mildness of the season, and will require but little fire before that time. During the winter, they will not require to be watered oftener than once a week, according as the earth in the pots seems to dry. Plants beginning to show their fruit should never be shifted; for if they are removed after the fruit appears, it stops the growth, and thereby causes the fruit to be smaller, and retards its ripening; so that it will be October or November before the fruit is ripe; therefore the plants should be kept in a vigorous growing state from the first appearance of the fruit, as upon this depends the goodness and the size of it; for if they receive a check after this, the fruit is generally small and ill tasted. After cutting off the fruit from the plant intended to be propagated, the leaves should be trimmed, and the pots plunged again into a moderate hot bed, observing to refresh them frequently with water, which will make them put out suckers

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ſuckers in plenty; ſo that one may be ſoon ſupplied with plants enough of any of the kinds, who will but obſerve to keep the plants in health. The moſt dangerous thing that can happen to theſe plants is their being attacked by ſmall white inſects, which appear at firſt like a white mildew, but ſoon after have the appearance of lice: theſe attack both root and leaves at the ſame time; and if they are not ſoon deſtroyed, will ſpread over a whole ſtove in a ſhort time, and in a few weeks entirely ſtop the growth of the plants by ſucking out the nutritious juice, ſo that the leaves will appear yellow and ſickly, and have a number of yellow tranſparent ſpots all over them. Theſe inſects, after they are fully grown, appear like bugs, adhering ſo cloſely to the leaves as not to be eaſily waſhed off, and ſeem to have no local motion. They were originally brought from America upon the plants imported from thence; and are probably the ſame inſects which have deſtroyed the ſugar-canes of late in ſome of the Leeward Iſlands; for, upon ſome ſugar-canes which were ſent Mr Miller from Barbadoes, he obſerved great numbers of theſe inſects. Since they have been in England, they have ſpread greatly in ſtoves where there has not been more than ordinary care taken to deſtroy them. They have alſo attacked the orange-trees in many gardens near London, and have done them incredible damage; but as they do not endure the cold of our climate in winter, they are never found on ſuch plants as live in the open air. The only method yet diſcovered of deſtroying them, is by frequently waſhing the leaves, branches, and ſtems, of ſuch plants as they attack, with water in which there has been a ſtrong infuſion of tobacco ſtalks. But this method cannot be practiſed on the ananas plants, becauſe the inſects faſten themſelves ſo low between the leaves, that it is impoſſible to come at them with a ſponge to waſh them off; ſo that although they ſeem to be all cleared off, they are ſoon ſucceeded by a freſh ſupply from below, and the roots are alſo equally infected at the ſame time. Therefore, whenever they appear on the plants, the ſafeſt method is to take the plants out of the pots, and clear the earth from the roots; then put them into a tub, filled with water in which there has been a ſtrong infuſion of tobacco ſtalks; and lay ſome ſticks acroſs to keep them immerſed in the water; wherein they ſhould remain 24 hours; then take them out, and with a ſponge waſh off all the inſects from the leaves and roots, and waſh the plants in a tub of freſh water. This is the moſt effectual way to clear them from the inſects. After this, you ſhould put them in freſh earth; and, having ſtirred up the bark-bed, and added ſome new tan to give a freſh heat to the bed, the pots ſhould be plunged again, obſerving to water them all over the leaves, and this ſhould be repeated once a-week during ſummer; for theſe inſects always multiply much faſter where the plants are kept dry, than when they are ſometimes ſprinkled over with water, and kept in a growing ſtate. As theſe inſects are frequently brought over from America on the ananas plants, thoſe who procure their plants from thence, ſhould look carefully over them when they receive them, to ſee they have none of theſe inſects on them; for if they have, they will ſoon be propagated over all the plants in the ſtove where they are placed; therefore, whenever they are obſerved, the plants ſhould be ſoaked before they are planted into pots.

(III.) BROMELIÆ, IMPROVEMENTS IN THE CULTURE OF THE. Of late ſome very conſiderable improvements have been made in this article. The leaves of the oak have been ſubſtituted for the more expenſive bark; and the pines treated with them are found to thrive as well, and to produce as good fruit as the others. The proper way of managing theſe leaves, for rearing exotic plants, will be found under the article OAK LEAVES. But the moſt conſiderable improvement is that mentioned in the 67th volume of the Philoſophical Tranſactions, where the following method is ſhown by William Baſtard, Eſq; of Devonſhire, of raiſing theſe fruits in water. "Before I enter into the particulars of raiſing pine-apples in water, it will be neceſſary to tell you that my hot-houſe is covered with the beſt crown glaſs, which I apprehend gives more heat than the common ſort of green glaſs generally uſed for hot-houſes. In the front part of the houſe, and indeed any where in the loweſt part of it, the pine-apple will not thrive well in water. The way in which I treat them is as follows: I place a ſhelf near the higheſt part of the back wall, that the pine plants may ſtand without abſolutely touching the glaſs, but as near it as can be: on this ſhelf I place pans fulls of water, about 7 or 8 inches deep; and in theſe pans I put the pine-apple plants, growing in the ſame pots of earth as they are generally planted in, to be plunged into the bark bed in the common way, that is, I put the pot of earth, with the pine plant in it, in the pan-ful of water, and as the water decreaſes I conſtantly fill up the pan. I place either plants in fruit, or young plants as ſoon as they are well rooted, in theſe pans of water, and find they thrive equally well: the fruit reared this way is always much larger as well as better flavoured, than when ripened in the bark bed. I have more than once put only the plants themſelves without any earth, I mean after they had roots, into theſe pans of water, with only water ſufficient to keep the roots always covered, and found them flouriſh beyond expectation. In my houſe, the ſhelf I mention, is ſupported by irons from the top, and there is an intervening ſpace of about 10 inches between the back wall and the ſhelf. A neighbour of mine has placed a leaden ciſtern upon the top of the back flue, (in which as it is in contact with the flue, the water is always warm when there is fire in the houſe,) and finds his fruit excellent and large. My ſhelf does not touch the back flue, but is about a foot above it; and conſequently only warmed by the air in the houſe. Both theſe methods do well. The way I account for this ſucceſs is, that the warm air always aſcending to the part where this ſhelf is placed, as being the higheſt part of the houſe, keeps it much hotter than in any other part. The temperature at that place is, I believe, ſeldom leſs than what is indicated by 73° of Fahrenheit's thermometer, and when the ſun ſhines it is often above 100°: the water the plants grow in, ſeems to enable them to bear the greateſt heat, if ſufficient air be allowed; and I often ſee the

roots

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roots of the plants growing out of the holes of the bottom of the pot of earth, and ſhooting vigorouſly in the water. My hot-houſe, (the dimenſions of which it may be proper to know,) is 60 feet long and 11 feet wide, the flues included; 6 feet high in the front, and 11 feet at the back of the inſide of the houſe. It is warmed by two fires. A leaden trough or ciſtern on the top of the back flue is preferable to my ſhelf, as in it the pipe plants grow much faſter in the winter, the water being always warmed by the flue; of this I have ſeen the great benefit theſe two laſt months in my neighbourhood. It is not foreign to this purpoſe to mention, that, as a perſon was moving a large pine plant from the hot-bed in my houſe laſt ſummer, which plant was juſt ſhowing fruit, by ſome accident he broke off the plant juſt above the earth in which it grew, and there was no root whatever left to it: by way of experiment I took the plant, and fixed it upright in a pan of water (without any earth whatever) on the ſhelf; it there ſoon threw out roots, and bore a pine-apple that weighed upwards of two pounds."

BROME-PARK, NW. of Alnwick, Northumberland.

BROMFIELD, 3 villages: 1. in Eſſex: 2. in Kent, near Lenham: and, 3. in Yorkſhire, between S. Cave and the Humber.

BROMFORD, NW. of Wooller, Northumberland.

BROMHALL, 2 villages in Cheſhire: 1. near Combermere: 2. NW. of Stockport.

(1.) BROMLEY, a town of Kent, ſituated on the river Ravenſburn, 110 miles from London, on the road to Tunbridge. It has an hoſpital for 20 clergymen's widows, with an allowance of 20l. a-year, and 50l. a-year to the chaplain. It has fairs Feb. 14, and Aug. 5, and a market on Thurſ. Lon. 0. 5. E. Lat. 51. 23. N.

(2—7.) BROMLEY, the name of 6 villages; viz. 2. in Cheſhire, near Combermere: 2. in Dorſetſh. 1¼ miles SW. of Abbots-Stoke: 3. in Middleſex, near Bow, 2 miles from London: 4. in Shropſhire, between Bridgenorth and Worril: 5. in ditto, between Kingſwood and Nether-Heath: and, 6. in Staffordſhire, between Swinford and Brockmere. It likewiſe makes part of the names of other 7; viz.

(8.) BROMLEY-ABBEY, and } in Staffordſhire, 6
(9.) BROMLEY-BAGOTS, } m. from Stafford.

(10.) BROMLEY-GERARDS, in Staffordſhire, near Bloreheath.

(11.) BROMLEY-HURST, in Staffordſhire, SE. of Pagets-Bromley.

(12.) BROMLEY MAGNA, and } in Eſſex, SW. of
(13.) BROMLEY PARVA, } Manning-tree; and,

(14.) BROMLEY REGIS, or KING'S BROMLEY, in Staffordſhire, on the Trent.

BROMPTON, the name of three villages; viz. 1. in Dorſetſhire, near Bridport: 2. in Kent, near Rocheſter: and, 3. in Kenſington pariſh, Middleſex.

BROMPTON-BRIAN. See BRAMPTON-BRION.

BROMSALL, SW. of Utoxeter, Staffordſhire.

BROMSBOROUGH, a town in Glouceſterſh. 4 miles from Ledbury.

BROMSGROVE, a town of Worceſterſhire, ſeated on the river Salwarp. It is a pretty good town, has a conſiderable trade in cloth; and a large market on Tueſday, for corn, cattle, and all ſorts of proviſions. It is 15 miles NE. by N. of Worceſter, and 116 NW. of London. It has fairs June 24, and October 1. Lon. 2. 5. W. Lat. 52. 26. N.

BROMSTHORP, in Norfolk, near Reedham.

BROMSWELL, near Woodbridge, Suffolk.

BROMUS, BROOM-GRASS, in botany: A genus of the digynia order, belonging to the triandria claſs of plants; and, in the natural method, ranking under the 4th order, *Gramina*. The calyx is bivalved, having a partial ſpike, oblong and round, oppoſite grains, with an awn below the point of each outer valve. There are 24 ſpecies, of which 7 are natives of Britain, viz.

1. BROMUS ARVENSIS, common broom-graſs:
2. BROMUS CILIATUS, wall broom-graſs:
3. BROMUS GIGANTEUS, tall broom-graſs:
4. BROMUS PINNATUS, ſpiked broom-graſs:
5. BROMUS RAMOSUS, wood broom-graſs:
6. BROMUS SECALINUS, field broom-graſs:
7. BROMUS STERILIS, barren broom-graſs:

(1.) BROMWICH, a town in Shropſhire.

(2.) BROMWICH CASTLE, }
(3.) BROMWICH, GREAT, and } three villages in Warwickſhire,
(4.) BROMWICH, LITTLE, } near Coleſhill.

(5.) BROMWICH, WEST, S. of Walſal, Stafford.

BROMYARD, a town of Herefordſhire, near the Frome, ſeated on a riſing ground, and containing about 200 houſes. It has 5 fairs, and a market on Monday. It is 18 miles W. of Worceſter, and 125 WNW. of London. Lon. 2. 46. W. Lat. 52. 20. N.

BROMYTHE, or TILL, a river in Northumberland.

BRON, or BRONNO, a town of Italy, in the Milaneſe, on the S. ſide of the Po, 12 miles S. of Pavia. At this place the French were defeated by the Imperialiſts in 1703. Lon. 10. 5. E. Lat. 44. 50. N.

BRONCHANT, *adj.* in heraldry, projecting.

BRONCHIÆ, in anatomy, the ramifications of the trachea. See ANATOMY, § 356.

* BRONCHIAL. BRONCHICK. *adj.* [βρογχος] Belonging to the throat.—Inflammation of the lungs may happen either in the *bronchial* or pulmonary veſſels, and may ſoon be communicated from one to the other, when the inflammation affects both the lobes. *Arbuthnot.*

BRONCHIAL ARTERIES. See ANATOMY, *Index.*

(1.) * BRONCHOCELE. *n. ſ.* [βρογχοκηλη.] A tumour of that part of the aſpera arteria, called the *bronchus*. *Quincy.*

(2.) BRONCHOCELE. See MEDICINE, *Index.*

(1.) * BRONCHOTOMY. *n. ſ.* [βρογχος and τεμνω.] That operation which opens the windpipe by inciſion, to prevent ſuffocation in a quinſey. *Quincy.*—The operation of *bronchotomy* is an inciſion into the aſpera arteria, to make way for the air into the lungs, when reſpiration is obſtructed by any tumour compreſſing the larynx. *Sharp's Surgery.*

(2.) BRONCHOTOMY is neceſſary in many caſes, and eſpecially in a violent quinſey, to prevent ſuffocation from the great inflammation or tumor of the parts. It is alſo called LARYNGOTOMY and TRACHEOTOMY. See SURGERY.

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BRONCHUS, the trachea, or wind-pipe. See ANATOMY, § 353—358.

BRONCINI, a name given by ſome to the ſea wolf.

* BROND. *n. ſ.* See BRAND. A ſword.—

Fooliſh old man, ſaid then the pagan wroth,
That weeneſt words or charms may force withſtond,
Soon ſhalt thou ſee, and then believe for troth,
That I can carve with this enchanted *brond*.
Spenſer.

BROND-IRON. *n. ſ. obſ.* a ſword. *Spenſer.*

BRONELSTON, a village in Cumberland.

BRONKHORST, John VAN, an eminent painter of the 17th century, born at Utrecht. He ſtudied under Cornelius Poelemburg, whoſe ſtyle he imitated with great ſucceſs. He painted both hiſtory and landſcapes; and his pictures, which are very highly finiſhed, are held in great eſteem.

BRONNO. See BRON.

BRONTEA, [from βροντη, thunder, an inſtrument uſed in theatres to imitate thunder.

BTONTES, in the mythology, one of the Cyclops, who was employed by Vulcan, to make Jupiter's thunder-bolts.

BRONTEUM, in Grecian antiquity, a place underneath the floor of the theatres, in which were kept brazen veſſels full of ſtones and other materials, with which they imitated the noiſe of thunder.

BRONTEUS, in the mythology, an epithet of Jupiter; applied alſo to Bacchus.

BRONTIÆ, or THUNDER-STONES, in natural hiſtory. See BELEMNITES.

(1.) * BRONTOLOGY. *n. ſ.* [βροντη and λογος.] A diſſertation upon thunder. *Dict.*

(2.) BRONTOLOGY denotes an explanation of the cauſes, phenomena, &c. of thunder. See ELECTRICITY and THUNDER.

(1.) * BRONZE. *n. ſ.* [*bronze*, Fr.] 1. Braſs.—

Imbrown'd with native *bronze*, lo! Henley ſtands,
Tuning his voice, and balancing his hands. *Pope.*

2. Relief, or ſtatue caſt in braſs.—

I view with anger and diſdain,
How little gives the joy or pain;
A print, a *bronze*, a flower, a root,
A ſhell, a butterfly can do't. *Prior.*

(2.) BRONZE, a compound of copper and tin, to which ſometimes other metallic ſubſtances, particularly zinc, are added.—This metal is brittle, hard, and ſonorous. It is employed for making bells, cannons, ſtatues, &c. and the proportions of the component metals are varied to ſuit the ſeveral purpoſes to which it is applied. This compound, like ſome others, is ſpecifically heavier than either of the metals taken ſeparately. A metallic maſs, compoſed of 4 fifths of copper and 1 5th of tin, weighs in water 7 and 1 tenth grains more than the ſame quantities of theſe two metals would together weigh in water if not allayed. This proves, that in the union of copper and tin there is a penetration of parts, the one metal entering into the pores of the other; and this is further confirmed by an obſervation of Mr Tillet, member of the royal academy of ſciences. In his memoir concerning the ductility of metals, he takes notice, that when the mixture of copper and tin is made in the proportions above mentioned, the colour of the copper is entirely annulled and covered by that of the tin, although the quantity of the firſt be four times greater; and this ſingular effect cannot be underſtood without admitting a total change in the ſize and diſpoſition of the pores of the compound metal.—Tin being leſs ſubject to ruſt than copper, bronze is alſo found to be leſs liable to be covered with verdigreaſe than pure copper is; and this is one reaſon why it is uſed for cannons, ſtatues, and works expoſed to the air and weather. The greater fuſibility of bronze than copper is alſo an advantageous property, and much facilitates the caſting of large works. The operation for caſting bronze is ſimple. A brick furnace is uſed, nearly of the ſhape of an oven for baking bread. The floor of it is concave, and conſiſts of a compoſition of ſand and clay. In this hollow floor the metals to be fuſed are put.—The furnace has 3 openings. The firſt is a lateral mouth, at which enters the flame of the wood placed in a ſecond furnace, on one ſide of the firſt: the 2d is a chimney placed on a ſide oppoſite to the mouth, by means of which the flame is drawn over the metal. The 3d is a hole which is opened and ſhut at pleaſure; through which the inner part of the furnace may be occaſionally inſpected, that the ſtate of the metal may be obſerved. When the metal is in the ſtate required, a 4th opening is then uncloſed, communicating with the hollow floor, and through which the melted metal flows by channels into the moulds prepared to receive it.

(3.) BRONZE, alſo denotes a colour prepared by the colourmen of Paris, wherewith to imitate bronze.—There are two ſorts, the red bronze and the yellow or golden. The latter is made ſolely of copper duſt, the fineſt and brighteſt that can be got; the former is made of the ſame, with the addition of a little red ochre well pulverized. They are both applied with varniſh. To prevent their turning greeniſh, the work muſt be dried over a chafing-diſh as ſoon as bronzed.

(4.) BRONZE, among antiquarians, is applied to figures of men or beaſts, to urns, and in general to every piece of ſculpture which the ancients made of that metal. We likewiſe give the name to ſtatues or buſts caſt of bronze, whether theſe pieces be copies of antiques or original ſubjects.—Among medalliſts, all copper medals bear the name of *bronze*.

BRONZING, the art or act of imitating bronze, which is done by means of copper-duſt or leaf, faſtened on the outſide, as gold leaves are in gilding.

* BROOCH. *n. ſ.* [*broke*, Dutch.] 1. A jewel; an ornament of jewels.—

Ay, marry our chains and our jewels.—
Your *brooches*, pearls, and owches. *Shak.*

—Richly ſuited, but unſeaſonable; juſt like the *brooch* and the toothpick, which we wear not now. *Shakeſpeare.*—

I know him well; he is the *brooch*, indeed,
A gem of all the nation. *Shakeſpeare.*

2. [With painters.] A painting all of one colour. *Dict.*

* *To* BROOCH. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To adorn with jewels.—

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Not th' imperious shew
Of the full-fortun'd Cæsar, ever shall
Be *brooch'd* with me. *Shakespeare.*

(1.) * BROOD. *n. s.* [from the verb.] 1. Offspring; progeny. It is now hardly used of human being, but in contempt.—

The heavenly father keep his *brood*
From foul infection of so great a vice. *Fairfax.*
With terrours, and with clamours compass'd round,
Of mine own *brood*, that on my bowels feed.
Milton.
Or any other of that heav'nly *brood*,
Let down in cloudy throne to do the world some good. *Milton.*

—Ælian discourses of storks, and their affection toward their *brood*, whom they instruct to fly. *Brown's Vulgar Errours.* 2. Thing bred; species generated.—

Have you forgotten Libya's burning wastes,
Its barren rocks, parch'd earth, and hills of sand,
Its tainted air, and all its *broods* of poison? *Addis.*

3. A hatch; the number hatched at once.—I was wonderfully pleased to see the different workings of instinct in a hen followed by a *brood* of ducks. *Spectator.* 4. Something brought forth; a production.—Such things become the hatch and *brood* of time. *Shakesp.* 5. The act of covering the eggs.

Something's in his soul,
O'er which his melancholy sits on *brood*;
And I doubt the hatch and the disclose
Will be some danger. *Shakespeare.*

(2.) BROOD, or } called by the French *couvain*
BROOD-COMB, } is that part of the comb of a bee-hive, which contains in its cells the future progeny of the hive, in the three different states of eggs, worms, and nymphs. See BEE, § I, 12.

(1.) * *To* BROOD. *v. a.* To cherish by care.—

Of crowds afraid, yet anxious when alone,
You'll sit and *brood* your sorrows on a throne.
Dryden.

(2.) * *To* BROOD. *v. n.* [*brædan*, Sax.] 1. To sit as on eggs; to hatch them.—

Thou from the first
Wast present, and, with mighty wings outspread,
Dove-like sat'st *brooding* on the vast abyss,
And mad'st it pregnant. *Milton.*
Here nature spreads her fruitful sweetness round,
Breathes on the air, and *broods* upon the ground.
Dryden.

2. To cover chickens under the wing.—

Exalted hence, and drunk with secret joy,
Their young succession all their cares employ;
They breed, they *brood*, instruct and educate,
And make provision for the future state. *Dryd.*
Find out some uncouth cell,
Where *brooding* darkness spreads his jealous wings,
And the night raven sings. *Milton.*

3. To remain long in anxiety, or solicitous thought.

Defraud their clients, and, to lucre sold,
Sit *brooding* on unprofitable gold. *Dryden.*
As rejoicing misers
Brood o'er their precious stores of secret gold.
Smith.

4. To mature any thing by care.—It was the opinion of Clinias, as if there were ever amongst nations a *brooding* of a war, and that there is no sure league but impuissance to do hurt. *Bacon.*

BROODING, the act of a hen in hatching her chickens. See HATCHING.

* BROODY. *adj.* [from *brood*.] In a state of sitting on the eggs; inclined to sit.—The common hen, all the while she is *broody*, sits, and leads her chickens, and uses a voice which we call clocking. *Ray.*

(1.) * BROOK. *n. s.* [*broc*, or *broca*, Sax.] A running water, less than a river.—

A substitute shines brightly as a king,
Until a king be by; and then his state
Empties itself, as doth an inland *brook*
Into the main of waters. *Shakespeare.*
Or many grateful altars I would rear,
Of grassy turf; and pile up every stone,
Of lustre from the *brook*; in memory,
Of monument to ages. *Milton.*
And to Cephisus' *brook* their way pursue:
The stream was troubled, but the ford they knew. *Dryden.*

—Springs make little rivulets; those united, make *brooks*; and those coming together, make rivers, which empty themselves into the sea. *Locke.*

(2.) A BROOK is by some distinguished from a river, in this, that it flows at particular seasons only; whereas a river flows at all times.

(3—5.) BROOK, in geography, the name of 5 villages; viz. 1. in Kent, S. of Ashford: 2. in W. Medina, Isle of Wight: and 3. in Wiltshire, S. of N. Bradley.

(1.) * *To* BROOK. *v. a.* [*brucan*, Sax.] To bear; to endure; to support.—Even they, which *brook* it worst, that men should tell them of their duties, when they are told the same by a law, think very well and reasonably of it. *Hooker.*—

A thousand more mischances than this one,
Have learned me to *brook* this patiently. *Shak.*
How use doth breed a habit in a man?
This shadowy desart, unfrequented woods,
I better *brook* than flourishing peopl'd towns.
Shakespeare.
Heav'n, the seat of bliss,
Brooks not the works of violence, and war. *Milt.*

—Most men can much rather *brook* their being reputed knaves, than for their honesty be accounted fools. *South.*—

Restraint thou wilt not *brook*; but think it hard,
Your prudence is not trusted as your guard.
Dryden.

(2.) * *To* BROOK. *v. n.* To endure; to be content.—He, in these wars, had flatly refused his aid; because he could not *brook*, that the worthy prince Plangus was, by his chosen Tiridates, preferred before him. *Sidney.*

(1.) BROOKE, a town near Oakham, Rutlandsh.

(2.) BROOKS, Mrs Frances, daughter of the rev. Mr More, was a lady as remarkable for her virtues and suavity of manners, as for her great literary accomplishments. Her first performance, which introduced her to the esteem of the public, was *Julia Mandeville*; a work concerning which there were various opinions, but which every body read with eagerness. It has often been wished that she had made the catastrophe less melancholy; and we believe that she afterwards was of the same opinion, but she thought it beneath her character

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racter to alter it. She ſoon afterwards went to Canada with her huſband, who was chaplain to the garriſon at Quebec; and there ſhe ſaw and loved thoſe romantic characters and ſcenes which gave birth to *Emily Montague*, a work deſervedly and univerſally eſteemed, which has paſſed through ſeveral editions, and is now not eaſily met with. On her return to England, accident introduced her, and congenial ſentiments attracted her, to Mrs Yates; an intimacy was formed, which terminated only with the life of that lady. Mrs Brooke, in conſequence of this connection, formed an acquaintance with Mr Garrick, and wrote ſome pieces for the ſtage. She had, however, great reaſon to be diſſatisfied with his behaviour as a manager; and ſhe made *The Excurſion*, a novel which ſhe wrote at this time, the vehicle by which ſhe exhibited to the public her complaints and anger againſt the king of Drury. Her anger, we believe, was juſt, but the retribution was too ſevere. She herſelf afterwards thought ſo, for ſhe retracted it. Her firſt dramatic performance was the tragedy of *Virginia*, 1756. Her next, was *The Siege of Sinope*, a tragedy, introduced by Mr Harris, and written principally with a view of placing Mr Yates in a conſpicuous character. This did not altogether fail, but it did not become popular; it wanted energy, and it had not much originality; it had little either to cenſure or admire. Her next and moſt popular production was *Roſina*, which, in a moſt liberal manner, ſhe preſented to Mr Harris. Few modern pieces have been equally ſucceſsful. About ten years ago, her muſical piece, entitled *Marian*, was introduced, and exhibited. Mrs Brooke alſo tranſlated ſeveral books from the French. She was eſteemed by Dr Johnſon, Miſs Seward, and all the firſt characters of her time. She died in Jan. 1789, two days after her huſband, who enjoyed the rectory of Colney in Norfolk, to which he had been preferred after his arrival from America.

(3.) BROOKE, Sir Robert. See BROKE, N° 3.

BROOKE-GREEN, a village in Middleſex, near Hammerſmith.

BROOKFIELD, a poſt-town of the United States, in Maſſachuſetts; ſituated in Worceſter county. It contains about 30 houſes, compactly built, and a congregational church. It is 68 m. W. by S. of Boſton, and 297 from Philadelphia.

BROOKHAVEN, a town of Long-Iſland; ſituated in Suffolk county. It contains about 40 dwellings, compactly built, an Epiſcopalian, and a Preſbyterian church. It is 60 miles E. of New-York.

BROOKHOUSE, in Kent, near Dartford.

BROOKLAND, in Romney-marſh, Kent.

BROOKLEY, in Kent, near Eltham.

(1.) * BROOKLIME. *n. f.* [*becabunga*, Lat.] A ſort of water ſpeed-well, very common in ditches.

(2.) BROOK-LIME. See VERONICA.

BROOKLYN, a handſome town of Long-Iſland; pleaſantly ſituated in King's county, oppoſite New York city. It conſiſts of one principal ſtreet, on which are erected about 100 houſes, a Preſbyterian, and a Dutch Reformed church.

BROOKS-BOROUGH, a town of Ireland, in Fermanagh, Ulſter, about 87 miles from Dublin.

BROOKSTREET, in Eſſex, near Burtwood.

(1.) * BROOM. *n. f.* [*geniſta*; *brom*, Saxon.] 1. A ſmall tree.—

Ev'n humble *broom*, and oſiers, have their uſe,
And ſhade for ſheep, and food for flocks, produce. *Dryden.*

2. A beſom; ſo called from the matter of which it is ſometimes made.—

Not a mouſe
Shall diſturb this hallow'd houſe;
I am ſent with *broom* before,
To ſweep the duſt behind the door. *Shakeſp.*

—If they came into the beſt apartment, to ſee any thing in order, they were ſaluted with a *broom*. *Arbuthnot.*

(2.) BROOM, as defined § 1. *def.* 2. is applied to beſoms of various kinds; ſuch as a *birch broom*, a *hair broom*, a *ruſh broom*, a *heath broom*, &c. The primite brooms, from whence the denomination is given to all the reſt, were made of the geniſta or wild broom growing on commons, as many of them ſtill are.

(3.) BROOM, in botany. See GENISTA.

(4.) BROOM, in geography, a diſtrict in Renfrewſhire, in the pariſh of Mearns, where there is a bleachfield, which employs 22 perſons.

(5.) BROOM, AFRICAN. See ASPALATHUS, § 2.

(6.) BROOM, BUTCHER'S, in botany. See RUSCUS.

(7.) BROOM, SPANISH, in botany. See SPARTIUM.

BROOME, William, the coadjutor of Pope in tranſlating the Odyſſey, was born in Cheſhire, of poor parents. He was educated at Eaton, and was captain of the ſchool a whole year, by which he might have obtained a ſcholarſhip at King's college, had there been a vacancy. He was therefore ſent to St John's college by the contribution of his friends, where he obtained a ſmall exhibition. At this college he lived for ſome time in the ſame chamber with the well known Ford, by whom Dr Johnſon heard him deſcribed as a contracted ſcholar, and a mere verſifier, unacquainted with life, and unſkilful in converſation. His addiction to metre was then ſuch, that his companions called him *Poet*. But when he had opportunities of mingling with mankind, cleared himſelf, from his ſcholaſtic ruſt. He appeared early in the world as a tranſlator of the Iliad into proſe, in conjunction with Ozell and Oldiſworth. How their ſeveral parts were diſtributed is not known. This is the tranſlation of which Ozell boaſted, as ſuperior, in Toland's opinion, to that of Pope: It has long ſince vaniſhed, (Dr Johnſon obſerves,) and is now in no danger from the critics. He was introduced to Mr Pope, when viſiting Sir John Cotton at Madingley, near Cambridge; and gained ſo much of his eſteem, that he employed him to make extracts from Euſtathius, for the notes to the tranſlation of the Iliad; and in the volumes of poetry publiſhed by Lintot, commonly called *Pope's Miſcellanies*, many of his early pieces were inſerted. Pope and Broome were yet more cloſely connected. When the ſucceſs of the Illiad gave encouragement to a verſion of the Odyſſey, Pope, weary of the toil, called Fenton and Broome to his aſſiſtance; and taking only half the work upon himſelf, divided the other half between his partners, giving 4 books to Fen-

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ton and 8 to Broome. Fenton's books are enumerated in Dr Johnſon's life of him. To the lot of Broome fell the 2d, 6th, 8th, 11th, 12th, 16th, 18th, and 23d, together with the burden of writing all the notes. The price at which Pope purchaſed this aſſiſtance was 300l. paid to Fenton, and 500l. to Broome, with as many copies as he wanted for his friends, which amounted to 100l. more. The payment made to Fenton is known only by hearſay; Broome's is very diſtinctly told by Pope in the notes to the Dunciad. It is evident, that, according to Pope's own eſtimate, Broome was unkindly treated. If four books could merit 300 l. eight and all the notes, equivalent at leaſt to other four, had certainly a right to more than 600 l. Broome probably conſidered himſelf as injured, and there was for ſome time more than coldneſs between him and his employer. He always ſpoke of Pope as too much a lover of money, and Pope purſued him with avowed hoſtility; for he not only named him diſreſpectfully in the Dunciad, but quoted him more than once in the Bathos, as a proficient in the art of ſinking: and in his enumeration of the different kinds of poets diſtinguiſhed for the profound, he reckons Broome among "the parrots who repeat another's words, in ſuch an hoarſe odd tone as makes them ſeem their own." It has been ſaid that they were afterwards reconciled; but their peace was probably without friendſhip. He afterwards publiſhed a Miſcellany of Poems, but never roſe to any high dignity in the church. He was ſome time rector of Sturſten in Suffolk, where he married a wealthy widow; and afterwards, when the king viſited Cambridge, in 1728, became LL. D. He was, in 1733, preſented by the crown to the rectory of Pulham in Norfolk, which he held with Oakley Magna in Suffolk, given him by Lord Cornwallis, to whom he was chaplain, and who added the vicarage of Eye in Suffolk. He amuſed himſelf with tranſlating Odes of Anacreon, which he publiſhed in the Gentleman's Magazine under the name of *Cheſter*. He died at Bath in 1745.

BROOM FLOWER, KNIGHTS OF THE, [*Ordre de la Geneſte,*) a cidevant order of knights inſtituted by St Lewis of France, on occaſion of his marriage. The motto was *Exaltat humiles*; and the collar of the order made up of broom flowers and huſks, enamelled and intermixed with *fleur-de-lys* of gold, ſet in open loſenges, enamelled white, chained together, and a croſs florence of gold hung at it. Some ſpeak of another order of the *Broom* eſtabliſhed by Charles Martel, or rather Charles VI.

BROOM GALL, in natural hiſtory, a remarkable ſpecies of galls found on the common broom; occaſioned, like all other galls, by the puncture and eating of an inſect. When opened they are found to contain a ſmall oblong worm, of a red colour, but whoſe ſize requires a glaſs to ſee it diſtinctly.

BROOMHILL, a diſtrict in Lanarkſhire.

BROOMING, or BREAMING A SHIP. See *To* BREAM, and CAREENING.

* BROOMLAND. *n. ſ.* [*broom* and *land.*] Land that bears broom.—I have known ſheep cured of the rot, when they have not been far gone with it, by being put into *broomlands*. *Mortimer.*

BROOM, LOCH. See LOCH-BROOM.

BROOM-RAPE, in botany. See OROBANCHE.

* BROOMSTAFF. *n. ſ.* [from *broom* and *ſtaff.*] The ſtaff to which the *broom* is bound; the handle of a beſom:—They fell on; I made good my place: at length they came to the *broomſtaff* with me; I defied 'em ſtill. *Shakeſpeare.*—

From the age,
That children tread this worldly ſtage,
Broomſtaff, or poker, they beſtride,
And round the parlour love to ride. *Prior.*

—Sir Roger pointed at ſomething behind the door, which I found to be an old *broomſtaff*. *Spectator.*

* BROOMSTICK. *n. ſ.* The ſame as broom ſtaff.—When I beheld this, I ſighed and ſaid within myſelf, SURELY MORTAL MAN IS A BROOMSTICK! *Swift's Meditation on a Broomſtick.*

* BROOMY. *adj.* [from *broom.*] Full of broom.—If land grow moſſy or *broomy*, then break it up again. *Mortimer.*—

The youth with *broomy* ſtumps began to trace
The kennel edge, where wheels had worn the place. *Swift.*

(1.) BRORA, a lake of Scotland, in the county of Sutherland, 4 miles long and 1 broad. At two different places it is ſo much contracted, as to exhibit the appearance of 3 lakes. It is environed on both ſides with lofty mountains, villages and natural wood. In the middle of it is an iſland of an oblong ſquare figure, which tradition ſays, was artificially conſtructed on an immenſe collection of ſtones brought there on purpoſe. One half of it was appropriated for lodgings in time of war, and the other laid out for a garden. "The walls, (ſays the rev. Mr Roſs, miniſter of Clyne) are ſtill pretty high and aſcend perpendicularly from the ſurface of the water, without a veſtige of the iſland behind them; and are only acceſſible by two ſtairs, which front the S. and E. ſo that with plenty of ſtores, and the fiſhing of the loch, abounding with ſalmon, trout and eel, the place was impregnable, when properly defended." Mr Roſs alſo gives a traditional account of the people of that neighbourhood having preſerved themſelves in that iſland from a ſudden invaſion of the Caithneſs men, till they were relieved by their allies of the clan Gun. *Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc.* x. 304.

(2.) BRORA, a river in Sutherlandſhire, which falls into the ſea, about a furlong below the village, N° 3. There is a tolerable harbour at the mouth of it, for ſmall ſhips.

(3.) BRORA, a village ſeated on the river, N° 2. over which it has a bridge, on the high road to Caithneſs and Orkney. Salt pans were eſtabliſhed, and great quantities of ſalt made and exported by a company from Portſoy; but they were diſcontinued about 20 years ago, on account of the high tax on coals. It is to be hoped they will now be again ſet agoing.

(1.) BROS, a diſtrict of the Saxon territory in Tranſylvania.

(2.) BROS, a royal free town, and capital of the diſtrict, (N° 1.) ſeated on the Maros. It has been admitted by the Saxons among the German towns.

BROSELEY, a village in Shropſhire, 5 miles from Bridgenorth.

BROSNEY, in King's county, Ireland.

BROSSÆA, in botany, a genus of plants ranked

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ed by ſome botaniſts under the order Monogynia, of the claſs Pentandria; but Mr Lee and others claſs it in Linnæus's appendix, under the order Palmæ. The characters are theſe: the cup is a one-leaved perianthium, divided into 5 ſegments, each of which terminates in a long point, of the ſame length with the petals; the flower is monopetalous, of the ſhape of a truncated cone, and undivided at the edge; the germen is divided into 5 parts; the ſtyle is pointed, not ſo long as the flower, and its ſtigma ſimple. The fruit is a roundiſh capſule, divided by 5 deep furrows into 5 cells; it is covered with a large cup, which cloſes over its top; it is ſucculent and fleſhy; and, opening at the ſides, diſcharges a great number of ſeeds.

BROSSARD, Sebaſtian de, an eminent French muſician. In the former part of his life he had been prebendary and chapel maſter of the cathedral church of Straſburg; but afterwards became grand-chaplain, and alſo maitre de chapelle in the cathedral of Meaux. He publiſhed a work entitled *Prodromus muſicales*; and a very uſeful book entitled *Dictionnaire de muſique*, printed at Amſterdam, in folio, 1703. At the end of this book is a catalogue of 900 authors, ancient and modern, who have written on muſic; divided into claſſes, wherein he has interſperſed many curious obſervations relating to the hiſtory of muſic. By Mr Boivin's *Catalogue general des livres de muſique* for 1729, it appears that Broſſard was the author of two ſets of motets, and 9 *Lecons de Tenebres* therein mentioned. Theſe ſeveral publications were at a time when the author was far advanced in years; for Walther ſays, that in the *Mercure Galante*, he is mentioned as an abbé and componiſt ſo early as 1678.

BROSSETTE, Claude, a learned French advocate, born at Lyons, in 1671. He was keeper of the public library at Lyons; and publiſhed the works of Boileau and Regnier, with hiſtorical illuſtrations. He purged the text of theſe authors from the errors of former editions, and interſperſed his notes with many curious anecdotes. He wrote alſo *L'Hiſtoire Abregee de la Ville de Lyons*; an elegant and correct work. He correſponded with many eminent literati, particularly Voltaire and Rouſſeau. He died at Lyons in 1746, aged 73.

BROSSIER. Martha, a French woman who made no ſmall noiſe about the end of the 16th century, by pretending to be poſſeſſed by the devil, and counterfeiting convulſive fits. M. De Thou and other French hiſtorians have given a particular account of her. Her father was a weaver at Romorentin, but found he could gain more, in that credulous age, by exhibiting his daughter as a dæmoniac, than by following his honeſt and uſeful profeſſion. She was firſt detected at Orleans, in 1598; and afterwards at Angers, where the biſhop, inviting Martha to dinner, not only proved that her *dæmon* could not diſtinguiſh between common and *holy* water, but that he was ſuch an *ignorant devil*, that he did not know the difference between the *Book of exorciſms* and *Virgil's Æneid*. Notwithſtanding theſe detections, the credulity of the public was ſuch, and ſome of the prieſts acquired ſo much reputation by exorciſing the evil ſpirit, that Henry IV. enjoined the parliament of Paris to take cognizance of the affair; who, after a conſultation of phyſicians, ordered the father and daughter to be confined to Romorentin, under pain of corporal puniſhment. The prieſts, however, carried the buſineſs and the parties before the court of Rome; but the pope, being forewarned by the court of Paris, did nothing contrary to the deciſion of parliament. Some of the French prieſts loſt their benefices by their villainous zeal; and the pretended dæmoniac and her father died in deſerved contempt, in an hoſpital at Rome.

BROSSUS, in old records, bruiſed.

BROST, or BROSTIN, *adj. obſ.* Broken, torn, or rent. *Chauc.*

BROSTON, a town 2 miles E. of Norwich, Norfolk.

* BROTH. *n. ſ.* [*broth*, Sax.] Liquour in which fleſh is boiled.—You may make the *broth* for two days, and take the one half every day. *Bacon.*—

Inſtead of light deſerts and luſcious froth,
Our author treats to-night with Spartan *broth*. *Southerne.*

—If a nurſe, after being ſucked dry, eats *broth*, the infant will ſuck the *broth* almoſt unaltered, *Arbuthnot.*

* BROTHEL. (1.) * BROTHEL-HOUSE. *n. ſ.* [*brodil*, Fr.] A houſe of lewd entertainment; a bawdyhouſe.—

Perchance
I ſaw him enter ſuch a houſe of ſale,
Videlicit, a *brothel*. *Shakeſpeare.*

Then courts of kings were held in high renown,
Ere made the common *brothels* of the town:
There, virgins honourable vows receiv'd,
But chaſte as maids in monaſteries liv'd. *Dryd.*

From its old ruins *brothelhouſes* riſe,
Scenes of lewd loves, and of polluted joys. *Dryd.*

—The libertine retires to the ſtews, and to the *brothel*. *Rogers.*

(2.) BROTHEL HOUSES, lewd places, the common habitations of proſtitutes. King Henry VIII. by proclamation, in the 37th year of his reign, ſuppreſſed all the ſtews or brothel-houſes which had long continued on the bank ſide in Southwark, contrary to the law of God and of the land. See BAWDY-HOUSE.

BROTHELIER FEMME, a common whore.

BROTHELMAN, a looſe idle fellow. *Borelman* is a contraction for *brothelman*.

BROTHELRY, *n. ſ.* obſcenity; lewdneſs.

(1.) * BROTHER. *n. ſ.* [*brother*, *brothor*, Sax.] Plural, *brothers*, or *brethren*. 1. One born of the ſame father or mother.—

Be ſad, good *brothers*;
Sorrow ſo royally in you appears,
That I will deeply put the faſhion on. *Shakeſp.*

Whilſt kin their kin, *brother* the *brother* foils,
Like enſigns all, againſt like enſigns bend. *Daniel.*

Theſe two are *brethren*, Adam, and to come
Out of thy loins. *Milton.*

—Comparing two men, in reference to one common parent, it is very eaſy to form the idea of *brothers*. *Locke.* 2. Any one cloſely united; aſſociate.—

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We few, we happy few, we band of *brothers*;
For he, to-day that ſheds his blood with me,
Shall be my *brother*. *Shakeſpeare.*

3. Any one reſembling another in manner, form, or profeſſion.—He alſo that is ſlothful in his work, is *brother* to him that is a great waſter. *Proverbs.*—I will eat no meat while the world ſtandeth, leſt I make my *brother* to offend. *Cor.* 4. *Brother* is uſed, in theological language, for man in general.

(2.) BROTHER is more accurately defined, a term of relationſhip applied to a male, among children ſprung from the ſame father, or mother, or both. Scaliger and Voſſius derive *frater* from φρατρα, for φρεατρος, a perſon who draws water in the ſame well; φρεαρ, in Greek, ſignifying *a well*, and φρατρια, a company of people, who have a right to draw water out of the ſame well.—The word, it is ſaid, came originally from Argos, where there were only a few wells diſtributed in certain quarters of the city, to which thoſe of the ſame family or neighbourhood alone repaired. Conſiſtently with this derivation, the ancients applied the term brother to almoſt all who ſtood related in the collateral line, as uncles, nephews, couſins german, &c. Cicero, in his Philippics, ſays, "Antonio was both wife and ſiſter of Mark Anthony; becauſe ſhe was daughter of his brother C. Antonius:" And Tullus Hoſtilius, in Dionyſius Halicarnaſſeus, calls the Horatii and Curiatii, brothers; becauſe they were ſiſters children. The language of the Hebrews was ſimilar: "We are brethren," ſays Abraham to Lot, *Geneſis*, xiii. 8. whereas Lot was only his nephew. So Jacob told Rachel that he was her father's brother, *Geneſis*, xxix. 12. whereas he was only her father's nephew.

(3.) BROTHER, among monarchs, is a title they uſually give each other; the unction in coronation being eſteemed to create a kind of brotherhood. Nor is the cuſtom modern: Menander mentions a letter of Coſroes king of Perſia to the emperor Juſtinian, beginning thus: Coſroes, king of kings, &c. to the emperor Juſtinian, my brother.—Kings alſo give the ſame appellation to the electors of the empire.

(4.) BROTHER, in clerical language, is a cuſtomary term for prieſts of the ſame perſuaſion to addreſs one another by: but it is more particularly uſed to denote the relation between monks of the ſame convent. In Engliſh, we more uſually ſay, *friar*, from the French word, *frere*, brother. Preachers alſo call their hearers, *my brethren*, or *my dear brethren*. This appellation is borrowed from the primitive Chriſtians, who all called each other *brothers*. But it is now principally uſed for ſuch of the religious as are not prieſts; thoſe in orders are generally ſtiled *father*, whereas the reſt are only ſimple brothers. Brother is alſo an appellation peculiarly given to certain orders of religious. See § 11—20.

(5.) BROTHER, in writers of the middle age, was uſed for *comes*, a count, or governor of a province.

(6.) BROTHERS, *fratres*, in the civil law, ſometimes comprehend ſiſters: as *Lucius & Titia, fratres; tres fratres, Titius, Mævius, & Seia.* By the civil law, brothers and ſiſters ſtand in the ſecond degree of conſanguinity; by the canon law, they are in the firſt degree.—By the Moſaic law, the brother of a man who died without iſſue was obliged to marry the widow of the deceaſed. *Deuter.* xxv. 7.

(7.) BROTHER, FOSTER, thoſe who ſuck the ſame nurſe. The French call them *freres du lait*, or brothers of the milk.

(8.) BROTHERS, GERMAN. See GERMAN.

(9.) BROTHERS IN LAW. See AFFINITY, § 3.

(10.) BROTHERS OF ARMS, an appellation given thoſe who contract a kind of fraternity in war, obliging themſelves to the mutual ſervice and aſſiſtance of each other. In the military orders, the knights are alſo called *brothers*.

(11.) BROTHERS OF AVE MARIA. See SERVITES.

(12.) BROTHERS OF CHARITY. See BILLETINS.

(13.) BROTHERS OF DEATH, thoſe of the order of St Paul, ſo named from the figure of a death's head which they always had about them.

(14.) BROTHERS OF PENITENCE, a name given to the Beguins. See BEGUINS.

(15.) BROTHERS OF ST ALEXIS, in the low countries, were an order of perſons who attended on thoſe who lay dying, and took care of the burial of the dead.

(16.) BROTHERS OF THE ROSY CROSS. See ROSICRUCIANS.

(17.) BROTHERS, POOR, in the charity-houſe, a denomination given to decayed gentlemen, to the number of 80, who are ſubſiſted with diet, clothing, and lodging, on the eſtabliſhment. The poor brothers are to be gentlemen of deſcent, come to poverty, or decayed merchants, ſoldiers, or officers of the king's houſehold. The conditions of admiſſion are, that they have no eſtate for life worth 200l. nor coming in, *viis & mediis*, 24l. per annum; and that they be fifty years old, unleſs they have been maimed in the public ſervice; in which caſe, the age of forty ſuffices. They wear a livery gown within doors.

(18.) BROTHERS, PYED, a name given to monks, whoſe habit was partly black, and partly white.

(19.) BROTHERS, SERVING, *fratres clientes*, a claſs of knights in the order of Malta, conſiſting of ſuch as cannot give proof of their nobility.

(20.) BROTHERS, WHITE. See BRETHREN, § 4.

* BROTHERHOOD. *n. ſ.* [from *brother* and *hood*.] 1. The ſtate or quality of being a brother.

This deep diſgrace of *brotherhood*
Touches me deeper than you can imagine. *Shak.*
Finds *brotherhood* in thee no ſharper ſpur?
Shakeſpeare.

—So it be right to govern, whether you call it ſupreme fatherhood, or ſupreme *brotherhood*, will be all one, provided we know who has it. *Locke.* 2. An aſſociation of men for any purpoſe; a fraternity.—There was a fraternity of men at arms, called the *brotherhood* of St George, erected by parliament, conſiſting of thirteen the moſt noble and worthy perſons. *Davies.* 3. A claſs of men of the ſame kind.—He was ſometimes ſo engaged among the wheels, that not above half the poet appeared; at other times he became as conſpicuous as any of the *brotherhood*. *Addiſon.*

BROTHERHOUSE, a village in Lincolnſhire, 4 miles S. of Spalding.

BROTHER ISLE, a ſmall iſland on the coaſt of Shetland, in the Yell Sound. It contains only two families.

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BROTHER LOCH, a lake in Renfrewſhire, 3 m. in circumference, abounding with trouts and char.

(1.) * BROTHERLY. *adj.* [from *brother.*] Natural; ſuch as becomes or beſeems a brother.—He was a prieſt, and looked for a prieſt's reward; which was our *brotherly* love, and the good of our ſouls and bodies. *Bacon.*—

Though more our money than our cauſe,
Their *brotherly* aſſiſtance draws. *Denham.*

—They would not go before the laws, but follow them; obeying their ſuperiours, and embracing one another in *brotherly* piety and concord. *Addiſ.*

(2.) * BROTHERLY. *adv.* After the manner of a brother; with kindneſs and affection.—I ſpeak but *brotherly* of him; but ſhould I anatomize him to thee as he is, I muſt bluſh and weep. *Shakeſp.*

BROTHERTOFT, a village in Lincolnſhire, NW. of Boſton.

BROTHICK, or BROTHOCK, a ſmall river of Angus-ſhire, which runs through the pariſh of St Vigeans, and falls into the ſea at Aberbrothick, to which it gives name.

BROTHEUS, in the mythology, a ſon of Vulcan, ſaid to have been remarkably deformed; and on that account to have thrown himſelf into the abyſs of Mount Ætna.

BROTIL, *adj. obſ.* brittle. *Chaue.*

BROUTON, 4 m. from Giſborough, Yorkſh.

BROUAGE, a maritime town of France in the department of Lower Charente, and ci-devant province of Saintong. It conſiſts of 5 or 6 ſtreets which terminate in a great ſquare. It is famous for its ſalt-works, which are the fineſt in the kingdom. The ſalt is called *Bay Salt*, becauſe the town lies on a bay. It is 17 miles S. of Rochelle and 170 SW. of Paris. Lon. 1. 4. W. Lat. 45. 52. N.

BROUAGEOIS, a ci-devant territory of France, now included in the department of Lower Charente.

BROUCA, a town of Sicily, in the Val di Noto.

BROUCH, *n. ſ. obſ.* a jewel.

BROUCK, BRUCK, or BRUGG, a town of Switzerland, in the county of Argow.

BROUDRED, *adj. obſ.* embroidered. *Chaue.*

BROUERSHAVEN, or BROWERSHAVEN, a port town of Zealand, in the N. ſide of the iſland of Schonen, ſeated on a bay; 9 m. SW. of Helvoetſluys. Lon. 3. 35. E. Lat. 51. 50. N.

(1.) BROUGH, a fiſhing town on the coaſt of Caithneſs, cloſe by Dunnet Head, where there is a harbour well ſheltered from every wind but the NW. and which (ſays Mr Jolly, miniſter of Dunnet,) might at a ſmall expence be rendered ſecure againſt it too, by throwing a pier from the land to a large rock about 100 yards from the ſhore, to which there is already a natural ridge of large ſtones, though not ſufficiently high to keep back the ſea at high water. Mr Knox, during his tour, was much taken with this harbour, and thought the executing ſuch a pier an object worthy of attention; as Brough is contiguous to the beſt fiſhing ground, S. of the Pentland Frith. *Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc.* XI. 247.

(2.) BROUGH, a town in Weſtmoreland, ſeated under Stanmore hill, 6 m. from Appleby and 259 from London. It was formerly a place of great note, being a Roman fortreſs; but is now much decayed. It has a caſtle, lately rebuilt and an ancient fort called *Cæſar's Tower*. It is divided into two, the *Upper* and *Lower*, and has a market on Thurſd. and a fair Thurſd. before Whitſunday. Lon. 2. 50. W. Lat. 54. 40. N.

(3.) BROUGH, in Holderneſs, Yorkſhire.

BROUGHAM, near Penrith, Weſtmoreland.

BROUGHSHANE, a village of Ireland, in the county of Antrim, 95 miles from Dublin.

* BROUGHT. [*participle paſſive* of bring.] The Turks forſook the walls, and could not be *brought* on again to the aſſault. *Knolles.*—The inſtances *brought* by our author are but ſlender proofs. *Locke.*

(1.) BROUGHTON, a pariſh of Scotland, in the county of Tweeddale, 4 m. long and 3 broad, conſiſting of two ridges of hills with a valley between them. The whole landed property of it, worth about L. 700 a-year, belongs to the R. H. Robert M'Queen of Braxfield, the preſent Lord Juſtice Clerk. The ſoil is generally a deep wet clay, which produces good crops in dry ſeaſons, and the climate is healthy. The population, in 1792, as ſtated by the rev. Mr Gray in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 264. It had decreaſed 103, ſince 1755, owing to the enlargement of farms and pulling down cottages. There were above 2000 ſheep, 200 black cattle, and 80 horſes at that period, and 400 acres were in tillage, 300 ſown with corn, 60 with bear, 30 with peas, 10 with potatoes, and 30 with graſs. All the reſt is laid out in paſture. The exports are corn, cattle and wool to a conſiderable amount. There are ruins of 10 ancient caſtles in the pariſh, in one of which the uſurper Macbeth is ſaid to have reſided.

(2.) BROUGHTON, a remarkably neat village in the above pariſh, (N° 1.) containing 20 houſes, and 97 inhabitants, in 1792. It was all rebuilt by the laſt proprietor, James Dickſon, Eſq; of Edrum. It has a fair Oct. 4.

(3.) BROUGHTON, a village near Edinburgh, on the NE. ſide of the New Town.

(4.) BROUGHTON, Thomas, a learned divine, and one of the original writers of the Biographia Britannica, was born at London, July 5th, 1704, in the pariſh of St Andrew, Holborn; of which his father was miniſter. At an early age he was ſent to Eton ſchool, where he ſoon diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his acute genius, and ſtudious diſpoſition. He removed, about 1722, to the univerſity of Cambridge, where he ſtudied mathematics, under the famous profeſſor Sanderſon, and acquired a knowledge of the modern languages.—In 1727 he was made A. B. and admitted to deacon's orders. In 1728, he was ordained prieſt, and took the degree of M. A. when he removed to the curacy of Offley, in Hertfordſhire. In 1739, he was inſtituted rector of Stepington, appointed chaplain to the D. of Bedford, and ſoon after was choſen reader to the Temple, by which he became known to Biſhop Sherlock, who conceived ſo high an opinion of his merit, that, in 1744, he appointed him vicar of Bedminſter, and not long after prebendary of Bedminſter, and Redcliff. Upon receiving this preferment, he removed from London to Briſtol, where he married the daughter of Thomas Harris, clerk of that city, by whom he had 7 children, ſix of whom ſurvived him.

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him. He refided on his living till his death, 21ſt Dec. 1774, in the 71ſt year of his age. From his quitting the univerſity till he was conſiderably advanced in life, he was engaged in a variety of publications, of which a liſt is given in the Biographia Britannica, 2d edition. Sometime before his death, he compoſed "A ſhort view of the principles upon which Chriſtian churches require, of their reſpective clergy, ſubſcription to eſtabliſhed articles of religion;" but this work never appeared in print. He poſſeſſed, likewiſe, no inconſiderable talent for poetry, as is evident from many MS. poems found among his papers; and particularly from two unfiniſhed tragedies, both written at the age of 17. During his reſidence in London, he enjoyed the eſteem and friendſhip of moſt of the literary men of his time. He was a great lover of muſic, particularly the ancient; which introduced him to the acquaintance of Mr Handel; whom he furniſhed with the words for many of his compoſitions. In his public character, Mr Broughton was diſtinguiſhed by an active zeal for the Chriſtian cauſe, joined with moderation. In private life, he was devoted to the happineſs of his family; and was of a mild, cheerful, and liberal temper. This diſpoſition, which is not always united with eminent literary abilities, attended him to his grave. In 1778, a poſthumus "volume of ſermons, on ſelect ſubjects," was publiſhed by his ſon, the rev. Thomas Broughton, M. A. vicar of Tiverton, near Bath.

(5—21.) BROUGHTON, the name of 17 ſmall towns or villages in England; viz. 1. in Bucks, 2 m. E. of Aylesbury; 2. in ditto, between Woburn and Newport: 3. in Hampſhire, near the Wallops: 4. in Hertfordſhire, near Hoddeſdon: 5. in Huntingdonſhire, 4 miles S. of Ramſey; 6. in Lancaſhire, 5 miles from Preſton; 7. in ditto, 4 m. NW. of Ulverſton; 8. in Lincolnſhire, near Glandford bridge: 9. in Northamptonſhire, near Kettering: 10. in Oxfordſhire, near Banbury: 11. in Shropſhire, 4 m. from Wem: 12. in ditto, in the pariſh of Wurthen: 13. in Staffordſhire 5 miles NW. of Eccleſhall: 14. in Warwickſhire, adjoining to Whitchurch: 15. in Wilts, between Bradford and Lacock: 16. in Yorkſhire, 5 miles SW. of Skipton: and 17. in ditto, 3 m. SE. of Stockeſley. It alſo makes part of the names of other 10 villages, viz.

(22.) BROUGHTON-ASHLEY, in Leiceſterſhire, 4 miles N. of Lutterworth.

(23.) BROUGHTON-CASTLE, in Cumberland, E. of Penrith.

(24.) BROUGHTON-CHURCH, in Derbyſhire, 4 miles E. of Daberton.

(25.) BROUGHTON, GREAT, a town near Cockermouth in Cumberland.

(26.) BROUGHTON HACKETS, a village 3 m. E. of Worceſter.

(27.) BROUGHTON, LITTLE, near GREAT BROUGHTON, (N° 25.)

(28.) BROUGHTON, NETHER, in Leiceſterſhire.

(29.) BROUGHTON ON THE SANDS, on the Solway Frith, in Cumberland.

(30.) BROUGHTON, OVER, in Nottinghamſhire.

(31.) BROUGHTON-POGES, in Oxfordſhire.

(1.) BROUGHTY, [from *Bargh*, a ſecurity, and *Tay*,] a diſtrict on the coaſt of Forfarſhire, about 4 m. E. from Dundee, and one N. from the coaſt of Fife.

(2.) BROUGHTY CASTLE, an ancient fort in the above diſtrict, formerly a ſcene of many warlike deeds, but now verging faſt to ruin. The earlieſt mention made of it is by Hector Boece in 1492. In 1547, it was ſeized by the Engliſh, under the D. of Somerſet, during the minority of Edward VI. and filled with an Engliſh garriſon. Upon the Duke's return to England, it was blockaded by the E. of Arran, then regent of Scotland, from Oct. 1ſt, 1547, to 1ſt Jan. 1548, when he was obliged to raiſe the ſiege, after loſing one of his beſt generals, and all his ordnance. It was ſoon after attacked by the E. of Argyll, who was likewiſe repulſed. It was next attacked by 3 French regiments under D'Eſſe, and as many German troops, who all met with ſimilar fate. At laſt the ſupplies from England of proviſions, arms, and ammunition failing, the Engliſh garriſons, in Broughty Caſtle and the fort Balgillo, were obliged to ſurrender to the allied army of Scots, Germans, and French, under Des Thermes, on the 24th Feb. 1550.

To BROUILLER, *v. n.* [French,] in the manege, to plunge; to appear in diſorder.

BROUKHUSIUS, Jonas, or John BROEKHUIZEN, a diſtinguiſhed writer in Holland, was born Nov. 20, 1649, at Amſterdam, where his father was a clerk to the admiralty. He learned Latin under Hadrian Junius, and made a prodigious progreſs in literature; but, his father dying when he was very young, he was placed with an apothecary at Amſterdam, with whom he lived ſome years. Not liking this profeſſion, he went to the army, where his behaviour raiſed him to the rank of lieutenant-captain; and, in 1674, he was ſent with his regiment to America, in the fleet under admiral de Ruyter, but returned to Holland the ſame year. In 1678, he was ſent to the garriſon at Utrecht, where he contracted a friendſhip with the celebrated Grævius; and here, though of an excellent temper, he had the misfortune to be ſo deeply engaged in a duel, that according to the laws of Holland, his life was forfeited; but Grævius wrote immediately to Nicolas Heinſius, who obtained his pardon from the Stadtholder. Not long after that, he became captain of one of the companies then at Amſterdam; which placed him in an eaſy ſituation, and gave him leiſure to purſue his ſtudies. His company being diſbanded in 1697, a penſion was granted him; upon which he retired to a country houſe near Amſterdam, where he ſaw but little company, and ſpent his time among books. He died Dec. 15th 1707. As a claſſical editor, he is diſtinguiſhed by his labours upon Propertius and Tibullus, publiſhed in 1702, and 1708. He was alſo an excellent Latin poet, though the authors of the *Journal de Trevoux* alledged he was only "a poet by art and not by nature." A volume of his poems was publiſhed at Utrecht, 1684, in 12mo; and an elegant edition of them was given by Van Hoogſtraeten at Amſterdam, 1711, in 4to, who alſo publiſhed his Dutch poems, in 1712, in 8vo, and prefixed his life, extracted from Peter Burman's funeral oration upon him. Broukhuſius was alſo editor of the Latin works of Sannazarius and Palearius.

* *To*

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* *To* BROUKIN, *v. n. obſ.* To brook; to bear. *Chaucer.*

BROUNCKER, William, lord viſcount of Caſtle Lyons, in Ireland, and the firſt preſident of the Royal Society, was the ſon of Sir Wm. Brouncker, and born about 1620. He was diſtinguiſhed by his knowledge of the mathematics, and by the conſiderable poſts he enjoyed after the reſtoration; being chancellor to the queen, and keeper of her great ſeal, and one of the commiſſioners of the navy, &c. He wrote, 1. Experiments of the recoiling of guns. 2. An algebraical paper upon the ſquare of the hyperbola; and ſeveral letters to Abp. Uſher. He died in 1684.

BROUNGELLY, a village in Cornwall, ſeated on a hill, N. of Leſkard.

BROUNKER. See BROUNCKER.

BROUNRIGG, a village in Cumberland, near Abby-Holm.

BROUSSON, Claude, an eminent French proteſtant martyr, born at Niſmes, in 1647. He was an advocate and diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his pleading at Caſtres and Toulouſe. The deputies of the proteſtants aſſembled at his houſe after their churches were demoliſhed, and reſolved to continue to meet there. The execution of this reſolution, however, as might have been expected, occaſioned freſh perſecutions, and maſſacres. Brouſſon retired to Briſmes, and afterwards to Geneva and Lauſanne; whence he travelled through the different proteſtant ſtates, ſoliciting their aſſiſtance and compaſſion to their ſuffering brethren in France. Returning to France, he ventured to preach at Cevennes and in ſeveral provinces: in conſequence of which, he was apprehended at Oleron, in 1698, and being convicted of having preached in defiance of the edicts, was broke upon the wheel. He was a man of great eloquence and learning, and wrote many books in favour of the Calviniſts: particularly, 1. The State of the Reformed in France: 2. Letters to the Clergy in France: 3. Letters from the Proteſtants in France, to all other Proteſtants; and, 4. Remarks upon Amelote's tranſlation of the New Teſtament. The States of Holland gave him a penſion of 400 florins; and upon his death, added 600 more, (making 1000 in all) as a penſion to his widow.

BROUWER, Adrian, a famous Dutch painter, born in 1608, of poor parentage. Francis Hals, under whom he proved an inimitable artiſt, took him from begging in the ſtreets. His ſubjects were copied from nature, but taken from low life; ſuch as droll converſations, drunken brawls, boors at cards, or ſurgeons dreſſing the wounded. Brouwer was apprehended at Antwerp as a ſpy; where, being diſcovered by Rubens, he procured his liberty, took him home, clothed him, and endeavoured to acquaint the public with his merit; but the levity of his temper made him quit his benefactor; and he died in 1638, deſtroyed by a diſſolute courſe of life, in his 30th year.

(1.) * BROW. *n. ſ.* [*brona*, Sax.] 1. The arch of hair over the eye.—

'Tis now the hour which all to reſt allow,
And ſleep ſits heavy upon every *brow*.
Dryden.

2. The forehead.—

She could have run, and waddled about;
For even the day before ſhe broke her *brow*.
Shakeſpeare.

So we ſome antique hero's ſtrength,
Learn by his launce's weight and length;
As theſe vaſt beams expreſs the beaſt,
Whoſe ſhady *brow* alive they dreſt. *Waller.*

3. The general air of the countenance.—

Then call them to our preſence, face to face,
And frowning *brow* to *brow*. *Shakeſpeare.*

Though all things foul would bear the *brows* of grace,
Yet grace muſt ſtill look ſo. *Shakeſpeare.*

4. The edge of any high place.—The earl, nothing diſmayed, came forwards that day into a little village, called Stoke, and there encamped that night, upon the *brow* or hanging of a hill. *Bacon.*—On the *brow* of the hill, beyond that city, they were ſomewhat perplexed by eſpying the French ambaſſador, with the king's coach and others attending him. *Wotton.*—

Then with fire, and hoſtile arms,
Fearleſs aſſault; and, to the *brow* of heav'n
Purſuing, drive them out from God and bliſs.
Milton.

(2.) BROW, or EYE-BROWS. See ANATOMY, § 567.

(3.) BROW, in geography, a place in Dumfrieſſhire, in the pariſh of Ruthwell, where there is a chalybeate ſpring, the water of which is beneficial in ſtomachic complaints. When mixed with brandy, it aſſumes the colour of ink.

* *To* BROW. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To bound; to limit; to be at the edge of.—

Tending my flocks hard by i' th' hilly crofts,
That *brow* this bottom glade. *Milton.*

BROWALLIA, in botany, a genus of the angioſpermia order, in the didynamia claſs of plants. There are two ſpecies: viz.

1. BROWALLIA DEMISSA, with a ſingle flower upon each footſtalk. The ſeeds were ſent to Mr Miller from Panama. It uſually grows about two feet high, and ſpreads out into lateral branches on every ſide of the ſtalk, garniſhed with oval leaves which are entire, and have ſhort footſtalks. Towards the end of the branches, the flowers are produced ſingly upon pretty long footſtalks, ariſing from the wing of the leaf. Theſe are of a light blue colour, ſometimes inclining to a purple or red; and there are often 3 colours of flowers on the ſame plant. They flower in July, Auguſt, and September; and the ſeeds are ripe in 5 or 6 weeks after.

2. BROWALLIA ELATA, with one or many flowers on each foot-ſtalk, is a native of Peru. The ſtalk is twice the ſize of that of the firſt, and appears ſomewhat ſhrubby; the leaves upon the flower branches are ſmooth: the footſtalks have ſome with one flower, others with 3, and others with 5, of a deep violet colour. As both ſpecies of browallia are annual plants, they muſt be raiſed from ſeeds, which are to be ſown on a hot-bed; but they may be tranſplanted in June, into the borders of the flower garden; where, if the weather proves warm, they will flower and perfect ſeeds; but leaſt theſe ſhould fail, there ſhould be a plant or two kept in the ſtove to ſecure ſeeds.

BROW-ANTLER, among ſportſmen, the branch of a deer's horn next the tail.

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* *To* BROWBEAT. *v. a.* [from *brow* and *beat.*] To depreſs with ſevere brows, and ſtern or lofty looks.—It is not for a magiſtrate to frown upon, and *browbeat* thoſe who are hearty and exact in their miniſtry; and with a grave nod, to call a reſolved zeal, want of prudence. *South.*—What man will voluntarily expoſe himſelf to the imperious *browbeatings* and ſcorns of great men? *L'Eſtrange.*—Count Tariff endeavoured to *browbeat* the plaintiff, while he was ſpeaking; but though he was not ſo impudent as the count, he was every whit as ſturdy. *Addiſon.*—I will not be *browbeaten* by the ſupercilious looks of my adverſaries. *Arbuthnot and Pope.*

BROWBEATING, *n. ſ.* The act of depreſſing with ſevere looks.

* BROWBOUND. *adj.* [from *brow* and *bound.*] Crowned; having the head encircled as with a diadem.—

In that day's feat,
He prov'd the beſt man i' th' field, and for his meed,
Was *brow-bound* with the oak. *Shakeſpeare.*

BROWERSHAVEN. See BROUERSHAVEN.

(1.) * BROWN. *adj.* [*brun*, Sax.] The name of a colour, compounded of black and any other colour.—*Brown*, in High Dutch, is called *braun*; in the Netherlands, *bruyun*; in French, *coleur brune*; in Italian *bruno. Peacham.*—I like the new tire within excellently, if the hair were a little *browner. Shakeſpeare.*—

From whence high Ithaca o'erlooks the floods,
Brown with o'ercharging ſhades and pendent woods. *Pope.*

Long untravell'd heaths,
With deſolation *brown*, he wanders waſte.
Thomſon.

(2.) BROWN, among dyers, painters, &c. a duſky colour inclining towards redneſs. Of this colour there are various ſhades or degrees, diſtinguiſhed by different appellations; ſuch as Spaniſh brown, a ſad brown, a tawny brown, the London brown, a clove brown, &c.—SPANISH BROWN is a dark dull red, of a horſe-fleſh colour. It is an earth; and is of great uſe among painters, being generally uſed as the firſt and priming colour that they lay upon any kind of timber-work in houſe-painting. That which is of the deepeſt colour, and freeſt from ſtones, is the beſt. Though this is of a dirty brown colour, yet it is much uſed, not to colour any garment, unleſs it be an old man's gown; but to ſhadow vermilion, or to lay upon any dark ground behind a picture, or to ſhadow yellow berries in the darkeſt places, when there is no lake, &c. It is beſt and brighteſt when burnt in the fire till it be red-hot; although, in colouring any hare, horſe, dog, or the like, it ſhould not be burnt: but, for other uſes, it is beſt when it is burnt; as for colouring wood, poſts, bodies of trees, or any thing elſe of wood, or any dark ground of a picture.

(3.) BROWN, in geography, a village in Somerſetſhire, near Charhampton.

(4.) BROWN, Edward, the ſon of Sir Thomas, (N° 9.) phyſician to king Charles II. and preſident of the royal college at London. He was born in 1642; and ſtudied at Cambridge, and afterwards at Merton college, Oxford. He then travelled; and at his return publiſhed a brief account of his travels in Hungary, Servia, Bulgaria, Macedonia, Theſſaly, Auſtria, Styria, Carinthia, Carniola, Fruilia, &c. He alſo publiſhed an account of travels through a great part of Germany; and joined his name to thoſe of many other eminent men, in a tranſlation of Plutarch's lives. He was acquainted with Hebrew, was a critic in Greek, and no man of his age wrote better Latin. High Dutch, Italian, French, &c. he ſpoke and wrote with as much eaſe as his mother tongue. King Charles ſaid of him, that "he was as learned as any of the college, and as well-bred as any at court." He died Auguſt 27th 1708.

(5.) BROWN, George, Bp. of Dunkeld, flouriſhed about the end of the 14th century. He ſtudied grammar at Dundee and philoſophy at St Andrews; and was afterwards appointed chancellor of Aberdeen. Being ſent to Rome by king James III. on ſome buſineſs relative to the ſee of Glaſgow, he became acquainted with the college of cardinals, and particularly the vice-chancellor Roderick Borja, who, by his intereſt with Pope Sextus IV. got Brown raiſed to the ſee of Dunkeld. He was a man of learning and public ſpirit, but has been accuſed of ambition and rapacity. He got his dioceſe greatly enlarged; built Clunie caſtle, and began the ſtone bridge acroſs the Tay at Dunkeld; but only lived to ſee one arch completed. He died Jan. 14, 1514; and was ſucceeded in his biſhopric by the celebrated Gavin Douglas, the tranſlator of Virgil.

(6.) BROWN, John, D. D. a clergyman of the church of England, and an ingenious writer, was born at Rothbury, in 1715. His father John Brown, was a native of Scotland, of the Browns of Coalſtown near Haddington. Young John was ſent in 1732 to Cambridge, and entered of St John's college, under the tuition of Dr Tunſtall. After taking the degree of A. B. with great reputation, (his name being at the head of the liſt of *Wranglers*,) he received both deacon's and prieſt's orders, and was appointed minor canon and lecturer of the cathedral church. In 1739 he went to Cambridge to take his degree of A. M. In 1745 he diſtinguiſhed himſelf as a volunteer in the king's ſervice, and behaved with great intrepidity at the ſiege of Carliſle. After the defeat of the rebels, when ſeveral of them were tried at the aſſizes held at Cariſle in ſummer 1746, he preached at the cathedral church of that city two excellent diſcourſes, on the mutual connection between religious truth and civil freedom; and between ſuperſtition, tyranny, irreligion, and licentiouſneſs. Mr Brown's attachment to the Whig party procured him the friendſhip of Dr Oſbaldeſton, who was the only perſon that continued to be his friend through life; the peculiarities of Mr Brown's temper having produced quarrels with every one elſe. When Dr Oſbaldeſton was advanced to the ſee of Carliſle, he appointed Mr Brown one of his chaplains. Mr Brown wrote about this time a poem, intitled *Honour*, inſcribed to lord viſcount Lonſdale. His next poetical production was his *Eſſay on Satire*; which was of conſiderable advantage to him both in point of fame and fortune. It was addreſſed to Dr Warburton; to whom it was ſo acceptable, that he took Mr Brown into his friend-

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ſhip, and introduced him to Ralph Allen, Eſq.; of Prior Park, near Bath, who behaved to him with great generoſity, and at whoſe houſe he reſided for ſome time. In 1751, Mr Brown publiſhed his *Eſſays on the Characteriſtics of Lord Shaftesbury*, &c. dedicated to Ralph Allen, Eſq. This was received with great applauſe, though ſeveral perſons attempted to anſwer it. In 1754, he was promoted by the earl of Hardwicke to the living of Great Horkeſley in Eſſex. In 1755, he took the degree of D. D. at Cambridge, and publiſhed his tragedy of Barbaroſſa; which, under the management of Mr Garrick, was acted with conſiderable applauſe; but when publiſhed, gave riſe to a variety of ſtrictures and cenſures. This tragedy introduced our author to the acquaintance of that eminent actor; by whoſe favour he had a 2d tragedy, named *Athelſtan*, repreſented at Drury-Lane, which was alſo well received by the public. In 1757, appeared his famous *Eſtimate of the Manners and Principles of the Times*. The reception which this work met with was very flattering: no fewer than 7 editions of it having been printed in little more than a year. Its deſign was to ſhow, that a vain, luxurious, and ſelfiſh effeminacy in the higher ranks of life marked the character of the age; and to point out the effects and ſources of this effeminacy. Several antagoniſts appeared, ſome of whom were neither deſtitute of learning nor ingenuity; though Dr Brown himſelf aſſerted that Mr Wallace, a clergyman of Edinburgh, was the only candid and decent adverſary that appeared againſt him. The teſtimony given by M. de Voltaire to the effect which the Eſtimate had on the conduct of the nation, is very honourable to Dr Brown. "When Marſhal Richelieu, in 1756 (ſays that celebrated writer;) laid ſiege to Port Mahon, the capital of Minorca, the Britiſh ſent out admiral Byng with a ſtrong naval force to drive the French fleet off the iſland, and raiſe the ſiege. At this time there appeared a book, intitled *An Eſtimate of the Manners of the Times*; of which there was no leſs than 5 editions printed off in London in the ſpace of 3 months. In this treatiſe the author proves that the Engliſh nation was entirely degenerated;—that it was near its ruin;—that its inhabitants were no longer ſo robuſt and hardy as in former times;—and that its ſoldiers had loſt their courage.—This work rouſed the ſenſibility of the Engliſh nation, and produced the following conſequences. They attacked, almoſt at one and the ſame time, all the ſea coaſts of France, and her poſſeſſions in Aſia, Africa, and America." In 1758, Dr Brown publiſhed the 2d volume of his Eſtimate containing additional remarks on the ruling manners and principles, and on their public effects. The deſign of this volume was, to retract miſtakes, to prove points formerly affirmed; to illuſtrate particulars not explained; to reply to objections; and to diſplay the conſequences which might be deduced from his principles. But unfortunately the Doctor's ſelf-importance, which gave offence in his firſt volume, broke out in the 2d with ſtill greater violence. The conſequence was, that he expoſed himſelf to general cenſure; which occaſioned the real excellencies of his work to be much overlooked. The periodical critics, whom he had needleſsly abuſed, treated him with uncommon ſeverity; and ſuch a multitude of antagoniſts roſe againſt him, that he ſeems to have been deeply impreſſed, when he retired for a while into the country. From the country, however, he wrote, in a ſeries of letters to a noble friend, "*An Explanatory Defence of the Eſtimate of the Manners and Principles of the Times*; being an appendix to that work, occaſioned by the clamours lately raiſed againſt it among certain ranks of men." Though Dr Brown thus diſtinguiſhed himſelf as a political writer, he was advanced to no higher dignity in the church: only Dr Oſbaldeſton procured him the rectory of St Nicholas in Newcaſtle upon Tyne. In 1760, he publiſhed *an Additional Dialogue of the Dead, between Pericles and Ariſtides*; being a ſequel to a dialogue of lord Lyttleton's between Pericles and Coſmo. One deſign of this additional dialogue was to vindicate the meaſures of Mr Pitt, againſt whoſe adminiſtration lord Lyttleton had thrown out ſome hints. Dr Brown's next publication was *The cure of Saul*, a ſacred ode; which was followed by "A Diſſertation on the Riſe, Union, and Power, the Progreſſions, Separations, and Corruptions of Poetry and Muſic;" both in 1763. A number of ſtrictures on this laſt piece were publiſhed; and the Doctor defended himſelf in a treatiſe entitled *Remarks on ſome Obſervations on Dr Brown's Diſſertations on Poetry and Muſic*. In 1764 he publiſhed, in 8vo, "The Hiſtory of the Riſe and Progreſs of Poetry through its ſeveral Species;" which is merely the ſubſtance of the Diſſertation. The ſame year he publiſhed a volume of ſermons, dedicated to his patron Bp. Oſbaldeſton. In the beginning of 1765, he publiſhed *Thoughts on Civil Liberty, Licentiouſneſs, and Faction*. At the concluſion of this work the author preſcribed a mode of education, upon which Dr Prieſtley made remarks at the end of his "Eſſay on the Courſe of a liberal Education for civil and active Life." The ſame year he publiſhed a ſermon *on the Female Character and Education*, preached 16th May 1765, before the guardians of the aſylum for deſerted female orphans. His laſt publication was in 1766, "A Letter to the rev. Dr Lowth, occaſioned by his late Letter to the Right Rev. Author of the Divine Legation of Moſes." This was occaſioned by Dr Lowth's having *clearly*, though *indirectly*, pointed at Dr Brown as one of the extravagant aduiators of biſhop Warburton. Beſides theſe works, Dr Brown publiſhed a poem on Liberty, and 2 or 3 anonymous pamphlets. At the end of ſeveral of his later writings, he advertiſed his deſign of publiſhing *Chriſtian Principles of Legiſlation*, but was prevented from executing it, (though the work appears to have been completed,) by the circumſtances now to be narrated. In 1765, while Dr Dumareſq reſided in Ruſſia, to which he had been invited in 1764, to give his advice for the regulating of ſeveral ſchools, which the empreſs intended to erect, he received a letter from a lady of diſtinguiſhed character in England, recommending Dr Brown as a proper correſpondent on the occaſion. Dr Dumareſq then wrote to Dr Brown, telling him the occaſion of his application, and the difficulties that occurred. He had imagined that nothing

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more would be wanted than what concerned classical learning, and a general foundation for the sciences. But on his arrival he found that a much more extensive scheme was required; and such as included matters military and naval, civil and commercial. Having stated his difficulties in executing this plan to Dr Brown, the latter proposed a scheme still more extensive; and which was no less than a general plan of civilization throughout the whole Russian empire. The Doctor's letter was laid before the empress, who was so pleased with it that she immediately invited him to Russia. He accepted the invitation, and procured the king's leave to go; 1000l. were ordered for his expence, and he actually received 500l. But when he was on the point of setting out, an attack of the gout and rheumatism, to which he had been long subject, so impaired his health, that his friends dissuaded him from going. The money was returned excepting 97l. 6s. which had been expended in necessaries for the intended journey. But though he thus declined the journey, a long letter which he afterwards wrote to the empress, and which does honour to his abilities, shows that he had not abandoned his intention of being serviceable. The affair, however, greatly agitated his mind; and his being obliged at length to give up the journey, must have been no small disappointment to a man of his sanguine temper. This disappointment, concurring with the general state of his health, was followed by a dejection of spirits; in consequence of which he put an end to his life on the 23d of Sept. 1766, in the 51st year of his age. On the morning of that day his servant came into his bed-chamber, and asked him what sort of night he had had? to which he replied, "A pretty good one." The servant having quitted the bedside for a few minutes, heard a noise in the Doctor's throat, which he imagined to be owing to some obstruction occasioned by phlegm. Going to assist his master, he found him speechless, and bleeding profusely, having cut the jugular vein with a razor; and this he had done so effectually, that death speedily ensued. Mrs Gilpin of Carlisle, soon after Dr Brown's decease, wrote in the following terms in a letter to a friend. "His distemper was a frenzy, to which he had by fits been long subject; to my own knowledge above 30 years. Had it not been for Mr Farish frequently, and once for myself, the same event would have happened to him long ago. It was no premeditated purpose in him; for he abhorred the thought of self-murder; and in bitterness of soul expressed his fears to me, that one time or another some ready mischief might present itself to him, at a time when he was wholly deprived of his reason."

(7.) Brown, John, M. D. author of the Brunonian or new system of medicine, was born A. D. 1735, in the parish of Bonkle in Berwickshire, in a village near Dunse. His parents were people of honest characters, but far from being in affluence. His father dying, while he was young, and his mother's second husband being a weaver, it was intended to breed him to the same profession, but young Brown having already given evidence of uncommon genius, as well as intense application, while attending the grammar school of Dunse, under the celebrated Mr Cruickshank, a lady in that neighbourhood took him under her patronage, and sent him to the Univerfity of Edinburgh to study divinity; being determined that such a prodigy of genius, as he was even then esteemed, should not be thrown away upon a mechanical employment. This lady as well as Mr Brown's parents being Seceders, it was resolved that his abilities should be exerted in favour of the principles of the secession, as soon as his studies were completed. The pious intentions however of this benevolent lady were frustrated by an incident, which Dr Beddoes relates at large, with suitable comments, in his observations, introductory to the last edit. of *Dr Brown's Elem. of Med.* (p. xlii—xlv.) The circumstance was simply this. He was summoned before the kirk session, for having heard sermon in the established church, and unwilling to submit to ecclesiastical censure, for this venial fault, he chose rather to leave his old friends, and join the establishment. As yet, however, his zeal for religion had not abated, and the deistical writings of Mr Hume making some noise about this time, he expressed no small indignation against them and their author; although not many years afterwards he became a complete convert to that fashionable and still too prevalent system. He never went farther in divinity, than delivering one probationary sermon in the hall of the University. He returned to Dunse in 1758, and acted for a year as usher or assistant to his late teacher; under whom he gave fresh evidences of his prodigious memory, as well as critical judgment in the Latin language. In the end of 1759, he settled in Edinburgh with the double view of teaching Latin and studying physic. He addressed a letter in Latin to each of the medical professors, all of whom being apprized of his merits as a classical scholar, presented him with tickets of admission to their lectures gratis. But none of them seemed to entertain a higher opinion of his classical powers, than the late celebrated Dr Cullen, who not only employed him as a private instructor in his own family, but took every opportunity of recommending him to others, particularly to students, who wished to graduate, but were diffident of their knowledge of the learned languages. From such pupils Mr Brown received very genteel fees, not only for *grinding* them, as it is called, (i. e. for preparing them to give proper answers, in classical Latin, at the public examinations,) but also for translating their inaugural dissertations, and sometimes for composing them. His fame and his emoluments now increased so rapidly, that finding his income could enable him to maintain a family genteelly, he, in 1765, married Miss Lamond, a young lady descended from a respectable line of Burgesses in Edinburgh, but without any fortune. Mrs Brown not long after taking up a boarding-house, her husband's high reputation soon crouded it with respectable boarders. But whether it was, that, from perhaps too genteel a spirit, œconomy was not sufficiently attended to, or that some of the students, after running deep in arrears, went off without paying, or from these and other causes conjoined, it is certain, that little profit was ultimately made of this branch of business. One gentleman in particular

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ticular went off indebted to Mr Brown above L. 150, of which he never received a ſhilling, and many others owing him ſmaller ſums. Theſe loſſes obliged Mr Brown at laſt to ſtop payment about 1770. About this time, too, that warmth of attachment which had hitherto ſubſiſted between him and Dr Cullen, and which was ſo great that he had named three of his children after the Dr and his family, began to cool. For this various reaſons have been aſſigned; ſuch as diſappointment of a profeſſor's chair in the univerſity, and of a ſeat in a certain literary ſociety, in both which caſes, Dr Cullen's influence is ſaid to have been exerted rather in oppoſition to, than in favour of Mr Brown's applications. Others aſcribe the rupture to Mr Brown's diſcovery and promulgation of his new doctrine, (See BRUNONIAN SYSTEM,) which they alledge was the ſole cauſe of Dr Cullen's oppoſition on theſe occaſions. Be that as it may, it is certain, that Mr Brown's income was by no means increaſed by his diſcovery. It was not to be expected, indeed, that a ſet of learned gentlemen would be ready to acknowledge all the former theories of the ſcience they profeſſed to teach, to have been erroneous, and at once become converts to his new doctrine. Neither could it be expected, that they would adviſe their pupils to apply for inſtruction in the dead languages, or for the tranſlation of their inaugural diſſertations, to the author of a new *medical hereſy*, ſo to ſpeak. Nor, indeed, did the diſreſpectful manner, in which Mr Brown now ſpoke of the medical profeſſors, in the lectures which he gave on his new ſyſtem, tend to conciliate their favour. "Like other reformers, (as Dr Beddoes juſtly remarks, p. lxiii.) who had to wreſtle with powerful oppoſition, he committed and ſuſtained injuſtice. Like them too, where his ſyſtem was concerned, he gradually loſt his ſenſe of equity." His claſſes were therefore never attended by very great numbers of ſtudents, nor were his patients by any means ſo numerous, as might have been expected from the ſurpriſing cures he performed upon ſome individuals, who applied to him in deſperate caſes, where the ordinary practice had failed. No phyſician, however, or public lecturer, was ever more beloved by his patients and pupils than Brown. The gratitude of the former, for being delivered from the gates of death, or what is worſe than death, *lunacy*, was inexpreſſible; and the attachment of the latter to his perſon, family, and doctrine, was beyond precedent. Of this they gave various inſtances. Their zeal for the doctrine, indeed, often carried them to the moſt imprudent lengths; of which Dr Jones has recorded, and Dr Beddoes quotes, an evidence, in the clandeſtine cure made, or attempted to be made, of a Mr Iſaacſon. Of their attachment to his perſon, we ſhall give one inſtance out of many. In the ſeſſion of 1779–80, a few of them, unknown to Brown, collected money among themſelves, to pay the uſual fees of a diploma from the univerſity of St Andrews; (where his merits, both as a medical teacher and linguiſt, were too well known, to render any examination neceſſary,) and ſurpriſed him, upon preſenting it to him, by thus making him a DOCTOR without his knowledge. Had not ſuch a circumſtance happened, it is highly probable he would have died without a degree, as he reſembled the celebrated anatomiſt, Mr John Hunter, in this reſpect, as well as in ſome others, that he paid no great reſpect to univerſities. But to ſhow that he was not inſenſible of the honour done him by his pupils, he took them over to St Andrews, and gave them and the profeſſors a genteel treat; upon which occaſion, while the glaſs and ſong were circulating freely after dinner, he wrote a ſhort but elegant and comprehenſive inaugural diſſertation, which he preſented to the profeſſors, ſaying "it was improper to take a degree without writing a theſis." And while he was writing it, he gave a proof how little trouble the compoſition coſt him, by correcting one of the ſongſters for ſinging an erroneous note in an old Scots ſong.—In the courſe of the year 1780, he publiſhed the firſt edition of his *Elementa Medicinæ*, in one vol. 12mo, dedicated to Sir John Eliot, M. D. and in 1784, he reprinted it, (but without any dedication,) in 2 vols 8vo, with conſiderable alterations and large additions. The Dr's affairs now haſtened to a criſis. His income not being equal to his expenditure, he was obliged, in ſpring 1785, to take ſhelter from creditors in the abbey of Holyroodhouſe; and, though a ſettlement was ſoon obtained with moſt of them, yet one more rigorous than the reſt incarcerated him in the Canongate jail, in Jan. 1786. On both theſe occaſions he was attended and ſympathiſed with by his pupils; who, upon his coming out of jail, gave a new proof of their attachment, by propoſing the plan of his clinical lectures, for which they took out freſh tickets. Dr Brown, in his greateſt diſtreſs, had a ſpirit above making application to his monied friends. The late Lord Gardenſtone, however, having heard of his diſtreſs, generouſly enabled him to execute the plan he had long had in contemplation, of ſettling in London, by preſenting him with 160 guineas. The Dr accordingly went up in the end of 1786, after having publiſhed his *Obſervations on the New and Old Syſtems of Medicine*: And having performed ſome capital cures upon patients who were able to reward him liberally, he was enabled within 4 months after his arrival, to ſend for his wife and family. But his income being uncertain, and his family expences very great, he was incarcerated in King's Bench priſon; though he was not long confined. In 1788, he publiſhed his *Elements of Medicine* in Engliſh, a work long wiſhed for, as the original Latin is in many parts ſo elegant, or, as others alledge, ſo *obſcure*, that it was thought nobody could do juſtice to the tranſlation but himſelf, although Dr Beddoes has ſince ventured to correct the Dr's tranſlation in his 2d edition. Dr Brown did not long ſurvive this labour, which he executed in a ſhorter time than the moſt of ordinary amanuenſes could have copied the work; and contrary to his uſual practice, without drinking any thing ſtronger than water with a very little wine in it. Whether he had exhauſted his ſtrength by this change of regimen, or whether (as is more probable, upon the principles of his own ſyſtem,) his uſual doſe of laudanum was rendered too great for the ſtate of his excitement, (ſo much lowered by his late abſtemouſneſs,) or the accumulated ſtate of his excitability, (See BRUNONI-

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AN, § 4, and EXCITABILITY,) it is difficult to say; but it is certain, that, after giving an introductory lecture on the 6th of Oct. 1788, and going to bed seemingly in ordinary health, he was found dead next morning. He was then in his 53d year. He left a widow and 8 children, 4 sons and 4 daughters, having had 13 in all. As to Dr Brown's character, we will not say, that he was without foibles, but his good properties, amongst those who were best acquainted with him, greatly overbalanced them. "He was," says a writer in the Analytical Review, "a man of infinite goodness of heart."—"He possessed a great mind, that supported him in all his distresses. He despised riches; detested every thing base, and possessed such openness of heart as to be liable to be taken in by every knave." The writer of this article can add, from personal knowledge, that he never knew a fonder parent, or a more affectionate husband. Lord Gardenstone comprehended much in few words, when he stiled Dr Brown, "a man of primitive manners." Dr Brown was twice elected president of the Royal Medical Society in 1776 and 1780. He was also elected Latin Secretary to the society of Scots Antiquaries: and he was the founder of a Lodge of Free Masons, stiled the ROMAN EAGLE, instituted in 1784, upon a new and original plan, never before attempted or thought of. His design was to conjoin instruction with amusement, by improving the brethren, (who at first were mostly students of physic,) in speaking Latin with ease and fluency; *that* being the only language spoken in the lodge, excepting by the interpreters, who explained what was said, when visitors came in. A funeral meeting of this lodge was held in honour of Dr Brown on the 30th Jan. 1789, with suitable music, and all the other solemnities usual on such occasions. An elegant funeral oration in Latin was delivered from the chair, by Thomas M'Grugar Esq; advocate, then master of the lodge; and an interpretation of it read by the secretary. A copy of the oration is preserved in the Scots Magazine. Dr Beddoes mentions, (p. xcix.) from Dr M'Donnel, that Dr Brown "designed a Latin elementary treatise of morality on philosophical principles—*Elementa Morum.*"—"We may fairly presume, (he adds) that it would have been original, luminous, and profound."—and he concludes, "the failure of Brown's design may be regretted as an heavy loss to literature." From this conclusion we cannot help expressing our dissent. Much as we admire Dr Brown's abilities, we do not think the world stands in need of any new system of morals, especially from authors of his particular way of thinking. The morality of the present age has not improved since the publication of the Ethics of Messrs Hume, Voltaire, and Rousseau. Dr Brown used to alledge, that "a principle of morals was not yet discovered;" but he never committed a greater mistake. It was discovered nearly 1800 years ago, not by a great man—not even by a *philosopher*—but by one, who though born and educated in one of the lowest stations of life, proved himself, by *this* alone, (were there no other proofs of superior excellency,) superior to all the philosophers that ever existed. "Do to others, as ye would that others should do to you," is an infallible rule of morality, applicable in all possible cases, and intelligible by the most ignorant.

(8.) BROWN, Isaac Hawkins, an ingenious English poet, born at Burton upon Trent, Jan. 21, 1705–6; of which place his father was the minister. He received his grammatical instruction first at Lichfield, then at Westminster; whence, at 16 years of age, he was removed to Trinity college Cambridge. He remained there till he had taken the degree of M. A. and about 1727, settled in Lincoln's Inn, where he devoted more of his time to the muses than to the law. He wrote several poems, particularly one on *Design and Beauty* which he addressed to Mr Highmore the painter, for whom he had a great friendship: and *The pipe of Tobacco*; in imitation of Cibber, Ambrose, Philips, Thomson, Young, Pope, and Swift, who were then all living. This is reckoned one of the most pleasing and popular of his performances. In 1743–4, he married the daughter of Dr Trimnell, archdeacon of Leicester. He was chosen twice to serve in parliament, in 1744, and 1748: both times for the borough of Wenlock in Shropshire, near which place he had a considerable estate, left by his maternal grandfather, Isaac Hawkins, Esq. In 1754, he published what was deemed his capital work, *De Animi Immortalitate*, in two books; in which, besides a most judicious choice of matter and arrangement, he is thought to have shown himself not a servile but happy imitator of Lucretius and Virgil. The great popularity of this poem produced several English translations of it; the best of which is that by Soame Jenyns, Esq. printed in his *Miscellanies*. Mr Brown intended to have added a 3d part, but left only a fragment. This excellent person died, after a lingering illness, in 1760, aged 55. In 1768, his son Hawkins Brown, Esq. obliged the world with an elegant edition of his father's poems, in large 8vo, to which is prefixed a print of the author, from a painting of Mr Highmore, engraved by Ravenet.

(9.) BROWN, Robert, a schismatic divine, the founder of the BROWNISTS, a numerous sect in the reign of Q. Elizabeth. He was the son of Mr Anthony Brown of Tolthrop in Rutlandshire; whose father obtained the singular privilege of wearing his cap in the king's presence, by a charter of Henry VIII. Robert was educated at Cambridge, and was afterwards schoolmaster in Southwark. About 1580, he began to promulgate his principles of dissent from the established church; and the following year preached at Norwich, where he soon accumulated a numerous congregation. He was violent in his abuse of the church of England; pretended to divine inspiration, and that he alone was the sure guide to heaven. His sect daily increasing, Dr Freake bishop of Norwich, with other ecclesiastical commissioners, called him before them. He was insolent to the court, and they committed him to the custody of the sheriff's officer: but he was released at the intercession of lord treasurer Burleigh, to whom he was related. Brown then left the kingdom; and, with permission of the states, settled at Middelburg in Zealand; where he formed a church after his own plan, and preached without molestation. In 1585, we find him again in England; for

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for in that year he was cited to appear before Abp. Whitgift; and seeming to comply with the eſtabliſhed church, was, by lord Burleigh, ſent home to his father: but, relapſing into his former principles, his aged parent was obliged to turn him out of his houſe. He now wandered about for ſome time, and endured great hardſhips. At laſt he fixed at Northampton; where, labouring with too much indiſcretion to increaſe his ſect, he was cited by the biſhop of Peterborough, and, refuſing to appear, was excommunicated for contempt. The ſolemnity of this cenſure effected his reformation. He moved for abſolution, which he obtained, and from that time became a dutiful member of the church of England. This happened about 1590; and, in a ſhort time after, Brown was preferred to a rectory in Northamptonſhire, where he kept a curate to do his duty, and where he might probably have died in peace: but having ſome diſpute with the conſtable of his pariſh, he proceeded to blows; and was afterwards ſo inſolent to the juſtice, that he committed him to Northampton jail, where he died in 1730, aged 80. Thus ended the life of the famous Robert Brown; the greateſt part of which was a ſeries of oppoſition and perſecution. He boaſted on his death-bed, that he had been confined in no leſs than 32 different priſons. He wrote "A treatiſe of reformation without tarrying for any, and of the wickedneſs of thoſe teachers which will not reform themſelves and their charge, &c. By me Robert Brown;" and two others, making together a thin 4to, publiſhed at Middleburg, in 1582.

(10.) BROWN, Simon, a diſſenting miniſter, of uncommon talents and ſingular misfortunes, born at Shepton-Mallet in Somerſetſhire, in 1680. Excelling in grammatical learning, he early became qualified for the miniſtry, and actually began to preach before he was 20. He was firſt called to be a paſtor at Portſmouth, and afterwards removed to the Old Jewry, where he was admired for a number of years. But the death of his wife and only ſon, in 1725, affected him ſo as to deprive him of his reaſon; and he became from that time loſt to himſelf, to his family, and to the world. His congregation at the old Jewry, in expectation of his recovery, delayed for ſome time to fill his poſt; but at length, all hopes being over, Mr Chandler was appointed to ſucceed him in 1725. This double misfortune affected him at firſt in a manner little different from diſtraction, but afterwards ſunk him into a ſettled melancholy. He quitted the duties of his function, and would not be perſuaded to join in any act of worſhip, public or private. Being urged by his friends for a reaſon of this extraordinary change, at which they expreſſed the utmoſt aſtoniſhment, he told them that "he had fallen under the ſenſible diſpleaſure of God, who had cauſed his rational ſoul gradually to periſh, and left him only an animal life in common with brutes: that, though he retained the human ſhape, and the faculty of ſpeaking in a manner that appeared to others rational, he had all the while no more notion of what he ſaid than a parrot; that it was therefore profane in him to pray, and incongruous to be preſent at the prayers of others;" and very conſiſtently with this, he conſidered himſelf no longer as a moral agent, or ſubject of either reward or puniſhment. In this way of thinking and talking he unalterably and obſtinately perſiſted to the end of his life; though he afterwards ſuffered, and even requeſted, prayers to be made for him. Some time after he retired to Shepton-Mallet, and though in his retirement he was perpetually contending, that his powers of reaſon and imagination were gone, yet he was as conſtantly exerting both with much activity and vigour. He amuſed himſelf ſometimes with tranſlating parts of the ancient Greek and Latin poets into Engliſh verſe: he compoſed little pieces for the uſe of children; An Engliſh Grammar and Spelling Book: An Abſtract of the Scripture Hiſtory, and a Collection of Fables, both in metre; and with much learning he brought together, into a ſhort compaſs, all the *Themata* of the Greek and Latin tongues, and alſo compiled a Dictionary to each of thoſe works, to render the learning of theſe languages more eaſy and compendious. Of theſe performances none have been made public. But what ſhowed the ſtrength and vigour of his underſtanding, while he was bemoaning the loſs of it, were two works compoſed during the two laſt years of his life, in defence of Chriſtianity, againſt Wooſton and Tindal.—He wrote an anſwer to Wooſton's fifth Diſcourſe on the Miracles of our Saviour, entitled, *A fit rebuke for a ludicrous Infidel*, with a preface concerning the proſecution of ſuch writers by the civil power. The preface contains a vigorous plea for liberty, and is ſtrongly againſt proſecutions in matters of religion; and in the Anſwer, Wooſton is as well managed as he was by any of his refuters, and more in his own way too. His book againſt Tindal was called *A Defence of the Religion of Nature and the Chriſtian Revelation*, againſt the defective account of the one and the exceptions againſt the other, in a book intitled, *Chriſtianity as old as the Creation*; and it is allowed to be as good a one as that controverſy produced.—He intended to dedicate it to Queen Caroline; but as the unhappy ſtate of his mind appeared in the dedication, his friends ſuppreſſed it. The following is a copy which was preſerved as a curioſity. "Madam, Of all the extraordinary things that have been rendered to your royal hands ſince your firſt happy arrival in Britain, it may be boldly ſaid what now beſpeaks your majeſty's acceptance is the chief. Not in itſelf indeed: it is a trifle unworthy your exalted rank, and what will hardly prove an entertaining amuſement to one of your majeſty's deep penetration, exact judgment, and fine taſte; but on account of the author, who is the firſt being of the kind, and yet without a name. He was once a man, and of ſome little name; but of no worth, as his preſent unparalleled caſe makes but too manifeſt: for by the immediate hand of an avenging God, his very thinking ſubſtance has for more than 7 years been continually waſting away, till it is wholly periſhed out of him, if it be not utterly come to nothing. None, no, not the leaſt remembrance of its very ruins remains; not the ſhadow of an idea is left; nor any ſenſe, ſo much as one ſingle one, perfect or imperfect, whole or diminiſhed, ever did appear to a mind within him, or was perceived by it. Such a preſent

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ſent from ſuch a thing, however worthleſs in itſelf, may not be wholly unacceptable to your majeſty, the author being ſuch as hiſtory cannot parallel; and if the fact, which is real, and no fiction or wrong conceit, obtains credit, it muſt be recorded as the moſt memorable, and indeed aſtoniſhing, even in the reign of George II. that a tract, compoſed by ſuch a thing, was preſented to the illuſtrious Caroline; his royal conſort needs not be added; fame, if I am not miſinformed, will tell that with pleaſure to all ſucceeding times. He has been informed, that your majeſty's piety, is as genuine and eminent as your excellent qualities are great and conſpicuous. This can indeed be truly known to the great Searcher of hearts only. He alone, who can look into them, can diſcern if they are ſincere, and the main intention correſponds with the appearance; and your majeſty cannot take it amiſs if ſuch an author hints, that his ſecret approbation is of infinitely greater value than the commendation of men, who may be eaſily miſtaken, and are too apt to flatter their ſuperiors.—But, if he has been told the truth, ſuch a caſe as his will certainly ſtrike your majeſty with aſtoniſhment; and may raiſe that commiſeration in your royal breaſt, which he has in vain endeavoured to excite in thoſe of his friends: who, by the moſt unreaſonable and ill-founded conceit in the world, have imagined, that a thinking being could, for ſeven years together, live a ſtranger to its own powers, exerciſes, operations, and ſtate; and to what the great God has been doing in it and to it. If your majeſty, in your moſt retired addreſs to the King of kings, ſhould think of ſo ſingular a caſe, you may perhaps make it your devout requeſt, that the reign of your beloved ſovereign and conſort be renowned to all poſterity by the recovery of a ſoul now in the utmoſt ruin, the reſtoration of one utterly loſt, at preſent amongſt men. And ſhould this caſe affect your royal breaſt, you will recommend it to the piety and prayers of all the truly devout who have the honour to be known to your majeſty: many ſuch doubtleſs there are, though courts are not uſually the places where the devout reſort, or where devotion reigns. And it is not improbable, that multitudes of the pious throughout the land may take a caſe to heart, that under your majeſty's patronage comes thus recommended. Could ſuch a favour as this reſtoration be obtained from heaven by the prayers of your majeſty, with what tranſport of gratitude would the recovered being throw himſelf at your majeſty's feet, and, adoring the divine power and grace, profeſs himſelf, Madam, your majeſty's moſt obliged and dutiful ſervant SIMON BROWN."—The above pieces were publiſhed by Dr W. Harris, who, in an adverti ſement to the reader recommends the afflicted caſe of the author, under a deep and peculiar melancholy, to the compaſſion and prayers of all his friends, and every ſerious Chriſtian. Mr Brown ſurvived the publication of this laſt work a very ſhort time. A complication of diſtempers, contracted by his ſedentary life, (for he could not be prevailed on to take air and exerciſe) brought on a mortification, which put a period to his labours and ſorrows about the end of 1732. He was unqueſtionably a man of uncommon abilities and learning: his management of Woolſton ſhowed him to have alſo vivacity and wit: and, notwithſtanding that ſtrange conceit which poſſeſſed him, it is remarkable that he never appeared feeble or abſurd, except upon the ſubject of his frenzy. Before he was ill, he publiſhed ſome ſingle Sermons, with a Collection of Hymns and Spiritual Songs. He left ſeveral daughters.

(11.) BROWN, Sir Thomas, an eminent phyſician and author, was born at London, Oct. 19th 1605. Having ſtudied at Wincheſter and Oxford, he travelled through France and Italy; and returning by Holland, took his degree of M. D. at Leyden. In 1626, he ſettled at Norwich; and in 1637 was incorporated as M. D. at Oxford.—His *Religio Medici* made a great noiſe; and being tranſlated into Latin, inſtantly ſpread throughout Europe, and gained him a prodigious reputation; it was then tranſlated into almoſt every language in Europe. This book has been cenſured by ſome, as tending to infidelity, and even atheiſm; while others, with more reaſon, have applauded the piety, as well as the parts and learning, of the author. The rev. Mr Granger obſerves, that, among other peculiarities in this book, he ſpeaks of the ultimate act of love as a folly beneath a philoſopher; and ſays that he could be content that we might procreate, like trees, without conjunction: but, after this, he deſcended from his philoſophic dignity, and married an agreeable woman. His Treatiſe *on Vulgour Errours* was read with avidity; he alſo publiſhed *Hydriotaphia*, or a Diſcourſe of Sepulchral Urns lately found in Norfolk. His reputation in his profeſſion was equal to his fame for learning; and therefore the college of phyſicians elected him an honorary member; and king Charles II. coming to Norwich in 1671, knighted him with ſingular marks of favour.—He died on his birth day, in 1682, leaving ſeveral MSS. behind him, which were publiſhed, as the *poſthumous works of the learned Sir Thomas Brown, Knt. M. D.*

(12.) BROWN, Sir William, a noted phyſician and multifarous writer, was ſettled originally at Lynn in Norfolk, where he publiſhed a tranſlation of Dr Gregory's Elements of Catoptrics and Dioptrics; to which he added, 1. A Method for finding the foci of all Specula, as well as Lenſes univerſally; as alſo magnifying or leſſening a given object by a given Speculum or Lens, in any aſſigned proportion. 2. A Solution of thoſe Problems which Dr Gregory has left undemonſtrated. 3. A particular Account of Microſcopes and Teleſcopes, from Mr Huygens; with the Diſcoveries made by Catoptrics and Dioptrics.—Having acquired a competence by his profeſſion, he removed to Queen's Square, Ormond Street, London, where he reſided till his death. By his lady, who died in 1763, he had one daughter, grandmother to Sir Martin Brown Folkes, bart. He wrote a great number of lively eſſays, in proſe and verſe, which he printed and circulated among his friends. The active part taken by Sir William Brown in the conteſt with the licentiates, in 1768, occaſioned his being introduced by Mr Foote in his *Devil upon Two Sticks*. Upon Foote's exact repreſentation of him with his identical wig and coat, tall figure, and glaſs ſtiffly applied to his eye

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eye, he ſent him a card complimenting him on having ſo happily repreſented him; but as he had forgot his muff, he had ſent him his own. This good-natured method of reſenting diſarmed Foote. He uſed to frequent the annual ball at the ladies boarding-ſchool, Queen's Square, as a neighbour, fond of the company of ſprightly young folks. A dignitary of the church being there one day to ſee his daughter dance, and finding this upright figure ſtationed there, told him he believed he was Hermippus *redivivus*, who lived *anbelitu puellarum*. When he lived at Lynn, a pamphlet was written againſt him: he nailed it up againſt his own door. He died in 1774, aged 82; and by his will left two prize medals to be annually contended for by the Cambridge poets.

(13.) BROWN, Thomas, "of facetious memory," as he is ſtyled by Addiſon, was the ſon of a farmer in Shropſhire; and entered in Chriſt-church college, Oxford, where he ſoon diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his uncommon attainments in literature.—But the irregularities of his life not ſuffering him to continue long there, he, inſtead of returning to his father, went to London to ſeek his fortune. His companions, however, being more delighted with his humour, than ready to relieve his neceſſities, he had recourſe to the uſual refuge of half-ſtarved wits, ſcribbling for bread; and publiſhed a great variety of poems, letters, dialogues, &c. full of humour and erudition, but often indelicate. Though a good-natured man, he had one pernicious quality, which was, rather to loſe his friend than his joke. Towards the end of Tom Brown's life, he was in favour with the earl of Dorſet, who invited him to dinner on a Chriſtmas day, with Mr Dryden, and ſome other gentlemen celebrated for their ingenuity; when Mr Brown, to his agreeable ſurpriſe found a bank note of 50l. under his plate, and Mr Dryden, at the ſame time, was preſented with another of 100l. Mr Brown died in 1704; and was interred in the cloyſter of Weſtminſter abbey, near the remains of Mrs Behn, with whom he was intimate. His works, conſiſting of Dialogues, Eſſays, Satires, &c. have been printed both in 8vo and 12mo, making 4 vols.

(14.) BROWN, Ulyſſes Maximilian, a celebrated general of the 18th century, was ſon of Ulyſſes, baron Brown and Camus, colonel of a regiment of cuiraſſiers in the emperor's ſervice, and deſcended from one of the moſt ancient families in Ireland. He was born at Bazil in 1705; and having finiſhed his firſt ſtudies at Limerick in Ireland, was, in 1715, ſent for into Hungary, by count George Brown, his uncle, colonel of a regiment of infantry. He was preſent at the famous battle of Belgrade, in 1717. Next year he followed his uncle into Italy, who made him continue his ſtudies in the Clementine College at Rome, till 1721, when he was ſent to Prague to learn the civil law. At the end of 1723, he became captain in his uncle's regiment; and in 1725, lieutenant-colonel. In 1730, he went into Corſica with a battalion of his regiment; and contributed greatly to the taking of Calanſara, where he received a conſiderable wound in his thigh. In 1732, the emperor made him chamberlain. He was raiſed to the rank of colonel in 1734; and diſtinguiſhed himſelf ſo much in the war of Italy, eſpecially at the battles of Parma and Guaſtalla, and in burning, in the preſence of the French army, the bridge which the marſhal de Noailles had cauſed to be thrown over the Adige, that he was made general in 1736. In 1737, he favoured the retreat of the army, after the unhappy battle of Banjuluca in Boſnia, by an excellent manœuvre, and ſaved all the baggage. His admirable conduct upon this occaſion was rewarded by his obtaining a ſecond regiment of infantry. At his return to Vienna, in 1739, the emperor Charles VI. raiſed him to the rank of general field-marſhal-lieutenant, and made him counſellor in the aulic council of war. After the death of that prince, the king of Pruſſia entering Sileſia, count Brown with a ſmall body of troops, diſputed the country with him inch by inch. He ſignalized himſelf on ſeveral other occaſions; and, in 1743, the queen of Hungary made him a privy counſellor, at her coronation in Bohemia. He at length paſſed into Bavaria, where he commanded the van-guard of the Auſtrian army; ſeized Deckendorf, with a great quantity of baggage: and obliged the French to abandon the banks of the Danube, which the Auſtrian army paſſed in full ſecurity. The ſame year, the queen of Hungary ſent him to Worms, as her plenipotentiary to the queen of Britain; where he put the laſt hand to the treaty of alliance between the courts of Vienna, London, and Turin. In 1744, he followed prince Lobkowitz into Italy; took Velletri, in ſpite of the ſuperior numbers of the enemy, overthrew ſeveral regiments, and took many priſoners. The following year he was recalled into Bavaria, where he took Wilſhoſen by aſſault, and received a dangerous ſhot in the thigh. The ſame year he was made general of the artillery; and in Jan. 1746, marched for Italy at the head of a body of 18,000 men. He then drove the Spaniards out of the Milaneſe; and having joined the forces under prince de Lichtenſtein, commanded the left wing of the Auſtrian army at the battle of Placentia on the 15th of June, 1746, and defeated the right wing of the enemy's forces commanded by Marſhal de Maillebois. After this victory he commanded in chief the army againſt the Genoeſe: ſeized the paſs of Bochetta, though defended by above 4000 men; and took the city of Genoa. Count Brown at length joined the king of Sardinia's troops; and took, in conjunction with him, Mont-Alban, and the county of Nice. On the 30th Novem. he paſſed the Var; entered Provence; took the iſles of St Margaret and St Honorat; and thought to have rendered himſelf maſter of a much greater part of Provence, when the revolution which happened in Genoa, and Marſhal de Belleiſle's advancing with his army, obliged him to make that fine retreat which procured him the admiration of all perſons ſkilled in war. He employed the reſt of the year 1747 in defending the Auſtrian ſtates in Italy; and after the peace of 1748, he was ſent to Nice to regulate there, in conjunction with the duke of Belleiſle and the marquis de la Minas, the differences that had ariſen with reſpect to the execution of ſome of the articles of the definitive treaty of Aix la Chapelle. The empreſs queen, to reward theſe ſignal ſervices, made him governor of Tranſylvania, where he rendered himſelf generally admired for

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for his probity and disinterestedness. In 1752, he obtained the government of the city of Prague, with the chief command of the troops in that kingdom; in 1753, the king of Poland, elector of Saxony, honoured him with the collar of the order of the white eagle; and in 1754 he was declared field-marshal. The king of Prussia entering Saxony in 1756, and attacking Bohemia, count Brown repulsed him at the battle of Lobositz, 1st Oct. though he had only 27,000 men, and the king of Prussia had at least 40,000. Seven days after this battle, he undertook the famous march into Saxony, to deliver the Saxon troops shut up between Pirna and Konigstein; an action worthy of the greatest captains, ancient or modern. He at length obliged the Prussians to retire from Bohemia; for which he was made a knight of the golden fleece. Soon after, he hastily assembled an army in Bohemia, to oppose the king of Prussia, who had again penetrated into that kingdom at the head of all his forces; and on the 6th of May fought the famous battle of Prague; in which, while he was employed in giving orders for maintaining the advantages he had gained over the Prussians, he was so dangerously wounded that he was obliged to be carried to Prague, where he died on the 26th June, 1757, aged 52.

(15.) BROWN, William, an English poet of the 17th century, born at Tavistock in 1590. He was sent to Exeter college, Oxford, in the beginning of the reign of James I. and became tutor to Robert Dormer, afterwards earl of Carnarvon, who was killed at Newbury battle, Septem. 20, 1643. He is styled in the public register of the university, *vir omni humane literatura et bonarum artium cognitione instructus*; a man well skilled in all kinds of polite literature and useful arts. After he had left the college with his pupil, he was taken into the family of William earl of Pembroke, who had a great respect for him; and he made his fortune so well, that he purchased an estate. His poetical works procured him great reputation. They are, 1. Britannia's pastorals. The first part was published at London, 1616, in folio; and ushered into the world with verses by his friends John Selden, Michael Drayton, Christopher Cook, &c. The second part was printed at London in 1616, and recommended by verses written by John Glanville, (afterwards eminent in the law) and others. 2. The shepherd's pipe, in seven eclogues; Lond. 1614, in 8vo. 3. An elegy on the never enough bewailed death of prince Henry, eldest son of K. James I.

(16.) BROWN, LOCH. See LOCH-BROWN.

(17.) BROWN, SPANISH. See § 2.

BROWNÆA. See BROWNEA.

* BROWNBILL. *n. s.* [from *brown* and *bill*.] The ancient weapon of the English foot: why it is called *brown*, I have not discovered; but we now say *brown musket* from it.—

And *brownbills*, levied in the city,
Made bills to pass the grand committee. *Hudib.*

BROWN-CANBOVER, a town in Hampshire.

(1.) BROWNE, George, archbishop of Dublin, and the first prelate who embraced the doctrines of the reformation in Ireland, was originally an Austin friar of London, and was educated near Halywell, Oxford. He afterwards became provincial of his order, and having got his degree of D. D. abroad, was admitted to the same at Oxford and Cambridge, in 1534. After reading Luther's writings, he began to teach the people to pray, not to the Virgin Mary, or the Saints, but to Christ. This recommended him to Henry VIII, who, in 1535, promoted him to be archbishop of Dublin, and nominated him one of the commissioners for abolishing the papal supremacy in Ireland. In 1551, K. Edward VI. gave him the additional honour of primate of all Ireland: but in 1554 he was deposed by Q. Mary, on pretence of his being married, though in reality, on account of his zeal for the reformation. He published a work against keeping the Scriptures in the Latin tongue, and against the worship of images. He died in 1556.

(2.) BROWNE, Peter, a native of Ireland, provost of Trinity college, Dublin, and afterwards bishop of Cork. He distinguished himself by his writings: particularly, 1. A refutation of Toland's Christianity not mysterious;—a work that was the foundation of his preferment; which occasioned him to say to Toland himself, that it was he who made him bishop of Cork: 2. The progress, extent, and limits of the human understanding; 3. Sermons; and, 4. An essay, in 12mo, against the custom of drinking to the memory of the dead.

(3—5.) BROWNE, Simon, Sir Thomas, Sir William, &c. See BROWN, N° 10—12, &c.

BROWNEA, or BROWNIA, } in botany, a genus of the } endecandria order, in the monadelphia class of plants. The calyx is bifid, the coroila double, the exterior quinquefid, and the interior pentapetalous. There is but one species; viz.

BROWNIA COCCINEA, a native of the W. Indies.

* BROWNISH. *adj.* [from *brown*.] Somewhat brown.—A *brownish* grey iron-stone, lying in this strata, is poor, but runs freely. *Woodward.*

BROWNISM, the doctrine of the Brownists. See next article.

BROWNISTS, a religious sect, which sprung out of the Puritans, towards the close of the 16th century: so named from their leader, Robert BROWN. See BROWN, N° 9. They were also called BARROWISTS, from another of their preachers. To avoid the persecutions of the English bishops, Brown, with his congregation, left the kingdom, and settled at Middleburgh in Zealand; where they obtained leave of the states to worship God in their own way, and form a church according to their own model; which they had not long done before they began to differ among themselves, and divide into so many parties, that Brown their pastor grew weary of his office; and returned to England in 1589. This was attended with the dissolution of the church at Middleburgh; but the seeds of Brownism, sown in England, were so far from being rooted out, that Sir Walter Raleigh in a speech, in 1592, computes no less than 20,000 Brownists. The occasion of their separation was not any fault they found with the faith, but only with the discipline and form of government of the churches in England. They equally charged corruption on the episcopal and presbyterian forms; nor would they join with any other reformed church, because they were not assured of the sanctity and regeneration of the members that

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that compoſed it; on account of the toleration of ſinners, with whom they maintained it an impiety to communicate. They condemned the ſolemn celebration of marriages in the church; maintaining, that matrimony being a political contract, the confirmation thereof ought to come from the civil magiſtrate; an opinion in which they are not ſingular. They would not allow any children to be baptized of ſuch as were not members of the church, or of ſuch as did not take ſufficient care of thoſe baptized before. They rejected all forms of prayer; and held that the Lord's prayer was not to be recited as a prayer, being only given for a rule or model whereon all our prayers are to be formed. Their form of church government was democratical. When a church was to be gathered, ſuch as deſired to be members of it made a confeſſion of it, and ſigned a covenant, by which they obliged themſelves to walk together in the order of the goſpel. The whole power of admitting and excluding members, with the deciſion of all controverſies, was lodged in the brotherhood. Their church officers were choſen from among themſelves, for preaching the word, and taking care of the poor, and ſeparated to their ſeveral offices by faſting, prayer, and impoſition of hands of ſome of the brethren. But they did not allow the prieſthood to be any diſtinct order. As the vote of the brotherhood made a man a miniſter, and gave him authority to preach and adminiſter the ſacraments among them, ſo the ſame power could diſcharge him from his office, and reduce him to a mere layman again. And as they maintained the bounds of a church to be no greater than what could meet together in one place and join in one communion, ſo the power of theſe officers was preſcribed within the ſame limits. The miniſter or paſtor of one church could not adminiſter the Lord's ſupper to another, nor baptize the children of any but thoſe of his own ſociety. Any lay brother was allowed the liberty of giving a word of exhortation to the people; and it was uſual for ſome of them, after ſermon, to aſk queſtions, and reaſon upon the doctrines that had been preached. In a word, every church on their model is a body corporate, having full power to do every thing which the good of the ſociety requires, without being accountable to any claſs, ſynod, convocation, or other juriſdiction whatever. Moſt of their diſcipline has been adopted by the Independents, a party which afterwards aroſe from among the Browniſts. The laws were executed with great ſeverity on the Browniſts; their books were prohibited by queen Elizabeth, and their perſons impriſoned, and many of them were hanged. The eccleſiaſtical commiſſion and the ſtar-chamber diſtreſſed them to ſuch a degree, that they reſolved to quit their country. Accordingly, many families retired and ſettled at Amſterdam, where they formed a church, and choſe Mr Johnſon their paſtor; and after him Mr Ainſworth, author of the learned commentary on the Pentateuch. Their church flouriſhed near 100 years. See INDEPENDENTS.

BROWNLEE, a diſtrict ſituated between Hamilton and Lanark, conſiſting of land, which, till lately, was not worth 5s. a year, as it produced nothing but furze, brambles and briers, being from its ſteepneſs, inacceſſible to the plough. By the induſtry and perſeverance of the proprietor, an acre and an half of this barren ground has been planted with fruit trees, and improved to ſuch a pitch, that in 1795, it produced fruit which ſold for L. 93 Sterling, beſides gooſeberries, and ten ſleeks of fruit to the proprietor.

* BROWNNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *brown*.] A brown colour.—She would confeſs the contention in her own mind, between that lovely, indeed moſt lovely, *brownneſs* of Muſidorus's face, and this colour of mine. *Sidney.*

BROWNRIGG, a village of Northumberland, between Ford-Caſtle and Wooller.

BROWNSEA. See BRANKSEY.

BROWNSELL, a village in Dorſetſhire.

BROWNSOVER, N. of Rugby, Warwickſhire.

* BROWNSTUDY. *n. ſ.* [from *brown* and *ſtudy*.] Gloomy meditations; ſtudy in which we direct our thoughts to no certain point.—They live retired, and then they doze away their time in drowſineſs and *brownſtudies*; or, if briſk and active, they lay themſelves out wholly in making common places. *Norris.*

BROWNSVILLE, or REDSTONE OLD FORT, a flouriſhing poſt town of Pennſylvania. It is ſituated in Fayette county, on the SE. bank of Monongahela river, between Dunlop and Redſton creeks; over the former a bridge has been erected, which connects Bridge-port, a ſmall village on the oppoſite ſide of the creek, with Brownſville. It is 260 feet long, and 14 broad, and 36 feet in height. The town is laid out in regular ſtreets croſſing each other at right angles. It contains about 100 houſes, 12 ſtores, with a pretty general aſſortment of goods, an Epiſcopalian and a Roman Catholic church; and within a few miles of the town are four quaker meeting-houſes. Upwards of a hundred boats are built here annually for trade and emigration to Kentucky; averaging about 20 tons each; 24 griſt, ſaw, oil, and fulling mills, are within leſs than 5 miles of the town. A brewery and a diſtillery have been eſtabliſhed in it; and next to Pittſburg, it is the moſt conſiderable town of the weſtern part of Pennſylvania. It is 35 miles S. by E. of Pittſburg, 12 NW. of Union, 25 SE. by E. of Waſhington, and 310 W. of Philadelphia. Lon. 4. 44. W. Lat. 39. 58. N.

BROWNSWELL, near Finchley, Middleſex.

BROWNWORT, the Engliſh name of two different genera of plants. See PRUNELLA and SCROPHULARIA.

BROWNY, a ſerviceable kind of ſprite, who, according to a ſuperſtitious notion formerly prevalent in the Hebrides and Highlands of Scotland (as well as among the country people in England, where he had the name of *Robin Goodfellow*,) was wont to clean the houſes, help to churn, threſh the corn, and belabour all that pretended to make a jeſt of him. He was repreſented as ſtout and blooming, had fine long flowing hair, and went about with a wand in his hand. He was the very counter part of Milton's *Lubber Fiend.*

BROW-POST, among builders, denotes a beam which goes acroſs a building.

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(1.) * BROWSE. *n. f.* [from the verb.] Branches, or ſhrubs, fit for the food of goats, or other animals.

The greedy lioneſs the wolf purſues,
The wolf the kid, the wanton kid the *browſe*.
Dryden.

On that cloud-piercing hill,
Plinlimmon, from afar the traveller kens,
Aſtoniſh'd, how the goats their ſhrubby *browſe*
Gnaw pendent. *Phillips.*

(2.) BROWSE more properly denotes the food which deer find in young copſes, continually ſprouting anew.

(1.) * *To* BROWSE. *v. a.* [*brouſer*, Fr. To eat branches, or ſhrubs.—

And being down, is trod in the durt,
Of cattle, and *browſed*, and ſorely hurt. *Spenſ.*

Thy palate then did deign
The roughest berry on the rudeſt hedge:
Yea, like the ſtag, when ſnow the paſture ſheets,
The barks of trees thou *browſedſt*. *Shak.*

(2.) * *To* BROWSE. *v. n.* To feed: it is uſed with the particle *on*.—They have ſcared away two of my beſt ſheep: if any where I have them, 'tis by the ſea ſide, *browſing on* ivy. *Shakeſpeare.*—A goat, hard preſſed, took ſanctuary in a vineyard; ſo ſoon as he thought the danger was over, he fell preſently a *browſing upon* the leaves. *L'Eſt.*

Could eat the tender plant, and, by degrees,
Browſe on the ſhrubs, and crop the budding trees. *Blackmore.*

—The Greeks were the deſcendants of ſavages, ignorant of agriculture, and *browſing on* herbage, like cattle. *Arbuthnot.*

BROWSEWOOD, *n. ſ.* Bruſhwood.

* BROWSICK. *adj.* [from *brow* and *ſick*.] Dejected; hanging the head.—

But yet a gracious influence from you,
May alter nature in our *browſick* crew. *Suckl.*

BROWTING, [*brouter*,] among the French gardners, ſignifies, breaking off the tips of the ſlender branches of trees, when too long in proportion to their ſtrength.

BROXAM, a town in Kent, 5 miles W. of Penſhurſt.

BROXBOROUGH, and BROXBOURNBURY, } in Hertfordſh. near Hoddeſdon.

(1.) BROXBURN, a rivulet in Linlithgow.

(2.) BROXBURN, a village in the pariſh of Uphall, ſeated on the rivulet, N° 1. It is on the increaſe, the ground being let out for building, in leaſes of 99 years, at 3s. 4d. per acre. It has a fair in Auguſt.

BROXEY, in Yorkſh. N. of Pickering.

BROXHOLM, 4 miles NW. of Lincoln.

BROXMOUTH, a ſeat of the Duke of Roxburg, in E. Lothian, on the mouth of Brockſburn, near Dunbar.

BROXTED, in Eſſex, 4 miles S. of Thaxted.

BROXTON, 2 villages, viz. 1. in Cheſhire, S. of Beeſton-Caſtle: 2. in Hampſh. 4 m. E. of Alton.

BROXTOW, NW. of Nottingham.

BROXWOOD, in Herefordſhire, 3 miles E. of Kyneton.

BROYLE, 3 m. SE. of Lewes, Suſſex.

BROYOCK, INCH. See INCH-BRAYOCK.

BRU, a ſafe harbour on the coaſt of Argyllſh.

BRUARIA TURBARIA. See TURBARY.

(1.) BRUCE, James, Eſq. of Kinnaird, F. R. S. and the moſt intrepid traveller of the preſent or almoſt any age, was born at Kinnaird, in Stirlingſhire, Dec. 14, 1728. It is almoſt ſuperfluous to mention his noble anceſtors; that by his father Dav. Bruce of Kinnaird, he was lineally deſcended from Robert Bruce E. of Carrick, (N. 3.) competitor with Baliol, and grandfather to king Robert I.; as well as from the public ſpirited Robert Bruce of Kinnaird, (N° 5.) who was baniſhed for his attachment to civil and religious liberty; and by his mother, Miſs Graham of Airth, from the loyal Marquis of Montroſe, who was beheaded for his attachment to royalty. The perſonal merits of Mr Bruce are much ſuperior to all that can be derived from the moſt glorious anceſtry. He has done honour to himſelf and his country by accompliſhing, what the moſt celebrated conquerors of antiquity repeatedly attempted without ſucceſs. By diſcovering the ſource of the Nile, he has acquired a degree of fame which was ſought for in vain, by Seſoſtris, king of Egypt, Cambyſes, king of Perſia, Alexander the Great, two of the Ptolemies, and Julius Cæſar. Mr Bruce was inſtructed in claſſical learning at Harrow on the hill in Middleſex. Returning to Scotland, he intended to ſtudy the law, but from the barbarity of his ſtepmother, (a daughter of the late Gov. Glen,) he reſolved to puſh his fortune in the E. Indies. But not procuring an appointment in the Company's ſervice, he engaged in partnerſhip with Mr Allen, merchant, London, whoſe daughter he married, but loſt within a year after. To diſpel grief he travelled, but his father dying in 1758, he returned to Britain to take poſſeſſion of the inheritance of his anceſtors. About this time Lord Chatham intended to employ Mr Bruce upon a particular ſervice, but his reſignation ſoon after put it out of his power. Similar intentions were entertained by Lord Egremont, but his Lordſhip's death prevented the fulfilment. It fell to the lot of the Earl of Halifax to do more than fulfil the intentions of his predeceſſors, by pointing out a ſcene of action to Mr Bruce, where his abilities have ſince been exerted with ſo much honour to himſelf and his country. To explore the coaſt of Barbary; to inveſtigate its natural hiſtory, ancient architecture, and other curioſities, hitherto little known, or illuſtrated by former travellers; and to make large additions to the royal collection, were the outlines of his Lordſhip's plan. To diſcover the ſource of the Nile was alſo mentioned, but rather as an object to be wiſhed than hoped for, from ſo young a traveller. The reſignation of the conſul of Algiers at this time, and the death of his newly appointed ſucceſſor, favoured the Earl's plan; who preſſed Mr Bruce to accept of the conſulſhip; which he did the more cheerfully, that the tranſit of Venus was at hand, which he hoped to ſee from his own houſe at Algiers. Within a year after his arrival there he qualified himſelf by the acquiſition of the Arabic, to appear without an interpreter. An anecdote related of Mr Bruce during his conſulſhip to Algiers, deſerves to be mentioned as an early inſtance of that daring intrepidity, ſo fully manifeſted afterward in his Abyſſinian journey. At one of his firſt audiences of the Dey, Mr Bruce went to court with a ſword; the officer

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in waiting at the palace, intimated that no perſon could go into the preſence of the Dey armed, and therefore it was neceſſary to lay aſide his ſword; Mr Bruce, not deigning to make any reply, knocked the officer down with a violent blow, and marched into the audience chamber without waiting any introduction. "It was beneath the dignity, he ſaid, of a ſervant of the Britiſh Monarch, to ſubmit to any humiliating ceremony before an African Chief." At Algiers, Mr Bruce was detained longer than he expected, in conſequence of a diſpute with the Dey concerning Mediterranean paſſes. The buſineſs being adjuſted, he proceeded to Mahon, and from Mahon to Carthage. He afterwards viſited Tunis and Tripoli, and travelled over the interior parts of theſe ſtates. At Bengazi, a ſmall town on the Mediterranean, he ſuffered ſhipwreck, and with extreme difficulty ſaved his life, though with the loſs of all his baggage. He afterwards ſailed to the Iſles of Rhodes and Cyprus, and proceeding to Aſia Minor, travelled through a conſiderable part of Syria and Paleſtine, viſiting Haſſia, Latikea, Aleppo, and Tripoli, near which laſt city he was again in imminent danger of periſhing in a river. The ruins of Palmyra and Baalbee, were next carefully ſurveyed and ſketched by him; and his drawings of theſe places, are depoſited in the king's library at Kew; the moſt magnificent preſent, in that line, to uſe his own words, "ever made by a ſubject to his ſovereign." It is much to be regretted, that Mr Bruce publiſhed no particular account of theſe various journies; from the nature of the places viſited, and the abilities of the man, much curious and uſeful information might have been expected. Some MS. accounts of different parts of them are ſaid to have been left by him, but whether in ſuch a ſtate as to be fit for publication is very uncertain. In theſe various travels ſome years were paſſed; and Mr Bruce now prepared for the grand expedition, the accompliſhment of which had ever been neareſt his heart, the diſcovery of the ſource of the Nile. In the proſecution of that great and dangerous object, he left Sidon on the 15th of June 1768, and arrived at Alexandria on the 20th of that month. He proceeded from thence to Cairo, where he continued till the 12th Dec. when he embarked on the Nile, and ſailed up that river as far as Seyne, viſiting in the courſe of his voyage, the ruins of Thebes. Leaving Kenne on the Nile, 16th Feb. 1769, he croſſed the deſert of the Thebaid to Coſſeir on the Red Sea, and arrived at Jidda on the 3d of May. In Arabia Felix, he remained, not without making ſeveral excurſions, till the 3d Sept. when he ſailed from Loheia, and arrived on the 19th at Mauah, where he was detained near 2 months by the treachery and avarice of the Naybe of that place. It was not till the 15th Nov. that he was allowed to quit Arkeeko near Maſuah; and he arrived 15th Feb. 1770, at Gondar, the capital of Abyſſinia, where he ingratiated himſelf with the moſt conſiderable perſons of both ſexes belonging to the court. Several months were employed in attendance on the king: and in an unſucceſsful expedition round the lake of Dambea. Towards the end of October, Mr Bruce ſet out for the ſource of the Nile, at which long deſired ſpot, he arrived on the 14th Nov. and his feelings on the accompliſhment of his wiſhes cannot better be expreſſed than in his own words: "It is eaſier to gueſs than to deſcribe the ſituation of any mind at that moment; ſtanding in that ſpot which had baffled the genius, induſtry, and inquiry of both ancients and moderns, for the courſe of near 3000 years, Kings had attempted this diſcovery at the head of armies, and each expedition was diſtinguiſhed from the laſt, only by the difference of the numbers which had periſhed, and agreed alone in the diſappointment which had uniformly and without exception, followed them all. Fame, riches, and honour had been held out for a ſeries of ages to every individual of thoſe myriads thoſe princes commanded, without having produced one man capable of gratifying the curioſity of his ſovereign, or wiping off the ſtain upon the enterprize and abilities of mankind, or adding this deſideratum for the encouragement of geography. Though a mere private Briton, I triumphed here in my own mind over kings and their armies; and every compariſon was leading nearer and nearer to the preſumption, when the place itſelf where I ſtood, the object of my vain glory, ſuggeſted what depreſſed my ſhort-lived triumphs. I was but a few minutes arrived at the ſource of the Nile, through numberleſs dangers and ſufferings, the leaſt of which would have overwhelmed me, but for the continual goodneſs and protection of Providence; I was, however, but then half through my journey, and all thoſe dangers which I had already paſſed, awaited me again on my return. I found a deſpondency gaining ground faſt upon me, and blaſting the crown of laurels I had too raſhly woven for myſelf." When he returned to reſt the night of his diſcovery, repoſe was ſought for in vain. "Melancholy reflections upon my preſent ſtate, the doubtfulneſs of my return in ſafety, were I permitted to make the attempt, and the fears that even this would be refuſed, according to the rule obſerved in Abyſſinia, with all travellers who have once entered the kingdom; the conſciouſneſs of the pain that I was then occaſioning to many worthy individuals, expecting daily that information concerning my ſituation, which it was not in my power to give them; ſome other thoughts perhaps, ſtill nearer the heart than thoſe, crowded upon my mind, and forbade all approach of ſleep. I was, at that very moment, in poſſeſſion of what had, for many years been the principal object of my ambition and wiſhes; indifference, which, from the uſual infirmity of human nature, follows at leaſt for a time, complete enjoyment, had taken poſſeſſion of it. The marſh of the fountains, upon compariſon with the riſe of many of our rivers became now a trifling object in my ſight. I remembered that magnificent ſcene in my own native country, where the Tweed, Clyde, and Annan riſe in one hill; three rivers I now thought, not inferior to the Nile in beauty, preferable to it in the cultivation of thoſe countries through which they flow; ſuperior, vaſtly ſuperior to it in the virtues and qualities of the inhabitants, and in the beauties of its flocks, crowding its paſtures in peace, without fear of violence from man or beaſt. I had ſeen the riſe of the Rhine and Rhone, and the more magnificent

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fources of the Soane. I began, in my forrow, to treat the inquiry about the fources of the Nile as a violent effort of a diftempered fancy. Grief and defpondency now rolling upon me like a torrent, relaxed, not refrefhed by unquiet and imperfect fleep, I ftarted from my bed in the utmoft agony; I went to the door of my tent; every thing was ftill; the Nile, at whofe head I ftood, was not capable either to promote or interrupt my flumbers, but the coolnefs and ferenity of the night braced my nerves, and chafed away thofe phantoms, that while in bed had oppreffed and tormented me. It was true, that numerous dangers, hardfhips and forrows had befet me through this half of my excurfion, but it was ftill as true that another guide more powerful than my own courage, health or underftanding, if any of them can be called a man's own, had uniformly protected me in all that tedious half. I found my confidence not abated, that ftill the fame guide was able to conduct me to my wifhed for home, I immediately refumed my former fortitude, confidered the Nile indeed as no more than rifing from fprings, as all other rivers do, but widely different in this, that it was the palm for 3000 years held out to all the nations of the world, as a *detur digniffimo*, which, in my cool hours, I had thought was worth the attempting at the rifk of my life, which I had long either refolved to lofe, or lay this difcovery, a trophy in which I could have no competitor, for the honour of my country, at the feet of my fovereign whofe fervant I was." Mr Bruce now bent his thoughts on his return to his native country. He arrived at Gondar 19th Nov. 1770; but found, after repeated folicitations, that it was not an eafy task to obtain permiffion to quit Abyffinia. A civil war in the mean time breaking out, no uncommon occurrence in that barbarous country: feveral engagements took place between the king's forces, and the rebels, particularly 3 actions at Serbraxos, in May 1771. In each of them Mr Bruce acted a confiderable part, and for his valiant conduct in the fecond, received as a reward from the king, a chain of gold, of 184 links; each link weighing $3\frac{1}{12}$ dwts. or fomewhat more than $2\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. troy, in all. At Gondar, after thefe engagements, he again earneftly entreated to be allowed to return home, which was long refifted: but his health at laft giving way, from the anxiety of his mind, the king confented to his departure, on condition of his engaging by oath to return to him in the event of his recovery, with as many of his kindred as he could engage to accompany him. After a refidence of nearly two years in that wretched country, Mr Bruce left Gondar, Dec. 16, 1771, taking the dangerous way of the defert of Nubia, in place of the moft eafy road of Maffuah, by which he entered Abyffinia. He was induced to take this route from his experience of the favage temper of the Naybe of Maffuah. Arriving at Teawa, 21ft March 1772, he found the Sheikh Bidele at Atbara the counter-part of the Naybe of Maffuah in every bad quality. By his intrepidity, and prudence, however, and by making good ufe of his foreknowledge of an eclipfe of the moon, which happened on the 17th of April, he was permitted to depart next day, and arrived at Sennaar, on the 20th. He was detained upwards of 4 months at that miferable and inhofpitable place, the inhabitants of which he defcribes in thefe expreffive words: "War and treafon feem to be the only employment of thefe horrid people, whom Heaven has feparated by almoft impaffable deferts, from the reft of mankind, confining them to an accurfed fpot, feeming to give them an earneft in time, of the only other worfe which he has referved to them for an eternal hereafter." This delay was occafioned by the villany of thofe who had undertaken to fupply him with money; but at laft, by difpofing of 178 links of his gold chain, the well-earned trophy of Serbraxos, he was enabled to make preparations for his dangerous journey through the deferts of Nubia.—He left Sennaar 5th Sept. and arrived on the 3d Oct. at Chendi, which he quitted on the 20th, and travelled through the defert of Gooz, to which village he came Oct. 26. On the 9th Nov. he left Gooz, and entered upon the moft dreadful and dangerous part of his journey, the perils attending which he has related with a power of pencil, not unworthy of the greateft maffers. All his camels having perifhed, he was under the neceffity of abandoning his baggage in the defert, and with the greateft difficulty reached Affouan upon the Nile, Nov. 29. After fome days reft, having procured freth camels, he returned into the defert and recovered his baggage, among which was a quadrant (of 3 feet radius) fupplied by Louis XV. from the Military Academy at Marfeilles, by means of which noble inftrument, now depofited in the mufeum at Kinnaird, Mr Bruce was enabled with precifion and accuracy to fix the relative fituations of the feveral remote places he vifited. On the 10th Jan. 1773, after more than 4 years abfence, he arrived at Cairo, where, by his manly and generous behaviour, he fo won the heart of Mahomet Bey that he obtained a firman, permitting the commanders of Englifh veffels belonging to Bombay and Bengal, to bring their fhips and merchandize to Suez, a place far preferable, in all refpects, to Jidda, to which they were formerly confined. Of this permiffion, which no European nation could ever before acquire, many Englifh veffels have already availed themfelves; and it has proved peculiarly ufeful both in public and private difpatches. Such was the worthy concluffion of his memorable journey through the defert, a journey, which, after many hardfhips and dangers, terminated in obtaining this great national benefit. At Cairo, Mr Bruce's earthly career had nearly been concluded by a diforder in his leg, occafioned by a worm in the flefh. This accident kept him 5 weeks in extreme agony, and his health was not re-eftablifhed till a year afterwards, at the baths of Poretta in Italy. On his return to Europe, Mr Bruce was received with all the admiration due to fo exalted a character. After paffing fome time in France, particularly at Montbard, with his friend the Comte de Buffon, by whom he was received with much hofpitality, and is mentioned with great applaufe, he at laft revifited his native country, from which he had been upwards of 12 years abfent. On his return the public curiofity was highly excited to fee a narrative of his travels; but this was retarded by various circumftances—particularly a number of law

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law ſuits; the long continued illneſs and death of his 2d wife, daughter of Mr Dundas of Fingaſk, and a ſevere ague which repeatedly attacked him for 16 years. At laſt, however, he got leiſure to put his materials in order; and, in 1790, his long expected work appeared in 5 large 4to volumes, embelliſhed with many plates, maps, and charts; at 5 guineas each copy. The work has been criticiſed and the author accuſed of vanity; but there appears, on the whole, ſuch an air of manly veracity, and circumſtances are mentioned, with a minuteneſs ſo unlike deceit, that a general impreſſion of truth irreſiſtibly fixes on the mind of the reader. There never perhaps exiſted a man better qualified for the hazardous enterpriſe he undertook, than Mr Bruce. His perſon was of the largeſt ſize, his height exceeding ſix feet, and his bulk and ſtrength proportionally great. He excelled in all corporeal accompliſhments, being a hardy practiſed and indefatigable ſwimmer, trained to exerciſe and fatigue of every kind, and his long reſidence among the Arabs had given him a more than ordinary facility in managing the horſe. In the uſe of fire arms he was ſo unerring, that in innumerable inſtances he never failed to hit the mark; and his dexterity in handling the ſpear and lance on horſeback was alſo uncommonly great. He was maſter of moſt languages, underſtanding the Greek perfectly; and was ſo well ſkilled in oriental literature, that he reviſed the New Teſtament in the Ethiopic, Samaritan, Hebrew, and Syriac, making many uſeful notes and remarks on difficult paſſages. He had applied from early youth to mathematics, drawing, and aſtronomy; and had acquired ſome knowledge of phyſic and ſurgery. His memory was aſtoniſhingly retentive, his judgment ſound and vigorous. He was dexterous in negociation, a maſter of public buſineſs, animated with the warmeſt zeal for his king and country, a phyſician in the camp or city, a ſoldier and horſeman in the field, while, at the ſame time, his breaſt was a ſtranger to fear, though he took every precaution to avoid danger. Of his learning and ſagacity, his delineation of the courſe of Solomon's fleet from Tarſhiſh to Ophir, his account of the cauſe of the inundations of the Nile, and his comprehenſive view of the Abyſſinian hiſtory, afford ample proofs. He expreſſes, throughout all his works, a deep and lively ſenſe of the care of a ſuperintending providence, without whoſe influence, he was convinced of the futility of all human ability and foreſight to preſerve from danger. He appears to have been a ſerious believer of the truth of Chriſtianity; and his illuſtrations of ſome parts of the ſacred writings are original and valuable. He was preparing a 2d edition of his travels for the preſs, when he died April 27th 1794, in conſequence of a fall down his own ſtair, in the 66th year of his age.

(2.) Bruce, Michael, an amiable young poet, of great merit, but of few years, was born at Kinneſs-wood, in Kinroſs-ſhire, March 27th 1746. He gave early ſigns of ſuperior genius, which led his parents, though in a humble ſphere of life, to give him a liberal education, intending him for divinity; ſo that in 1762, he was ſent to the univerſity of Edinburgh, where he contracted an acquaintance with the rev. Mr William Logan, who gave the public the firſt ſpecimen of his abilities, by publiſhing a few of his poems after his death. He kept a ſmall ſchool for children, (for a very ſmall ſalary) firſt at Gairney-bridge, near Kinroſs, and afterwatds at Foreſt-mill, near Alloa. At this place he began and finiſhed his excellent poem called *Lochleven*, of which he gave the following humorous account, in a letter to his friend Mr Arnot at Portmoak; "I have wrote a few lines of a deſcriptive poem, *cui titulus eſt Lochleven:* You may remember you hinted ſuch a thing to me; ſo I have ſet about it, and you may expect a dedication. I hope it will ſoon be finiſhed, as I every week add two lines, blot out 6, and alter 8. You ſhall hear the plan when I know it myſelf." In autumn 1766, his delicate conſtitution, ill calculated to bear the exertions of daily labour and the auſterities of a cold climate, under the preſſure of that rigid frugality, which his humble circumſtances rendered neceſſary, began to decline, and in the end of the year terminated in a deep conſumption. He therefore returned to his native village, to receive the conſolations of parental affection and the ſympathy of friendſhip. In ſpring he wrote an elegy on his own approaching death, and expired, July 6, 1767, in his 21ſt year. A ſmall collection of his *Poems on Several Occaſions*, was firſt publiſhed in 1770, by Mr Logan, who rather injudiciouſly mingled with them ſome poems of his own and others. Lord Craig having called the attention of the public to them, in 1779, in the Mirror, N° 36. they were reprinted in 1784. A new edition, with ſeveral more of his poems, which had not been publiſhed, has been lately printed at Edinburgh for the benefit of his mother, under the direction of the rev. Dr Baird. It is to be regretted that the patronage beſtowed upon his poſthumous works, was not exerted to render his ſituation more comfortable, while he lived. He united an ardent and enlightened ſenſe of religion with a lively imagination and a feeling heart. Elegance, ſimplicity, and tenderneſs, characteriſe him as a man and a poet. Under the names of *Eumelia* and *Peggy*, he celebrates in his poems an amiable young woman, whoſe modeſt beauty and artleſs ſimplicity had made an impreſſion on his ſuſceptible heart.

(3.) Bruce, Robert, ſon of the earl of Carrick, being competitor with Baliol for the crown of Scotland, loſt it by the arbitration of Edward I. of England, for generouſly refuſing to hold the crown of Scotland as depending on him, which his anceſtors had left him independent.

(4.) Bruce, Robert, grandſon of the preceding, (N° 3.) when Baliol broke his agreement with Edward, was eaſily perſuaded to ſide with him againſt Baliol, upon promiſe that he would ſettle him on the throne. Having contributed much to the breaking of Baliol's party, he demanded the accompliſhment of king Edward's promiſe, who is ſaid to have given him this anſwer: "What! have I nothing elſe to do but to conquer kingdoms for you?" However he recovered his crown, defeated the Engliſh in ſeveral battles, raiſed the glory of the Scots, and extended their dominions. See Scotland, History of.

(5.) Bruce, Robert, of Kinnaird, one of the miniſters of Edinburgh, under Q. Mary and James VI.

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VI. having preached and wrote with freedom againſt the king's interference with the church, he was baniſhed. Some of his ſermons are ſtill extant.

BRUCEA, in botany, a genus of the tetrandria order, belonging to the dioecia claſs of plants. We have met with no deſcription of this genus.

BRUCE CASTLE, a village in Middleſex, near Tottenham.

BRUCEFIELD, a village in Fife, near Dunfermline, where there is a lint mill.

BRUCEHILL, an extenſive moor in Aberdeenſhire, ſo named from Edward Bruce, brother of K. Robert I. where he encamped after the battle of Inverury, and from whence he marched in purſuit of the Cummings to Aiky-brae, where he engaged and routed them. Aiky fair is ſtill held on the ſpot where the battle was fought.

BRUCE's How, a long artificial trench about 8 feet deep, in which it is ſaid K. Robert Bruce concealed part of his army about the time of the battle of Inverury.

BRUCETOWN, a place in Angus-ſhire, in the pariſh of Alyth, where the Scots forces under K. Robert Bruce were ſtationed, previous to their engagement with the Engliſh, on the S. ſide of the Iſla.

BRUCHSAL, a town of Germany, in the palatinate of the Rhine, and biſhopric of Spires, ſituated on the river Satz. Lon. 8. 30. E. Lat. 49. 15. N.

BRUCHUS, in zoology, a genus of inſects belonging to the order of coleoptera. The feelers are filiform, and gradually increaſe in thickneſs. See *Plate* XLI. *fig.* 7. There are 7 ſpecies, viz.

1. BRUCHUS BACTRIS, with ſmooth elytra, a hoary body, and the hind part of the thighs oval. It frequents the palm trees of Jamaica.

2. BRUCHUS GLEDITSIÆ, with ſtriated elytra of the ſame length with the belly, a pitch-coloured body, and green feelers. It is a native of America.

3. BRUCHUS GRANARIUS has black elytra; the fore feet are red, and the hind feet are dentated. It infeſts the ſeeds of plants in different parts of Europe.

4. BRUCHUS PECTICORNIS, with comb-ſhaped feelers longer than the body. It is a native of Barbary and China.

5. BRUCHUS PISI has grey elytra interſperſed with white ſpots, and a white fundament with two black ſpots. It is a native of North America, and deſtroys whole fields of peaſe. It is now found in ſeveral of the ſouthern parts of Europe; where it does great injury to the corn.

6. BRUCHUS SEMINARIUS is black, with the baſe of the feelers and fore feet teſtaceous. It is of the ſize of a louſe, and a native of Europe.

7. BRUCHUS THEOBROMÆ, with whitiſh elytra interſperſed with black points. It frequents the theobromæ or chocolate trees in the Eaſt Indies.

BRUCK, or BRUGG. See BROUCK.

BRUCK-CASTLE, in Huntingdonſhire, between the Saltrys and Stilton.

BRUCKFIELD, or BEUKELINGS, William, a native of Dutch Flanders, merits to be commemorated, though we know little elſe of him, as the inventor of the Dutch method of pickling herrings. He died at Bierolict in 1397.

BRUCK-SMALK, a village in Suſſex, between Burwaſh and Itchingham.

BRUDE, or BRUDUS, the 76th and laſt king of the Picts but one. He defeated and ſlew Alpin king of Scots, A. D. 834; but having afterwards raiſed a great army to oppoſe his ſon Kenneth II. who claimed the kingdom of the Picts in right of his grand-mother and they proving mutinous, he died of grief 3 months after, having reigned only one year. He is ſaid to have given the iſland of Lochleven to the Culdees. *Stat. Acc.* XVI. 136.

BRUDE-BOUT, the 15th king of the Picts, according to an ancient MS. quoted by Dr Anderſon, in his Royal Genealogies. He is ſaid to have reigned 48 years, and from him, ſays the MS. were deſcended 30 kings, of ſimilar names, all beginning with *Brude*; ſuch as, *Brude-Gant*, *Brude-Leo*, *Brude Mund*, *Brude-Pant*, *Brude-Urgant*, &c. who reigned in Albany and Ireland for 150 years. From the prevalence of the name *Brude*, in this piece of ancient hiſtory, (whether real or fabulous) Geoffrey of Monmouth probably took the hint of calling his firſt fabulous king of Great Britain, BRUTUS.

BRUE, or BREW. See BRY.

BREUGHEL. See BREUGEL, N° 1—3.

BREULLETUS, in old records, a ſmall wood.

BRUERIA, in old records, bruſhwood.

BRUERN, a village in Oxfordſhire, near Banbury.

BRUERTON, near Rugley, Staffordſhire.

BRUFF, a town in Limerick, Ireland.

(1.) BRUGES, a ci-devant territory of the Auſtrian Netherlands, now annexed to the French republic, and probably conſtituting the new department of LYS.

(2.) BRUGES, a city of France, in the ci-devant Auſtrian Netherlands, now the capital of the new department of Lys. It is ſituated in a plain 8 m. from the ſea; and has a great number of canals, which lead to Ghent, Oſtend, Sluys, Newport, Furnes, Ypres, and Dunkirk. All the waters about Bruges are without any current; but they may be changed in half an hour, by opening the ſluices, and letting the water run into the ſea. It has ſeveral bridges: One built in 1739, of free ſtone, is very ſtately. Bruges was in a very flouriſhing condition upwards of 200 years ago, and every nation had a conſul in it for the maintenance of their rights; but ſince the enlargement of Amſterdam and Antwerp, trade is diminiſhed, and its inhabitants are not numerous enough for ſo large a place. However, there are ſtill many rich merchants, and a chamber for trade; and now that it is annexed to France, it will probably ſoon become populous. The fineſt ſquare in the city is the great market, in which ſtand the halls, with public galleries, and a large court in the middle, and on one of its ſides a high ſteeple ſupported only with 4 pillars. It is full of bells, with the moſt harmonious chimes in all the country. On the ſide of the great ſquare there is a ſtructure which ſerves for a public magazine for cloth. It is built on a canal, and ſupported by pillars in ſuch a manner, that ſmall veſſels can paſs under it, to croſs the city from the canal of Oſtend to that of Ghent. The ſquare where the Wedneſday's market is held, contains

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contains ſeveral walks between two rows of trees, and a new guardhouſe in the middle. The Burg is a large ſquare, in which is the town-houſe, built in the Gothic manner, and adorned with a variety of figures of the ancient counts and counteſſes of Flanders. In the ſame quarter there are ſeveral other public buildings. The church dedicated to the Virgin Mary has a high ſteeple, which ſerves as a ſea-mark for the ſhips that come to Oſtend; on the inſide are two tombs of copper gilt, of an extraordinary magnificence. Beſides the cathedral and two collegiate churches, there are 5 pariſh churches and 14 chapels. There are many alms-houſes and hoſpitals, one of which is called the *ſchool of Bogards*, where there are about 180 boys, ſome of whom are brought up to learning, others to trades, according to their genius. Their habit is cloth, and half of them wear blue and half red, with a black bonnet. There is alſo a ſchool for poor girls, to the number of 120, clothed with red and blue. Bruges has long been famed for taking care of widows and orphans. The parts about the city, which belong to it, are called *Franc of Bruges*, and contain 37 villages. They enjoyed much liberty even under their old government. The fortifications being but trifling, in time of war it always yields to the ſtrongeſt. The French took it in 1792, loſt it in 1793, but ſoon after retook it, and now include it in their republic. It is 8 miles E. of Oſtend, 24 NE. of Ghent, and 46 weſt of Antwerp. Lon. 3. 5. E. Lat. 51. 11. N.

BRUGG. See BROUCK.

BRUGGE, or BRUGGEN, } a town of Germany, in the circle of Lower Saxony.

BRUGHT, a river in Weſtphalia.

BRUGNETTO, a city of Italy, in the territory of Genoa, with a biſhop's ſee. Lon. 9. 5. E. Lat. 44. 20. N.

BRUHAM, NORTH, BRUHAM, SOUTH, } two villages in Somerſetſhire, near Bruton.

BRUIN, John DE, profeſſor of natural philoſophy and mathematics at Utrecht, was born at Gorcum in 1620. He had an uncommon ſkill in diſſecting animals, and was a great lover of experiments. He made alſo obſervations in aſtronomy. He publiſhed diſſertations *De vi altrice*; *De corporum gravitate et levitate*: *De cognitione Dei naturali*; *De lucis cauſa et origine*, &c. He had a diſpute with Iſaac Voſſius, to whom he wrote a letter printed at Amſterdam, 1663; wherein he criticiſes Voſſius's book *De natura et proprietate lucis*; and ſtrenuouſly maintains the hypotheſis of Deſcartes. He died in 1675, after he had been profeſſor 23 years: and his funeral oration was pronounced 4 days after by M. Grævis.

BRUIR. [Gael. *bruvir*, a noiſy water,] a rivulet of Perthſhire, in Athol.

(1.) * BRUISE. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] A hurt from ſomething blunt and heavy.—

One arm'd with metal, th' other with wood,
This fit for *bruiſe*, and that for blood. *Hudib.*

I ſince have labour'd
To bind the *bruiſes* of a civil war,
And ſtop the iſſues of the waſting blood. *Dryd.*

(2.) BRUISE, in ſurgery. See CONTUSION.

* *To* BRUISE. *v. a.* [*briſer*, Fr.] To cruſh or mangle with the heavy blow of ſomething not edged or pointed; to cruſh by any weight; to beat into groſs powder; to beat together coarſely.—

Fellows in arms, and my moſt loving friends,
Bruis'd underneath the yoke of tyranny. *Shak.*

And fix far deeper in his head their ſtings,
Than temporal death ſhall *bruiſe* the victor's heel,
Or theirs whom he redeems. *Milton.*

As in old chaos heav'n with earth confus'd,
And ſtars with rocks together cruſhed and *bruis'd*. *Waller.*

They beat their breaſts with many a *bruſing* blow,
Till they turn livid, and corrupt the ſnow. *Dryd.*

BRUISER, in mechanics, a concave tool uſed for grinding and poliſhing the ſpecula of teleſcopes. It is made of braſs, about a quarter of an inch thick, and hammered as near to the gage as poſſible. It is tinned on the convex ſide, and made equally broad at bottom and top. It ſerves to reduce the figures of the bones, when too convex, and to rub down any gritty matter that happens to be mixed with the putty, before the ſpeculum is applied to the poliſher.

* BRUISEWORT. *n. ſ.* An herb; the ſame with COMFREY.

BRUISING, in pharmacy, the operation of breaking or pounding a thing coarſely; frequently practiſed on roots, woods, and other hard bodies, to make them yield their juice more freely than they would do whole.

* BRUIT. *n. ſ.* [*bruit*, Fr.] Rumour; noiſe: report.—A *bruit* ran from one to the other, that the king was ſlain. *Sidney.*—Upon ſome *bruits* he apprehended a fear, which moved him to ſend to Sir William Herbert to remain his friend. *Hayward.*—

I am not
One that rejoices in the common wreck,
As common *bruit* doth put it. *Shak.*

* *To* BRUIT. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To report, to noiſe abroad; to rumour. Neither the verb nor the noun are now much in uſe.—

His death,
Being *bruited* once, took fire and heat away,
From the beſt temper'd courage in his troops. *Shakeſpeare.*

—It was *bruited*, that I meant nothing leſs than to go to Guiana. *Raleigh.*

BRUMÆ. See BRUMALIA.

BRUMAIRE, [*i. e.* the foggy month, Fr. from *brume*, fog,] the 2d month in the new French calendar. It begins Oct. 22d and ends Nov. 20th, conſiſting, like all the other months, of 30 days.

* BRUMAL. *adj.* [*brumalis*, Lat.] Belonging to the winter.—About the *brumal* ſolſtice, it hath been obſerved, unto a proverb, that the ſea is calm, and the winds do ceaſe, till the young ones are excluded, and forſake their neſts. *Brown.*

BRUMALIS PLANTÆ, in botany (from *bruma*, winter); plants which flower in our winter: common about the Cape.

BRUMALIA, in Roman antiquity, feſtivals of Bacchus celebrated twice a-year; the firſt on the 12th of the kalends of March, and the other on the 18th of the kalends of November. They were inſtituted by Romulus, who during theſe feaſts uſed to entertain the ſenate. Among other heathen feſtivals which the primitive Chriſtians were much

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much inclined to obſerve, Tertullian mentions the brumæ or brumalia.

BRUMFIELD, 2 villages; 1. in Cumberland, 4 miles from Wigton: 2. in Somerſetſh. 5 miles from Taunton, and 5 SW. of Bridgewater.

BRUMHAM, two villages: 1. two miles from Bedford: 2. in Wilts, 3 miles NW. of Devizes.

BRUMLEY, in Northumberland, between Newcaſtle and Newbiggen.

BRUMOY, Peter, a learned Jeſuit, born at Rouen in 1668, diſtinguiſhed himſelf in his youth by his talents for the belles lettres; and during his whole life was beloved for his probity, virtue, and goodneſs of heart. He wrote many works, the moſt conſiderable of which is his Theatre of the Greeks. He died at Paris in 1742.

BRUMPTON, 2 villages in Yorkſh. 2 m. W. of Northallerton: 2. five m. NW. of Scarborough.

BRUMPTON-RALPH, in Someſetſhire, 2 miles W. of Stokegomer.

BRUMPTON-REGIS, in Somerſetſhire, 2 miles NE. of Dulverton.

BRUMSTAL, or BRUNSAL, in Yorkſhire, near Appletree-wick.

BRUMWELL, in Norfolkſhire, 3 miles N. of Brandon ferry.

(1.) BRUN, Anthony LE, an ambaſſador of Spain, famous for his ſkill in negociating, was of an ancient and noble family, and born at Dole in 1600. He was attorney-general in the parliament of Dole; during which time he had a hand in all the ſtate negociations which concerned the provinces. He was ſent afterwards by Philip IV. to the diet of Ratiſbon, and from thence to the court of the emperor Ferdinand III. He was one of the plenipotentiaries at the conference of Munſter held in 1643; where, he far exceeded them all in capacity. The king of Spain was particularly indebted to him for the peace which the Dutch made at Munſter, excluſively of France, and the intriguing turn which he ſhowed upon this occaſion made him dreaded ever after by French ambaſſadors. He was a man of letters as well as of politics; and employed his pen as well as his tongue in the ſervice of his maſter. He died at the Hague, during his embaſſy, in 1654.

(2.) BRUN, Charles LE, was deſcended of a family of diſtinction in Scotland, and born in 1619. His father was a ſtatuary by profeſſion. He diſcovered ſuch an early inclination for painting, that at 3 years of age he uſed to deſign on the hearth and ſides of the chimney, with coals; and at 12 he drew the picture of his uncle ſo well, that it ſtill paſſes for a fine piece. His father being employed in the gardens at Sequier, the chancellor placed him with Simon Vouet, an eminent painter. He was afterwards ſent to Fountainbleau, to take off ſome of Raphael's pieces. He ſent him next to Italy, and ſupported him there for ſix years. Le Brun, in his return, met with the celebrated Pouſſin, by whoſe converſation he greatly improved, and contracted a friendſhip with him which laſted as long as their lives. A painting of St Stephen, which he finiſhed in 1651, raiſed his reputation to the higheſt pitch. Soon after, the king made him his firſt painter, conferred on him the order of St Michael, and ſpent two hours every day to ſee him work, while he was painting the family of Darius at Fountainbleau. About 1662, he began his five large pieces of the hiſtory of Alexander the Great, in which he is ſaid to have ſet the actions of that famous conqueror, in a more glorious light than Quintus Curtius hath done in his hiſtory. He procured ſeveral advantages for the royal academy of painting and ſculpture at Paris, and formed the plan of another for the ſtudents of his own nation at Rome. The king gave him the direction of all his works, particularly of his royal manufactory at the Gobelins, where he had a handſome houſe with a genteel ſalary. He had a vaſt inventive genius, which extended to arts of every kind. He was well acquainted with the manners and hiſtory of all nations; and was the author of two treatiſes; 1. on phyſiognomy, and 2. on the different characters of the paſſions. His talents as a painter, except for landſcapes, were univerſal. His compoſitions command the admiration of the niceſt judges. The pieces that gained him the greateſt reputation were, thoſe which he finiſhed at Fountainbleau, the great ſtaircaſe at Verſailles, and eſpecially the grand gallery there, which is the laſt of his works, and is ſaid to have taken him up 14 years. He died at Paris in 1690.

(3.) * BRUN, BRAN, BROWN, BOURN, BURN, are are all derived from the Saxon, *born*, *bourn*, *brunna*, *burna*; all ſignifying a river or brook. *Gibſon.*

BRUNANBURGH, an ancient town of Yorkſhire, now called BROUGH, where a bloody battle was fought between K. Athelſtan, and an army of Scots, Danes, Welſh, and Iriſh: A. D. 938.

BRUNDAL, or } two villages: 1. in Lancaſhire,
BRUNDALL, } SW. of Houghton Tower: 2. three miles E. of Norwich.

BRUNDEN, in Eſſex, near Sudbury.

BRUNDISIUM, or BRUNDUSIUM, in ancient geography, a town of Calabria, with the beſt harbour in Italy. It was a very ancient town, and belonged originally to the Salentines; but was taken by the Romans about A. A. C. 256. It is now called BRINDISI; which ſee.

BRUNDISH, in Suffolk, 4 miles NE. of Framlingham.

BRUNDISH-HALL, in Eſſex, 2 m. from Onger.

BRUNDUSIUM. See BRINDISI and BRUNDISIUM.

BRUNELLA, in botany, the plant ſelf-heal. See SANICULA.

* BURNETT. *n. ſ.* [*burnette*, French.] A woman with a brown complexion.—Your fair women therefore thought of this faſhion, to inſult the olives and the *burnetts*. *Addiſon.*

BURNETTO, a town in Pidemont.

BURNFELSIA. See BRUNSFELSIA.

BRUNIA, in botany; a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the pentandria claſs of plants. The flowers are aggregate or cluſtered; the ſtaments inſerted into the heels of the petals; the ſtigma is bifid; the ſeeds are ſolitary, and the capſule is bilocular. There are 8 ſpecies.

* BRUNION. *n. ſ.* [*bragnon*, Fr.] A ſort of fruit between a plum and a peach. *Trevoux.*

BRUNLESS, a village of S. Wales, in Brecknockſhire, near Crick-Howel.

BRUNN, a village in Howden, Yorkſhire.

(1.) BRUNO, [*i. e.* brown, Ital.] the Latin name aſſumed

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assumed by the late Dr Brown, in his *Elementa Medicinæ*; whence the epithet BRUNONIAN.

(2.) BRUNO, Jordano, an atheistical writer, born at Nolo in Naples. About A. D. 1582 he began to call in question some of the tenets of the Romish church, which occasioned his retiring to Geneva: but after two years stay there, he expressed his aversion to Calvinism in such a manner that he was expelled the city. After having staid some time at Lyons, Thoulouse, and Paris, he came to London, and continued two years in the house of Mr Castleneau the French ambassador. He was very well received by Q. Elizabeth and the politer part of the court. His principal friends were Sir Philip Sidney and Sir Fulk Greville. With these and some others of their club, Bruno, held assemblies; but as they treated of subjects of a very delicate nature, which could not suit the taste or capacity of every body, they kept the door always shut, and none but select persons were admitted into their company. At Sir Philip's request, he composed his *Spaccio della Bestia Triumphante*, which was printed in 8vo, 1584, and dedicated to that gentleman. This work, which is remarkable for nothing but its impiety, we are told in the Spectator, N° 389, sold at an auction in London for 30l. From England he went to Wittemberg, and from thence to Prague, where he printed some tracts, in which he openly discovered his atheistical principles. After visiting some other towns in Germany, he made a tour to Venice; where he was apprehended by the inquisition, tried, condemned, and refusing to retract, was burnt at the stake, Feb. 9, 1600.

(1.) BRUNONIAN, *adj.* belonging to the new medical system, of Dr Brown.

(2.) BRUNONIANS, *n. s.* the followers of Dr Brown's system, or practice of medicine.

(3.) BRUNONIAN SYSTEM, the system of medicine, discovered by the late Dr Brown, and explained at large in his *Elements of Medicine*. It might appear proper to give an account of this doctrine under the general article MEDICINE; but the new system differs so widely from all former systems of that science, that we think it more consistent with propriety to delineate it under its own proper title. The following will give a sufficient view of the outlines of this doctrine, to such as are unacquainted with it: and for its minutiæ we must refer to the Dr's own works, and those of Dr Beddoes, Dr Jones, &c. See § 4—10.

(4.) BRUNONIAN SYSTEM, ACCOUNT OF THE. The human body, particularly the system of solids it consists of, is a form of living matter, whose characteristics are sensation and motion. The capability of being affected by external powers is termed *excitability*; the agents, *stimuli*, or exciting powers; the result *excitement*. Without this property, (excitability,) the body would be dead inert matter: By this property, it becomes living matter; by this property, called into action by the exciting powers, it becomes a living system. While the *stimuli* act on the *excitability* with a sufficient degree of power, then is the pleasant sensation of health; when they raise the excitement above this point, or depress it below it, disease takes place: when the stimuli cease to act, or the system to feel their power, death ensues. EXCITABILITY is a property of living matter, peculiar and inherent, but it is a property which Dr Brown did not pretend to explain. He left it as Sir Isaac Newton did his *Attraction*, as a property not to be investigated. Of this energy or power, there is assigned to every living system, at the commencement of life, a certain quantity or proportion; but its quantity differs in each, and in the same body it is found to change, for the excitability, according to circumstances, may be 'abundant, increased, accumulated, superfluous, exhausted, consumed, &c.' The STIMULI, or exciting powers are of two classes: External, and Internal. The external stimuli are heat, light, sound, air, and motion; food, drink, medicines, and whatever else is taken into the body, not excepting poisons and contagions. The internal are the functions of the body, the blood, the secretions, muscular exertion, and finally the powers of the mind, as sensation, passion, and thought, Dr Beddoes, we know not for what reason, ranks "the blood and secreted fluids" among the *external* stimuli. EXCITEMENT is Life; the natural movements of the machine, and the functions resulting from these, as sensation, reflection, and voluntary motion; which as they immediately flow from the exciting powers, are vigorous when they are strong, languid when they are weak, and cease when they are taken away entirely. Thus our body is continually moved by external agents, and life is a *forced state*. Our weak frame has an unceasing tendency to dissolution, which is opposed only by the incessant application of *exciting powers*; which are the sources of life, and which, being partially or completely withdrawn, are immediately followed by disease or death. It is also a principle of this doctrine, that "all stimuli by acting on the excitability exhaust it." Thus the stimuli of food, air, motion, passion, and thought, have supported the body through the labours of the day: they have supported the functions by acting on the excitability; in the evening it is exhausted by their continued operation; they have no longer the same power; the functions fail; we sink into rest and continue in sleep, unaffected by stimuli, renewing by sleep that excitability, which had been exhausted by the labours or by the pleasures of the day; we rise with restored excitability; we feel a new power of excitement in every object around us; we are refreshed in the morning, and languid at night, and our whole life is an alternation of motion and rest, of action and sleep, of apathy and pleasure, of wasting our excitability by day in labour, or enjoyment, and of recruiting it by night by the abstraction of all stimulant powers. The same philosophy extends to the duration of life: In childhood excitablity is abundant in *quantity*, as being little exhausted; but it is low in power, because the tender stamina and accumulated excitability of children can neither suffer nor support high excitement. Their excitablity is so abundant, that they are easily supported by weak diet and low exciting powers, and therefore most of their diseases are diseases of weakness. In youth and manhood the excitability is yet entire, the stamina are strong: the powerful stimuli are applied, and high passions prevail: these are the periods of vigour, and the age of

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of inflammatory diſeaſe. In old age the ſtamina are worn, the excitability is exhauſted, the common ſtimuli have loſt the power, and their ſyſtem, begins to decline; we have weakneſs of body, imbecility of mind, and aſthenic diſeaſes. We may, laſt of all have recourſe to more generous deit and raiſe the ſtimulant powers by ſubſtituting wine to water, or brandy to wine; thus perhaps excitement may be a while ſupported, and life prolonged; but in a few years, theſe alſo fail. This doctrine farther teaches, that our body is never moved but by exciting powers. None but ſtimuli affect our ſyſtem: That there are *direct* SEDATIVES in nature is eſteemed an unphiloſophical and vulgar error. In ſtimuli there is a gradation, which being relative to the ſyſtem, deceives our ſenſe; for, as ſome ſtimumuli are powerful, and others weak, a low ſtimulus, applied after a more powerful one, will ſtimulate leſs than the former; will allay the motions, which the former had excited, and will, therefore, be named a *ſedative*. Take heat as an example of this: *cold* is but an abſtraction of *heat*, yet it is thought a poſitive exiſtence; and cold is named a *ſedative*, and heat a *ſtimulant* power. To detect this deception of ſenſe, plunge the right hand into water at the heat of 150°; the left into melting ſnow; withdraw both, and plunge them at once into water at 100°, it will prove at once ſtimulant and ſedative; cold or ſedative to the right hand, and hot or ſtimulant to the left. Here we clearly ſee, that the effect is not always the ſame, but is proportioned to the ſtate of the body; and as cold is thus only an abſtraction of heat, ſo is *fear* an abſtraction of *confidence*, *grief* of *joy*, *diſappointment* of *hope*; &c. ſo is *faſting* an abſtraction of the wonted ſtimulus of *food*, *bleeding* of the uſual ſtimulus of *blood*, and ſo on. Health, then, is the due operation of ſtimuli on a well regulated excitability, producing a moderate excitement, and a pleaſant ſenſation; moving the whole ſyſtem with a juſt degree of power, and giving all the functions their due energy and tone. ASTHENIC DISEASE, diſeaſe of debility, or of weakneſs, is the reſult of ſtimuli applied in a low degree, or of the ſyſtem leſs eaſily excited. STHENIC DISEASE, or diſeaſe of ſtrength, is the reſult of ſtimuli applied in too great a degree, or of a ſyſtem too ſuſceptible of excitement The firſt is depreſſion of excitement below the healthy ſtate: it produces languid motions and functions; and requires excitement for its cure. The ſecond is a ſtrong ſtate of the ſyſtem, wound up to too high a pitch of excitement. It is an exuberance of health and ſtrength. It is marked by violent movements, and is cured by abſtraction of ſtimuli. Thus are all our maladies either diſeaſes of weakneſs or of exceſſive ſtrength, and this is the foundation of the *Brunonian ſcale*, (ſee *Plate* XLVII.) which has for its middle point *health*; below that are arranged the diſeaſes of weakneſs; above it the diſeaſes of exceſſive ſtrength; and in both diviſions of the ſcale, diſeaſes are ſo arranged, that the worſt forms are ſet off at the greateſt diſtance from the middle point, to mark them as the wideſt deviations from the healthy ſtate. To illuſtrate ſtill further the nature of theſe two forms of diſeaſe, we muſt obſerve their reſpective cauſes. *Sthenia*, or exceſſive ſtrength, is ſimply the effect of many or powerful ſtimuli acting on the ſyſtem. *Aſthenia* is the immediate effect of withdrawing theſe; but aſthenia is not ſo ſimple as its oppoſite, ſtate, for debility varies in its nature according to its various cauſes. 1. By abſtraction of of exciting powers is produced a ſpecies of debility, named *direct*. 2. By long or violent application of ſtrong exciting powers, the excitability is exhauſted; both the excitement and the ſtrength fail: this ſpecies of debility is named *indirect*. 3. When the exciting powers are withdrawn, and the direct debility produced, it is at the ſame time combined with a new ſpecies. By merely withdrawing the ſtimuli, ſuch weakneſs would be produced as ſhould be temporary only, and might be done away by reſtoring the uſual exciting powers; but where the ſtimuli are withdrawn, excitability is accumulated, and when it is accumulated in an undue degree, it cannot bear the uſual ſtimuli, and will not give out the healthy degree of excitement. Thus DIRECT DEBILITY, cauſed by the abſence of exciting powers, is attended with *accumulation* of excitability. INDIRECT DEBILITY, cauſed by ſuperabundant ſtimuli, is attended with *exhauſted* excitability: The former is moſt eaſily cured, as we have but to apply ſtimuli, and raiſe the excitement; The latter is difficultly cured, for the excitability being in ſome degree exhauſted, the ſyſtem is leſs ſuſceptible, and has leſs excitability to operate upon for the reſtoration of health. The abſtraction of ſtimuli is an immediate cauſe of weakneſs; high excitement is a ſtate of the ſyſtem which the excitability cannot long endure without being exhauſted, ſo that ſtimuli themſelves produce ultimate weakneſs. Therefore, ſince high excitement is temporary only, and has but one cauſe, while weakneſs is a permanent ſtate, and has many cauſes, the diſeaſes of debility muſt in a very great proportion exceed in number the diſeaſes of exceſſive ſtrength; and diſeaſes of exceſſive ſtrength muſt ultimately end there. If 96 of 100 diſeaſes ariſe from weakneſs, the concluſion muſt be of the firſt importance in practice. Hence it is a general principle in this ſyſtem, that though there be many individual diſeaſes, there are but two ſtates of the ſyſtem, and two general methods of cure; and though it admits the difference between local and general diſeaſes, yet it does not allow that a local ſthenic diſeaſe can exiſt for any time along with a general aſthenic diatheſis, or *vice verſa*. For the cure of all thoſe diſeaſes which ſtand above the point of health, nothing more is required than withdrawing the ſtimuli of food, drink, heat, &c. or by evacuation, as bleeding, vomiting, and purging. For all thoſe diſeaſes which ſtand below the point of health, we uſe the natural ſtimuli of diet, beef tea, wine, heat, &c. or the leſs natural ſtimuli of the pharmacopœia, the chief of which are opium, æther, volatile alkali, muſk, camphor, brandy, gin, &c. The cauſe of the one form of diſeaſe is the cure of the other; in the one we raiſe the excitement till it arrives at the point of health, in the other we depreſs it to the ſame point; having effected this by the powers of medicine, we keep it there by attention to regimen, and the great point in the Brunonian practice is to hit the point of health,

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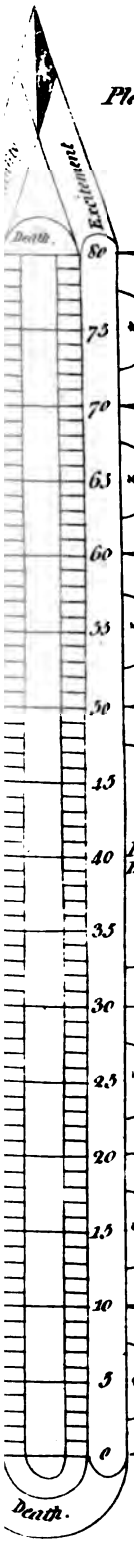
Scale of Excitability and Excitement;

Planned by Dr *John Brown, and first drawn up by* Dr *Samuel Lynch of Antigua;*

And prefixed to his inaugural Dissertation in 1786.

NB. *Dr Lynch's Causes & Cure are somewhat abridged.*



Diseases.		Causes. & Cure.
Apoplexy. *Palsy.* *Pestilence.* *Malignant Fever.* *Typhoid Cynanche.*	*Confluent Small Pox.* *Dropsy of the Breast.* *Pulmonary Consumption.* *Contagious Dysentery &c.*	*Indirect Debility from excessive stimuli.* Cure. *Opium. æther. Brandy. Bark. &c.*
Synocha. *Phrenzy.* *Inflam: Sore throat.* *Small Pox.*	*Measles.* *Inflammation of the lungs.* *Dysentery.* *Madness &c.*	*Highly increased excitement.* Cure. *Spare diet, cold bleeding, purging, emetics.*
Synochus. *Rheumatism.* *Catarrh.* *Scarlet Fever.*	*Miliary Fever.* *Chicken Pox.* *Inflammation of the Eyes &c.*	*Less increased excitement.* Cure. *To diminish the excitement as above in a less degree.*

The Degrees of health are marked in the scale between 30° & 50° because, unless at 40° perfect health does not take place.

For as among the great variety of stimuli daily applied, there are some kinds of meat and drink and various passions of the mind, sometimes acting more severely, the excitement seldom attains the middle point, but for the most part varies between 30° and 50°.

Diseases.		Causes. & Cure.
Intermittent Fevers. *Simple Colic.* *Depraved Digestion.* *Hypochondria.*	*Hysteria.* *Bleeding at the Nose.* *Excessive flow of the Menses.* *Suppression of D°*	*Diminished excitement or direct Debility.* Cure. *Opium. æther. Spirits. Wine. Port. &c.*
Rheumatalgia. *Cholera.* *Epilepsy.* *St Vitus's dance.*	*Rickets.* *Spitting of Blood.* *Kings Evil &c.*	*Direct Debility.* Cure *as above with cautious use of the Stimuli.*
Typhus Fever. *Colic of Poictou.* *Gout.* *Tetanus.*	*Scurvy.* *Profuse flow of Urine.* *Dropsy.* *Jaundice &c.*	*Direct Debility.* Cure. *as above but with still more caution.*

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health, neither to ſtop ſhort of this point, nor to paſs beyond it; for by either imprudence we may do much harm. By profuſion of ſtimuli we may convert a diſeaſe of weakneſs into a diſeaſe of inflammation; by too ſevere an abſtraction of ſtimuli, we may run into the oppoſite exceſs, converting into a diſeaſe of weakneſs what was originally a diſeaſe of violent inflammation. The uſe of ſtimuli in aſthenic diſeaſes is to be regulated by the cauſe. In all diſeaſes of indirect weakneſs, where excitability has been exhauſted, the ſtrength muſt be raiſed by the immediate application of the moſt powerful ſtimuli, which are to be ſlowly reduced in quantity or ſtrength, till moderate or ordinary ſtimuli ſuffice for ſupporting the excitement of health. In all caſes of direct weakneſs, where excitability is accumulated, the immediate application of powerful ſtimuli would deſtroy. Weak ſtimuli muſt be firſt uſed, the ſuperabundant excitability muſt be gradually waſted, and the doſes very ſlowly increaſed, till we riſe to the point of health.

(5.) BRUNONIAN SYSTEM, DANGER ARISING FROM THE. Dr Brown's frequent preſcriptions of wine, ſpirits, and opium, to his patients in aſthenic diſeaſes, with his repeated recommendations of theſe ſtimuli in his lectures and writings, raiſed a very general prejudice againſt his ſyſtem and practice, among thoſe who knew nothing of either, but from vague report. They alledged that, though he might cure the diſeaſes of his patients, he would infallibly corrupt their morals, by habituating them to ſuch dangerous medicines. From theſe charges, Dr Beddoes vindicates the doctrine, in the following words: (p. clix.) "The Brunonian ſyſtem has been frequently charged with promoting intemperance; the objection is ſerious, but the view already given of its principles ſhews it to be groundleſs. No writer had inſiſted ſo much upon the dependence of life upon external cauſes, or ſo ſtrongly ſtated the inevitable conſequences of exceſs: And there are no means of promoting morality upon which we can rely, except the knowledge of the true relations between man and other beings or bodies. For by this knowledge we are directly led to ſhun what is hurtful, and purſue what is ſalutary.—It may be ſaid that the author's life diſproves the juſtneſs of this repreſentation. His life, however, only ſhews the ſuperior power of other cauſes, and of bad habits in particular; and I acknowledge the little efficacy of inſtruction when bad habits are formed. Its great uſe conſiſts in preventing their formation, for which reaſon, popular inſtruction in medicine would contribute—to the happineſs of the human ſpecies.—But though the principles of the ſyſtem did not correct the propenſities of its inventor, it does not follow that they tend to produce the ſame propenſities in others." On the contrary, what ſtronger motive of temperance can philoſophy itſelf inculcate, than the Brunonian doctrine does, when it teaches, that every act of intemperance and exceſs tends to exhauſt the very principle of life?

(6.) BRUNONIAN SYSTEM, IMPERFECTIONS OF THE. Dr Beddoes, though he ſeems t be a decided Brunonian, has nevertheleſs, with great candour as well as judgment, pointed out a few o- the imperfections of the new doctrine. 1. He obſerves, that, as Dr Brown "aſſumes, that a certain portion of excitability is originally aſſigned to every living ſyſtem, by his very aſſumption, he denies its continual production, ſubſequent diffuſion and expenditure." Dr Beddoes thinks that the brain is deſtined to ſecrete a ſucceſſive ſupply of this principle. 2. He next objects againſt the Dr's "uniformity of operation in ſtimulants."—"Heat and wine (he juſtly obſerves) can never act in the ſame manner, for no perſon is intoxicated by heat." He adds, "Had it been once allowed by Brown, that the different conſtituent parts of the body bear a different relation to the ſame agents, he muſt have admitted the operation on ſpecific ſtimulants to an unlimited extent." On the ſubject of *Predispoſition to Diſeaſe*, he obſerves that "though facts have been noted, the principle lies involved in total obſcurity. Brown does not purpoſely elude the difficulty, but his principles lead him beſide it; and we may doubt, whether the term *predispoſition* ought in ſtrict propriety to have appeared in his Elements; for predispoſition is with him a ſlight diſeaſe, differing only in degree from that into which the perſon predispoſed falls." 4. "There are ſeveral other opinions, (he adds,) which, in a complete reviſal of the Brunonian ſyſtem, would require particular examination, ſuch as his doctrine concerning hereditary diſeaſes," (which Brown denies the exiſtence of,) "the peculiar ſtate of ſthenic inflammation, and the nature of the paſſions." 5. And in a note upon Brown's preface, he ſtiles the Dr's opinion, that 'nearly all the diſeaſes of children depend on debility,'—"a groſs and dangerous error," though he admits that "thouſands of them are cut off at an early period of life, and tens of thouſands kept languiſhing in miſery by aſthenic diſeaſes, for want of the neceſſaries of life." This admiſſion of Dr Beddoes might have ſuperſeded his criticiſm. Dr Brown did not ſay *all* diſeaſes of children were aſthenic. But if thouſands and tens of thouſands are, they may be ſurely ſaid to be *nearly* all ſuch. Neither Dr Brown nor any man in his ſenſes would preſcribe ſtimulants in croup, peripneumony, or the firſt ſtage of hooping cough; though we have known the moſt ſpeedy and effectual cures performed by opium in this laſt diſeaſe, after the ſthenic diatheſis was gone.

(7.) BRUNONIAN SYSTEM, OBJECTIONS TO THE. The following are among the principal objections that have been urged by the opponents of this doctrine. 1. Medicines and the other exciting powers do not act as mere ſtimuli *only*. If they did they muſt have all one common nature and differ only in degree; whereas they differ widely in their effects; one produces hilarity, as wine, &c. another coma, as opium; one poiſon produces phrenzy, another palſy, a third convulſions, &c. If ipecacuanha operate on the ſtomach, jalap on the bowels, cream of tartar on the kidneys, and mercury on the ſalivary glands, they muſt have ſome peculiar or *ſpecific* qualities ſuperadded to their ſtimulant power, and the latter muſt be but a ſubordinate effect. If bark cure an intermittent fever, or mercury the veneral diſeaſe, which brandy, opium, and even æther cannot, then it is the duty of the phyſician to diſcover theſe ſecret, peculiar

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and inexplicable powers, and to operate by them, without regard to their ſtimulant effects. 2. In oppoſition to the Brunonian doctrine, that there is not a *direct ſedative* in nature, it is argued, that fixed air, and the contagion of fever, dyſentery, the plague, &c. are direct ſedatives, which do not ſtimulate in the ſmalleſt degree. 3. It has been urged, that if the new doctrine be true, there ought to be no ſuch thing as an *incurable* diſeaſe. All diſeaſes, whether above or below the point of health ought to yield to the abſtraction or application of the ſtimuli, as long as the excitability is not totally exhauſted 4. In ſhort, it has been argued, that if the Brunonian ſyſtem be true, there is no uſe for *Noſology* or *Phyſiology*; very little for *Chemiſtry* or *Botany*, as a few ſtimuli with an emetic and cathartic or two are ſufficient to ſupply a Brunonian Laboratory; and not much even for *Anatomy* itſelf, that grand foundation of medical knowledge. But whatever deficiencies, imperfections, or inexplicable myſteries, may ſtill adhere to this ſyſtem, it is allowed, even by its opponents, to have contributed greatly to the improvement of medical practice; to have conſiderably diminiſhed the former too frequent preſcriptions of copious bleeding on almoſt every occaſion; and to have leſſened the number of evacuant doſes, and increaſed that of coroborant medicines, in many diſeaſes of weakneſs, where the oppoſite practice was manifeſtly injurious. And it is allowed on all hands to be the duty of every medical practitioner to examine it without prejudice or partiality.

(8.) BRUNONIAN SYSTEM, ORIGIN OF THE. Some have aſſerted that Dr Brown borrowed the firſt idea of his doctrine from ſome hints thrown out by his then intimate friend Dr Cullen; but Dr Beddoes, after quoting the paſſage from Cullen's Inſtitutions, (parag. cxxx.) where *excitement* is mentioned, ſhews plainly that when Dr Cullen wrote it, "his thoughts were turned from the living body to an electrical machine," and that, "his idea of excitement has therefore nothing in common with that of Brown."—Others have affirmed, that Dr Brown only revived the old doctrine of the METHODIC SECT, and that Themiſon was the diſcoverer and Theſſalus and Soranus the improvers, of the doctrine now called *Brunonian*. But nothing can be more diſtant from the truth than this. The methodic doctrine of *ſtricture* and *relaxation* bears no analogy to Brown's definitions of ſthenic and aſthenic diſeaſes; and the doctrine of SPASM itſelf is not more oppoſite to the Brunonian ſyſtem, than Themiſon's notion of a *third* claſs of diſeaſes, which partook of both ſtricture and relaxation. The truth is incontrovertible, that the diſcovery is wholly Brown's own. The cauſe which led to it is narrated by himſelf in the introduction to his *Elements of Medicine*. In his 36th year he had his firſt fit of the gout, and 6 years after, his ſecond—both when he had been living more abſtemiouſly than uſual. This diſeaſe being "ſaid to depend on plethora, and exceſſive vigour, vegetable aliment was enjoined, wine was forbidden, and the careful execution of that plan of cure was promiſed to be rewarded with exemption from the diſeaſe. A whole year paſſed in ſtrict adherence to this regimen. During this year inſtead of exemption from the diſeaſe he had no leſs than four fits, exceedingly violent and painful, and of very long duration. In ſhort the whole year, except 15 days, was divided between limping and excruciating pain." From this tedious and fruitleſs attempt to cure the diſeaſe, he began to reaſon thus: "If according to the theory, over-proportion of blood and exceſs of vigour were the cauſe of the diſeaſe, how were ſuch diſtreſſing ſymptoms to be explained? Why had not the diſeaſe made its firſt appearance 12 or 15 years before, at a time when there was in reality more blood and vigour in the ſyſtem? Why did it only come on after a reduction of diet, conſiderably both in degree and duration? Why had ſo great an interval during which he had recurred to his uſual full diet, intervened between the firſt fit and theſe recent ones? And why had the diſeaſe twice, almoſt inſtantaneouſly, come on, after the change of a full diet to a ſpare one?" From this he was led to conſider the effects of food, drink, &c. upon the human body;—hence to conclude, that the gout was a diſeaſe of debility, and from thence to try the effect of an invigorating plan of regimen; which proved ſo effectual, as to reduce the diſeaſe within the two following years, in the proportion of 1 to 48. Thus from perſonal experience of the inefficacy of the former medical practice in the gout, he was led to review the whole old ſyſtem of medicine, and having thus diſcovered the firſt principles of his new theory, to extend and apply them to the whole ſcience."

(9.) BRUNONIAN SYSTEM, PROPAGATION OF THE. Of the rapid and extenſive propagation of the New Doctrine, Dr Beddoes gives the following account: (p. clxiii) "Three years ago, (ſays he,) I had occaſion to obſerve, that the opinions of Brown had been ſo widely diffuſed by oral communication, as to effect the whole practice of medicine in Great Britain. In pamphlets recommending repeated doſes of opium to ſupport excitement, and in other publications, it would be eaſy to detect attempts to purloin his language and ideas; but it is unneceſſary, for though literature has always been infeſted by a race of pilferers, original genius has ſeldom been injured by their diſhoneſt practices. Brown cannot now be defrauded of his juſt reputation. His writings have lately been republiſhed, and are gaining credit on the continent of Europe. In America his ſuperiority to preceding ſyſtematic authors, appears to be acknowledged alike by ſtudents and profeſſors." Among theſe he quotes in a note, Dr "Ruſh on the yellow fever, and ſeveral inaugural Diſſertations lately publiſhed at Philadelphia:" after which he adds, "Since the preceding pages were printed, I have received further indubitable proofs of the aſcendency which the truths, promulgated by Brown, are gaining over men's minds in different parts of Europe. A tranſlation of his "OBSERVATIONS," under the title of *Compendio della nuova dottrina medica di G. Brown*, was puliſhed at Pavia in 1792. It has been ſince republiſhed at Venice, and ſo has Moſcati's edition of the *Elementa*. The tranſlation is by Dr Raſori, who has prefixed a ſenſible introduction, and added many judicious notes. In a letter, accompanying a copy of his tranſlation,

Dr

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Dr Rasori says, "In the University of Pavia, undoubtedly one of the first in Europe, there is hardly a student endowed with talents, who is not a Brunonian. The doctrine begins equally to spread in Germany. Many of the periodical publications of that country have noticed it, and the *Elementa* have lately been published there. A friend at Genoa assures me, that several surgeons to French men of war have informed him, that Brown is known and much admired in France. In the University of Pavia, Brown is in high esteem even with some of the most respectable professors; and in other parts of Italy, I can assert from my own knowledge, that old physicians have not refused their sanction to many of the Brunonian principles."

(10.) BRUNONIAN SYSTEM, VALUE AND ADVANTAGES OF THE. Having taken notice of the imperfections of the New Doctrine, (§ 6.) as well as of the principal objections to it, (§ 7.) we would not do justice either to it, or the reader, if we were to pass over its peculiar merits and advantages. "The distinguishing merit of Brown (says Beddoes,) is obvious: he avoided all false analogies, and confined himself within the proper sphere of observation for a physician. Hence if he has not always discovered the truth, he is seldom forsaken by the spirit of philosophy.—Before him investigations relative to medicine, had been carried on as rationally as if to discover the qualities of the horse, the naturalist were to direct his attention to the movements of a windmill."—"In forming an estimate" of the value of his system, the reader "should have before him, 1. The difficulty of emancipating the mind from inveterate and accredited error. 2. The much greater difficulty of giving a new form to a complicated and obscure science." He afterwards adds, "Whatever errors Brown may have committed in the application of his principles, and however short his doctrines may fall of a perfect system of medicine, I will venture to predict, that his credit on the continent will remain unshaken. The introduction of his opinions will have a most beneficial influence upon those by whom they are adopted, as well as upon those by whom they are rejected. Brunonians will not imitate the stupidity of the disciples of certain antient philosophers, but exercise their reason in expunging, adding, and correcting, as experience shall dictate. With regard to Anti-Brunonians a recent example will explain my meaning. When Lavoisier first announced his system, the chemists who were most scandalized by it, found themselves obliged to revise their whole stock of facts and deductions; the immediate consequence was an entire change in their opinions. Though they would not go over to Lavoisier, they could not adhere to Stahl, but reluctantly abandoned half their errors. The dissemination of the Brunonian doctrine will bring about the same thorough lustration of opinions in medicine, and the most pernicious among the prevailing prejudices will be relinquished without a contest. The reader may estimate what it is to have put so many nations into the right path of medical investigation." Nor is Dr Beddoes the only English physician who has expressed his approbation of the New Doctrine. Dr Dewell of Malmsbury, in a small treatise upon Phlogiston, published about 1785, stiles "the Brunonian system—a system founded on just principles, and scouted only by the interested and uninformed." And Dr Toulmin, in his Instruments of Medicine, after stiling Brown "equal in his useful researches to the greatest character, that any age has yet produced,"—says of the system, "The world will profit by the light it in vain endeavoured to extinguish."

BRUNSBUTTLE, a sea-port town of Germany, in the circle of Lower Saxony, and duchy of Holstein, seated at the mouth of the Elbe; it is 13 m. NW. of Glückstadt; and subject to Denmark. Lon. 9. 2. E. Lat. 54. 2. N.

BRUNSFELSIA, in botany; a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the pentandria class of plants. The corolla is funnel-shaped, and very long; and the fruit an unilocular polyspermous berry. There is but one species, *viz.*

BRUNSFELSIA AMERICANA. It rises 6 or 8 feet high, has a woody branching rough stem, garnished with oblong entire leaves on footstalks, and large whitish flowers by threes or fours at the ends of the branches, succeeded by round saffron-coloured soft fruit. It may be raised from seeds sown in pots in the spring, and plunged in a bark bed. It may also be propagated by cuttings planted in pots in the same season, plunging them also in a bark bed or other hot-bed under glasses. The plants must always remain in the stove.

BRUNSLOW, a village in Shropshire, between Barlow and Lidbury.

BRUNSTED, in Norfolk, 2 m. SE. of Ashford.

BRUNSTONE CASTLE, an ancient ruinous fort in the county of Mid-Lothian, and parish of Pennycuick.

(1.) BRUNSWICK, a city of Germany, in the circle of Lower Saxony, and capital of the duchy, N° II. § 3. It is composed of 5 towns, *viz.* the Old Town, the New Town, the Hagen or Burg, the Old Wieck, and the Sack, which makes it a large place, but the houses are almost all built of wood. There are several churches, one of which is an ancient Gothic building, but the appearance of its antiquity is almost absorbed by the repairs it has undergone. Brunswick is a fortified place, and would require a numerous army to besiege; and not a few men to defend it. It is of a square form, divided in the middle by the river Ocker. It is about two miles in circumference, and is strongly fortified. On the ramparts is a mortar piece of brass, 10 feet 6 inches long, and 9 feet 2 inches in circumference. It weighs 1800 quintals, and has 93 quintals of iron in its carriages. It will carry a ball of 730 pounds weight to the distance of 33,000 paces, and throw a bomb of a thousand weight; but requires 52 pounds of powder for a charge. This city is the residence of the duke of Brunswick Wolfenbuttle. The inhabitants of the city and parts adjacent carry on a confiderable trade with Bohemia. Brunswick mum is well known in England; a small sort of which is the common drink of the inhabitants of the city. The religion is the Lutheran, and the people observe it very strictly. The peasants are sober and laborious, but clownish and heavy; however, as they are robust and strong, they make good

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good ſoldiers. The elector of Hanover is ſtyled *duke of Brunſwick*, though he has no property in, nor dominion over this city, which belongs to the duke of Brunſwick Wolfenbuttle. The number of inhabitants is about 24,000; and the whole income of the duke is eſtimated at 130,000 l. The academy of Brunſwick, Dr Moore informs us, has been new-modelled, and the plan of education improved, by the attention, and under the patronage of the hereditary prince. Students now reſort to this academy from many parts of Germany; and there are generally ſome young gentlemen from Britain ſent to be educated here. Such of them as are intended for a military life, will not find ſo many advantages united at any other place on the continent, as at the Academy of Brunſwick. They will here be under the protection of a family partial to the Britiſh nation; every branch of ſcience is taught by maſters of known abilities; the young ſtudents ſee garriſon duty regularly performed, and may by the intereſt of the prince obtain liberty to attend the reviews of the Pruſſian troops at Magdeburg and Berlin. They will have few temptations to expence, in a town where they can ſee no examples of extravagance; few opportunities of diſſipation, and none of groſs debauchery. The fortifications at Brunſwick were of great utility in the war before the laſt, and on one occaſion they ſaved the town from being pillaged, and afforded prince Frederick an opportunity of performing an action, which it is imagined gave him more joy than 20 victories. This happened in 1761, ſoon after the battle of Kirch Denkern, when duke Ferdinand protected Hanover, not by conducting his army into that country, and defending it directly, as the enemy ſeemed to expect, and probably wiſhed; but by diverſion, attacking with ſtrong detachments, commanded by the hereditary prince, their magazines in Heſſe, and thus drawing their attention from Hanover to that quarter. While the duke lay encamped at Willhemſtall, watching the motions of Broglio's army, the marechal being greatly ſuperior in numbers, ſent a body of 20,000 men, under prince Xavier of Saxony, who took poſſeſſion of Wolfenbuttle, and ſoon after inveſted Brunſwick. Prince Ferdinand, anxious to ſave his native city, ventured to detach 5000 of his army, ſmall as it was, under his nephew Frederick, aſſiſted by general Lucker, with orders to haraſs the enemy, and endeavour to raiſe the ſiege. The young prince while on his march, ſent a ſoldier with a letter to the governor, which was wrapped round a bullet, and which the ſoldier was to ſwallow in caſe of his being taken by the enemy.—He had the good fortune to get ſafe into the town. The letter appriſed the commander of the garriſon of the princes approach, and particulariſed the night and hour when he expected to be at a certain place near the town, requiring him to favour his entrance. In the middle of the night appointed, the prince fell ſuddenly on the enemy's cavalry, who, unſuſpicious of his approach, were encamped careleſsly within a mile of the town. They were immediately diſperſed, and ſpread ſuch an alarm among the infantry, that they alſo retreated with conſiderable loſs. Early in the morning the young prince entered Brunſwick, amidſt the acclamation of his fellow citizens, whom he had relieved from the horrors of a ſiege. The hereditary prince having deſtroyed the French magazines in Heſſe, had been recalled by his uncle, and ordered to attempt the relief of Brunſwick. While he was advancing with all poſſible ſpeed, and had got within a few leagues of the town, he received the news of the ſiege being raiſed. On his arrival at his father's palace, he found his brother Frederick at table, entertaining the French officers, who had been taken priſoners the preceding night. Brunſwick is ſeated on the Ocker, 55 miles W. of Magdeburg, and 30 S. of Zell. Lon. 10. 42. E. Lat. 52. 25. N.

(II.) BRUNSWICK, a country of Germany in the circle of Lower Saxony, bounded on the N. by the duchy of Lunenburg, on the W. by the circle of Weſtphalia, on the S. by Heſſe, and the territory of Piechfield, and on the E. by Thuringia, with the principalities of Anhalt and Halberſtadt, and the duchy of Magdeburg. The rivers are the Weſer, the Ocker, and the Lyne, and it is fertile both in corn and paſtures. It is divided into 2 counties and 4 duchies; viz.

1. BRUNSWICK CALENBERG, and } belonging
2. BRUNSWICK GRUBENHAGEN, } to the elector of Hanover, and including the duchy of Gottingen:
3. BRUNSWICK, PROPER, and } ſubject, a-
4. BRUNSWICK WOLFENBUTTLE, } long with the two counties of Rheinſtein and Blankenberg, to the D. of Wolfenbuttle.

(III.) BRUNSWICK, a city of the United States, in New Jerſey, incorporated in 1784. It is ſituated on the SW. bank of Rariton river, 12 miles above Perth-Amboy. Its ſituation is low and unpleaſant, being under a high hill, which riſes at the back of the town. The ice, on the breaking up of the river in winter, frequently lodges on the ſhallow fording place, juſt oppoſite the town, and forms a temporary dam, which makes the water riſe many feet above its uſual height, and overflow the ground floors of the houſes that are not guarded againſt this inconvenience by elevated foundations. The inhabitants are beginning to build on the pleaſant hill above the town. They have a conſiderable inland trade, and many ſmall veſſels belonging to the port: with a flouriſhing college, called Queen's College. This city is 60 miles NE. of Philadelphia, and 35 SW. of New York. Lon. 75. 0. W. Lat. 40. 20. N.

(IV.) BRUNSWICK, a county of Virginia, containing 12,827 inhabitants, of whom 6776 are ſlaves. It is bounded N. by Dinwiddie, E. and S. E. by Greenſville, W. by Mecklenberg, and NW. by Lunenberg. It is 38 miles in length, and 33 in breadth. A diſtrict court is held here the 29th of April and September, for the counties of Brunſwick, Greenſville, Lunenberg, and Mecklenburg; and a county court for Brunſwick the 4th Monday in every month. It is well watered by Nottaway, and Meherrin rivers.

(V.) BRUNSWICK, a maritime county of Wilmington diſtrict, North Carolina, and the moſt ſoutherly county in that ſtate. It is bounded E. by Cape-Fear river, which ſeparates it from New Hanover, N. by Bladen, SW. by the ſtate of South Carolina, and S. by the Atlantic ocean. It contains

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contains 1,560 free inhabitants, and 1,511 slaves. In this county is the Wakkamaw, a beautiful lake about 7 miles in length, and 5 in breadth; and a little south of the lake, is Greenswamp, a large body of valuable rice land. The chief town is Smithville.

(VI.) BRUNSWICK, a small post-town of the United States, in Maine district; situated in Cumberland county. It is 155 miles from Boston, and 501 from Philadelphia.

(VII.) BRUNSWICK, a small town of North Carolina; situated in the above county, on the W. side of Cape Fear river, about 9 miles N. of Fort Johnson, and 17 SW. of Wilmington. It was formerly the residence of some of the regal governors. Lon. 3. 13. W. Lat. 34. 0. N.

(VIII.) BRUNSWICK, a town of the United States, in Georgia, where the Turtle river enters St Simon's sound. It has a safe harbour, capable of containing a numerous fleet of men of war; and even the bar, at the entrance, has depth enough for the largest. The town is regularly laid out, but not yet completed. From its advantageous situation, and the fertility of the back country, it promises to be hereafter one of the first trading towns in Georgia. It is 70 miles SW. by W. of Savannah. Lon. 82. 0. W. Lat. 31. 10. N.

(IX.) BRUNSWICK FAMILY. The illustrious house of Brunswick owes its origin to Azo II. of the family of Este, son of Hugo III. marquis of Ferrara in Italy. Azo, who died in 1055, left by his wife Cunegonde, daughter and heiress to Guelf III. duke of Bavaria, a son, Guelf IV. who was great-grandfather to Henry the Lyon. His son Guelf V. surnamed the Valiant, was created duke of Bavaria by the Emperor Henry II. His son Guelf VI. married Matilda, the richest heiress in Europe; but having no issue, his brother Henry the Black succeeded to his dominions. He died in 1125 having married Wulfhild daughter of Magnus, last duke of Saxony, of the Bulling family, by whom he had Henry the Proud, who succeeded to Bavaria in 1137; and he having married a daughter of the emperor Lotharius, his father-in-law granted him investiture of Saxony, and meant him for his successor in the empire; but this last he was disappointed of. Dying in 1139, both Saxony and Bavaria devolved on his son Henry V. surnamed the Lyon. He married Maude, eldest daughter of Henry II. of England, and is considered as the founder of the Brunswick family. It is remarkable, that our present sovereign should be descended from one of the best of the English monarchs, in whom were united the royal Anglo-Saxon and Norman blood. The dominions possessed by Henry the Lyon were the most extensive of any prince of his time; but having refused to assist the emperor Frederick Barbarossa, in a war against Pope Alexander III. all his former services were forgotten; and in the diet of Wurtzburg in 1179 or 1180, he was proscribed. The duchy of Bavaria was given to Otho count Wittlepatch, from whom is descended the present electoral family of Bavaria; the duchy of Saxony to Bernard Ascanius, founder of the house of Anhalt; and all his other territories to different persons. On this he retired to England; and by his father's intercession, Brunswick and Lunenburgh were restored to him. His wife Maude died in 1189, and he in 1195. He left three sons; but the two eldest not leaving any male issue, William, the third son carried on the line of the family: and his son Otho was created duke of Brunswick and Lunenburgh in 1235, by the emperor Ferdinand II. From him all the succeeding dukes of this family have descended. No family can boast of a line of princes who have more distinguished themselves, both by their political abilities and martial atchievements; and they are allied to all the principal families in Europe. The house of Brunswick is divided into several branches. The present duke of Brunswick Wolfenbuttle is sprung from the eldest; the duke of Brunswick Zell was from the second: and from this last sprung the elector of Hanover.

(X.) BRUNSWICK, NEW, the NW. division of Nova Scotia, which, in 1784, was divided into two provinces. New Brunswick is bounded on the W. of the river St Croix, by the said river to its source, and by a line drawn due N. thence to the S. boundary of Canada; to the N. by the same boundary as far as the W. extremity of the bay of Chaleurs; to the E. by the said bay to the gulf of St Lawrence to the bay called Bay Verte; to the S. by a line in the centre of the bay of Fundy, from the river St Croix to the mouth of the Musquat river, by the said river to its source, and thence by a due E. line across the isthmus into the Bay Verte to join the E. lot above described, including all islands within six leagues of the coast. Since the conclusion of the American war, the emigration of loyalists to this province, from the United States has been very great.

* BRUNT. *n. s.* [*brunst*, Dutch.] 1. Shock; violence.—Erona chose rather to bide the *brunt* of war, than ventre him. *Sidney.*—

God, who caus'd a fountain, at thy pray'r,
From the dry ground to spring, thy thirst t' allay
After the *brunt* of battle. *Milton.*

—Faithful ministrs are to stand and endure the *brunt*: a common soldier may fly, when it is the duty of him that holds the standard to die upon the place. *South.* 2. Blow; stroke.—

A wicked ambush which lay hidden long
In the close covert of her guileful eyen,
Thence breaking forth, did thick about me throng,
Too feeble I t' abide the *brunt* so strong. *Spenser.*
The friendly rug preserv'd the ground,
And headlong knight, from bruise or wound,
Like feather bed betwixt a wall
And heavy *brunt* of cannon ball. *Hudibras.*

BRUNTHORP, a village in Lincolnshire, 2 m. SE. of Alford.

BRUNTISLAND. See BURNTISLAND.

BRUNTON, a village in Nothumberland, near Dunstaburg castle.

BRURY, a town of Ireland, in Limerick.

BRUSCHIUS, Gasper, a Latin historian and poet, born at Egra in Bohemia, in 1518. He was devoted to books from his childhood, and especially to poetry, in which he gained so much reputation, that he attained to the poetical crown, to the dignity of poet laureat, and of count palatine. He wrote with prodigious facility; and his verses are easy, and natural. He published Latin poems

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on various ſubjects; the hiſtory of the biſhops and biſhoprics of Germany; of German monaſteries; and many other works, of which a catalogue is given in Geſner's *Bibliotheque*. He was very poor, ſubſiſting almoſt entirely by the benefactions of his poetical patrons, and by preſents from the abbots whoſe monaſteries he deſcribed. The liberality of ſome abbots at Baſil enabled him to buy a new ſuit of clothes; but when he found that appearing well dreſſed in the ſtreets procured him reſpect from the vulgar, he tore his new finery to pieces, "as ſlaves that had uſurped their maſter's honours." Bruſchius ſeems to have been too great a philoſopher for the age he lived in. He was murdered in the foreſt of Scalingenbach, between Rottemberg and Winſheim, by ſome gentlemen (it was ſuppoſed,) againſt whom he was about to write ſomething.

BRUSCIA, } in writers of the middle age, a
BRUSCUS, } ſmall thicket or coppice.

BRUSEBRIDGE, near Workſop, Nottingham.

(1.) * BRUSH. *n. ſ.* [*broſſe*, from *bruſcus*, Lat.] 1. An inſtrument to clean any thing, by rubbing off the dirt or ſoil. It is generally made of briſtles ſet in wood. 2. It is uſed for the larger and ſtronger pencils uſed by painters.—Whence comes all this rage of wit? this arming all the pencils and *bruſhes* of the town againſt me? *Stillingfleet.*—With a ſmall *bruſh* you muſt ſmear the glue well upon the joint of each piece. *Moxon.* 3. A rude aſſault; a ſhock; rough treatment; which, by the ſame metaphor, we call a *ſcouring*.—

Let grow thy ſinews till their knots be ſtrong,
And tempt not yet the *bruſhes* of the war.
Shakeſpeare.

—It could not be poſſible, that, upon ſo little a *bruſh* as Waller had ſuſtained, he could not be able to follow and diſturb the king. *Clarendon.*—

Elſe when we put it to the puſh,
They had not giv'n us ſuch a *bruſh*. *Hudibras.*

(2.) BRUSH, [from *bruſcia*,] alſo denotes a ſmall thicket or coppice.

(3.) BRUSH, in electricity, denotes the luminous appearance of the electric matter iſſuing in a parcel of diverging rays from a point. Beccaria aſcribes this appearance to the force with which the electric fluid, going out of a point, divides the contiguous air, and paſſes through it to that which is more remote.

(4.) BRUSHES, METHOD OF MAKING. This is done by folding the hair or briſtle in two; and bringing it by means of a packthread, which is engaged in the fold, through the holes with which the wood is pierced all over, being afterwards faſtened therein with glue. When the holes are thus filled, the ends of the hair are cut to make the ſurface even.

(5.) BRUSH OF A FOX, among ſportſmen, ſignifies his drag or tail.

(6.) BRUSH, PAINTERS. See § 1. *def.* 2. The Chineſe painter's bruſh conſiſts of the ſtalk of a plant; whoſe fibres being fretted at both ends, and tied again, ſerve for a bruſh.

(7.) BRUSH, SHEARMENS, is made of wild boar's briſtles; and ſerves to lay the wool or nap of cloth, after ſhearing it for the laſt time.

(8.) BRUSH, WIRE, is made of braſs or iron wires inſtead of hair. Theſe are uſed by ſilver-ſmiths and gilders, for ſcrubbing ſilver, copper, or braſs pieces, previous to the gilding of them.

(1.) * *To* BRUSH. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To ſweep or rub with a bruſh.—If he be not in love with ſome woman, there is no believing old ſigns; he *bruſhes* his hat o' morning; what ſhould that bode? *Shakeſp.* 2. To ſtrike with quickneſs, as in bruſhing.—

The wrathful beaſt about him turned light,
And him ſo rudely paſſing by, did *bruſh*
With his long tail, that horſe and man to ground
did ruſh. *Spenſer's Fairy Queen.*
Has Somnus *bruſh'd* thy eyelids with his rod?
Dryden.
His ſon Cupavo *bruſh'd* the briny flood,
Upon his ſtern a brawny centaur ſtood. *Dryd.*
High o'er the billows flew the maſſy load,
And near the ſhip came thund'ring on the flood,
It almoſt *bruſh'd* the helm. *Pope.*

3. To paint with a bruſh.—You have commiſſioned me to paint your ſhop, and I have done my beſt to *bruſh* you up like your neighbours. *Pope.* 4. To carry away, by an act like that of bruſhing; to ſweep.—

And from the boughs *bruſh* off the evil dew,
And heal the harms of thwarting thunder blew.
Milton.

—The receptacle of waters, into which the mouths of all rivers muſt empty themſelves, ought to have ſo ſpacious a ſurface, that as much water may be continually *bruſhed* off by the winds, and exhaled by the ſun, as, beſides what falls again, is brought into it by all the rivers. *Bentley.* 5. To move as the bruſh.—

A thouſand nights have *bruſh'd* their balmy wings
Over theſe eyes. *Dryden.*

(2.) * *To* BRUSH. *v. n.* 1. To move with haſte: a ludicrous word, applied to men.—

Nor wept his fate, nor caſt a pitying eye,
Nor took him down, but *bruſh'd* regardleſs by.
Dryden.
The French had gather'd all their force,
And William met them in their way;
Yet off they *bruſh'd*, both foot and horſe. *Prior.*

2. To fly over; to ſkim lightly.—

Nor love is always of a vicious kind,
But oft to virtuous acts inflames the mind,
Awakes the ſleepy vigour of the ſoul,
And, *bruſhing* o'er, adds motion to the pool.
Dryden.

* BRUSHER. *n. ſ.* [from *bruſh*.] He that uſes a bruſh.—Sir Henry Wotton uſed to ſay, that criticks were like *bruſhers* of noblemen's cloaths. *Bacon.*

BRUSHFORD, a village in Devonſhire, S. of Winkley.

BRUSHING GALLOP, among jockies, denotes a briſk one: a horſe ſhould have his bruſhing gallop in a morning before watering.

BRUSHMENT, *n. ſ.* in old records, underwood.

* BRUSHWOOD. *n. ſ.* [from *bruſh* and *wood*. I know not whether it may not be corrupted from *brow/wood*.] Rough, low, cloſe, ſhrubby thickets; ſmall wood fit for fire.—

It ſmokes, and then with trembling breath ſhe blows,

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Till in a cheerful blaze the flames arose.
With *brushwood*, and with chips, she strengthens these,
And adds at last the boughs of rotten trees.
Dryden.

* BRUSHY. *adj.* [from *brush.*] Rough or shaggy, like a brush.—I suspected, that it might have proceeded from some small unheeded drop of blood, wiped off by the *brushy* substance of the nerve, from the knife wherewith it was cut. *Boyle.*

BRUSIARD, a village in Suffolk, 4 miles NE. of Framlingham.

BRUSK, *adj.* in heraldry, tawny.

BRUSKETH, a river in Cumberland, which runs into the Eden, near Carlisle.

(1.) BRUSSELS, a city of France in the ci-devant Austrian Netherlands, now the capital of the new department of Dyle. Under the Austrian government, it was the capital of Brabant, and generally the seat of the governor. The small river Senne runs through it. It is a rich and handsome city; and among the public structures, the palace, the town-house, and the arsenal, are most superb.—No city in Europe, except Naples and Genoa, makes a finer appearance at a distance: but, like them, it is all up and down hill. It is encompassed with a double brick wall, and has 7 gates; but being 7 miles in compass, is too large to hold out a long siege. In Brussels are 7 fine squares or market places; that of the great market is one of the most beautiful in the world. The town house takes up one quarter of it; and has a very high steeple, on the top of which is a brazen statue of St Michael, 15 feet high. In 3 of the rooms there is the history of the resignation of Charles V. wrought in tapestry; which is so well done, that it may be mistaken for painting. In the other parts of this square are the halls of the different trades, and several ancient palaces. The opera-house is built after the Italian manner, with rows of boxes, in which are chimneys. One is covered with looking-glass, so that company can sit by the fire, drink a bottle, and see what is doing.—There are 20 public fountains, adorned with statues, at the corners of the most public streets; and in the middle of the town-house is one with Neptune, the tritons, and the horses spouting water from their nostrils. In the lower part of the city, there are several canals for the shipping.—One in particular was cut from the Scheldt, 15 miles from the city, and cost 1,800,000 dollars. By this canal vessels can pass between Brussels and Antwerp. The hospitals are well endowed; some of them are for the maintenance of strangers for 3 days. There is also a foundling hospital, and one for penitent courtezans. Among the churches, that of St Gudula is very magnificent. It stands on the top of a hill, near the gate of Louvain, and is surrounded with iron balustrades.—It is an old Gothic structure, with two large steeples at the east end, and is finely adorned within. The Jesuits had a fine church as well as a library. In 1695, Brussels was bombarded by marshal Villeroy, who demolished 4000 houses, the stadthouse, and several churches. In 1708, it was besieged by the elector of Bavaria; but the D. of Marlborough obliged him to raise the siege with precipitation. Marshal Saxe, the French general, took it in 1746; but it was restored by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. It was taken by the French republican army in 1792; retaken by the Austrians, in March 1793; but recovered soon after by the French, of whose republic it is now a constituent part. Brussels has long been celebrated for its manufactures of laces, camblets, and tapestry. It is 21 miles S. of Antwerp, 26 SE. of Ghent, and 148 N. by E. of Paris. Lon. 4. 28. E. Lat. 50. 51. N.

(2.) BRUSSELS, a ci-devant district of the Austrian Netherlands, was one of the 4 quarters of the duchy of Brabant. It was bounded on the E. by that of Louvain; on the N. by Antwerp; on the W. by that of Flanders; and on the S. by Hainault. It is now annexed to France.

BRUSTIN, *adj. obs.* Burst; broken. *Chaucer.*

* *To* BRUSTLE. *v. n.* [*brastlian*, Saxon.] To crackle; to make a small noise. *Skinner.*

* BRUTAL. *adj.* [*brutal*, French; from *brute.*] 1. That which belongs to a brute; that which we have in common with brutes.—There is no opposing *brutal* force to the stratagems of human reason. *L'Estrange.* 2. Savage; cruel; inhuman.

The *brutal* bus'ness of the war
Is manag'd by thy dreadful servants care.
Dryden.

* BRUTALITY. *n. s.* [*brutalite*, Fr.] Savageness; churlishness; inhumanity.—Courage, in an ill-bred man, has the air, and escapes not the opinion of *brutality*. *Locke.*

(1.) * *To* BRUTALIZE. *v. a.* To make brutal or savage.

(2.) * *To* BRUTALIZE. *v. n.* [*brutaliser*, Fr.] To grow brutal or savage.—Upon being carried to the Cape of Good Hope, he mixed, in a kind of transport, with his countrymen, *brutalized* with them in their habit and manners, and would never again return to his foreign acquaintance. *Addison.*

* BRUTALLY. *adv.* [from *brutal.*] Churlishly; inhumanly; cruelly.—Mrs Bull aimed a knife at John, though John threw a bottle at her head, very *brutally* indeed. *Arbuthnot.*

(1.) * BRUTE. *adj.* [*brutus*, Latin.] 1. Senseless; unconscious.—Nor yet are we so low and base as their atheism would depress us; not walking statues of clay, not the sons of *brute* earth, whose final inheritance is death and corruption. *Bentley.* 2. Savage; irrational; ferine.—Even *brute* animals make use of this artificial way of making divers motions, to have several significations to call, warn, chide, cherish, threaten. *Holder.*—In the promulgation of the Mosaick law, if so much as a *brute* beast touched the mountain, it was to be struck through with a dart. *South.* 3. Bestial; in common with beasts.—

Then to subdue, and quell, through all the earth,
Brute violence, and proud tyrannick power.
Milton.

4. Rough; ferocious; uncivilized.—

The *brute* philosopher, who ne'er has prov'd
The joy of loving, or of being lov'd. *Pope.*

(2.) * BRUTE. *n. s.* [from the adjective.] An irrational creature; a creature without reason; a savage.—

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What may this mean? Language of man pronounc'd
By tongue of *brute*, and human ſenſe expreſs'd!
Milton.

—To thoſe three preſent impulſes, of ſenſe, memory and inſtinct, moſt, if not all, the ſagacities of *brutes* may be reduced. *Hale.*—*Brutes* may be conſidered as either aerial, terreſtrial, aquatick, or amphibious. I call thoſe aerial, which have wings, wherewith they can ſupport themſelves in the air; terreſtrial are thoſe whoſe only place of reſt is upon the earth; aquatick are thoſe, whoſe conſtant abode is upon the water. *Locke.*—

Heav'n from all creatures hides the book of fate,
All but the page preſcrib'd this preſent ſtate;
From *brutes* what men, from men what ſpirits know;
Or who could ſuffer being here below? *Pope.*

(3.) BRUTE is a general name for all animals except mankind. Among brutes, the monkey kind bear the neareſt reſemblance to man; both in the external ſhape and internal ſtructure, but more in the former than in the latter. In the monkey kind, the neareſt approach to the likeneſs of man is the Oran Outang, or Homo Sylveſtris. See SIMIA. The ſtructure and economy of brutes make the objects of what is called COMPARATIVE ANATOMY. See that article.

(4.) BRUTES, DIFFERENT OPINIONS CONCERNING. Philoſophers have been much puzzled about the eſſential characteriſtics of brutes, by which they may be diſtinguiſhed from man. Some define a brute to be an *animal not riſible*, or a *living creature incapable of laughter*; others call them *mute animals*. The peripatetics allowed them a ſenſitive power, but denied them a rational one. The Platoniſts allowed them reaſon and underſtanding, though in a degree leſs pure and refined than that of men. Lactantius allows every thing to brutes which men have except a ſenſe of religion; and even this has been aſcribed to them by ſome ſceptics. Des Cartes maintained, that brutes are mere inanimate machines, abſolutely deſtitute not only of reaſon but of all thought and perception, and that all their actions are only conſequences of the exquiſite mechaniſm of their bodies. This ſyſtem, however, is much older than Des Cartes; it was borrowed by him from Gomez Pereira, a Spaniſh phyſician, who employed 30 years in compoſing a treatiſe which he intitled *Antoniana Margarita*, from the Chriſtian names of his father and mother. It was publiſhed in 1554: but his opinion had not the honour of gaining partizans, or even of being refuted; ſo that it died with him. Even Pereira ſeems not to have been the inventor of this notion; ſomething like it having been held by ſome of the ancients, as we find from Plutarch and St Auguſtin. Others, who rejected the Carteſian hypotheſis, have maintained that brutes are endowed with a ſoul eſſentially inferior to that of men; and to this ſoul ſome have allowed immortality, others not. And, laſtly, in a treatiſe publiſhed by Bougeant, a Jeſuit, intitled, *A philoſophical amuſement on the language of beaſts*, he affirms that they are animated by evil ſpirits or devils. In proof of this, he urges many ingenious metaphyſical arguments; but the reply to them all may be made in very few words. Though ſome beaſts are remarkably miſchievous, the generality are not ſo; they are in many inſtances capable of gratitude and love, which devils cannot poſſibly be. The very ſame paſſions that are in the brutes exiſt in the human nature; and if we chooſe to argue from the exiſtence of thoſe paſſions, and the aſcendency they have over mankind at ſome times, we may ſay, with as great or greater juſtice, that the ſouls of men are *devils*, as that the ſouls of brutes are.—All that can be reaſonably inferred, from the greater prevalency of the malignant paſſions among the brutes than among men, is, that the former have leſs rationality than men: and accordingly it is found, that among ſavages, who exerciſe their reaſon leſs than other men, every ſpecies of barbarity is practiſed, without being deemed a crime.

(5.) BRUTES, HYPOTHESIS OF M. DES CARTES RESPECTING. The opinion of Des Cartes (§ 4.) was probably adopted by him, to defeat two great objections; one againſt the immortality of the ſouls of brutes, if they were allowed to have any; the other againſt the goodneſs of God, in ſuffering creatures who have never ſinned, to be ſubjected to ſo many miſeries. The arguments in favour may be thus ſtated: 1. It is certain that many human actions are merely mechanical; becauſe they are done imperceptibly to the agent, and without any direction from the will; which are to be aſcribed to the impreſſion of objects and the primordial diſpoſition of the machine, wherein the influence of the ſoul has no ſhare; of which number are all habits of the body acquired from the reiteration of certain actions. In all ſuch circumſtances, human beings are no better than automata. 2. There are ſome natural movements ſo involuntary, that we cannot reſtrain them; for example, that admirable mechaniſm ever on the watch to preſerve an equilibrium, when we ſtoop, bend, or incline our bodies, and when we walk upon a narrow plank, or are in danger of falling. 3. The natural liking for, and antipathy againſt, certain objects, which in children precede the power of knowing and diſcriminating them, and which ſometimes in grown perſons triumph over all the efforts of reaſon; are all phenomena to be accounted for from the wonderful mechaniſm of the body, and are ſo many cogent proofs of that irreſiſtible influence which objects have on the human frame. 4. Every one knows how much our paſſions depend on the degree of motion into which the blood is put, and the reciprocal impreſſions cauſed by the animal ſpirits between the heart and brain, that are ſo cloſely connected by their nerves; and if ſuch effects may be produced by ſuch ſimple mechanical means as the mere increaſe of motion in the blood, without any direction of the will, we are not to wonder at the actions of brutes being the effects only of a refined mechaniſm, without thought or perception. 5. A farther proof will ariſe from the conſideration of many wonderful effects which even the ingenuity of men has contrived to bring out by mechanical means; the androides, for inſtance, of Mr Kempelen, which plays at cheſs. See ANDROIDES, § 3. and AUTOMATON, § 2. Now, it is not to be queſtioned, but that the mechaniſm of the body

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ly of the meaneſt animal infinitely ſurpaſſes that of Mr Kempelen's machine; and therefore the actions of that animal muſt be proportionally more ſurpriſing than thoſe of the wooden cheſs-player.

(6.) BRUTES, M. DES CARTES'S NOTIONS OF, REFUTED. The above (§ 5.) is a ſhort abſtract of all the arguments that are brought in favour of the Carteſian ſyſtem: but they are evidently very far from being concluſive. They are deficient, firſt, becauſe, though we allow them in the utmoſt extent the Carteſians can deſire, they prove only the poſſibility of brutes being inanimate, and that the power of God actually could produce ſuch and ſuch actions from inanimate machines; but that he actually hath done ſo, they have not the leaſt tendency to prove. 2. The Carteſian argument is inſufficient, becauſe it hath no limits, and knows not where to ſtop; for by the ſame method of arguing, every man might prove his neighbour to be an inanimate machine: for though every individual be conſcious of his own thoughts, he is not ſo of others; and it no more exceeds the power of God to cauſe an inanimate machine perform the actions of a man, than thoſe of a beaſt. Neither are the two objections which the hypotheſis is calculated to anſwer, to be at all admitted as arguments in its favour. They are, 1. That if we allow brutes to have ſouls, they muſt be immaterial, and conſequently immortal; and, 2. It ſeems a contradiction to the goodneſs of God, that he ſhould ſubject innocent creatures to ſuch a multitude of evils as we ſee the brutes endure in this world. The firſt of theſe is productive of no bad conſequence to us, though it ſhould be granted: and if it is ſuppoſed that the brute creatures are really immortal, the ſecond objection vaniſhes; becauſe in the enjoyment of endleſs felicity, all temporary afflictions, how ſevere ſoever, muſt be ſwallowed up as though they had never been. As to a poſitive proof on the other ſide, viz. that brutes are really endowed with ſenſation and conſciouſneſs, there is undoubtedly the ſame evidence for the ſenſibility of brutes, that there is for that of mankind. We ſee brutes avoid pain as much as we do; and ſeek for pleaſure, and expreſs their happineſs in the enjoyment of certain things, by ſigns not at all equivocal. Therefore, though we grant the poſſibility of all this being the effect of mere mechaniſm; yet, as we are conſcious that in ourſelves ſimilar effects are produced by a ſentient principle, we have every reaſon to conclude, that in brutes they are derived from a ſimilar principle; eſpecially as we know no kind of mechaniſm in any other part of nature that produces any thing like the effects juſt mentioned; and until we ſee a mechaniſm of this kind in ſome part of nature, we have no right to ſuppoſe it in any. As to thoſe actions of the human body in which it ſeems to move ſpontaneouſly, like an automaton, without the direction of the mind or will, it is certain, that they were not performed in this manner originally, but required very great exertions of the will and intellectual faculty, before the body could be brought to perform them eaſily; ſo that from this nothing can be inferred. Add to this, that divine revelation ſets forth to us in many places the brute creation as objects of mercy; which could not be done without the higheſt abſurdity, if they were not really capable of feeling and pain as well as we. Thus it is paſt a doubt, that brutes are endowed with a principle of ſenſation as well as we; though of an inferior nature to ours. But great diſputes have ariſen on this ſubject; ſome maintaining, that the ſouls of brutes are merely ſenſitive, and that they are altogether deſtitute of reflection and underſtanding; others, that they not only reaſon, but make a better uſe of it than men do. That the brutes are endowed only with ſenſation, and totally deſtitute of all power of reflection, or even reaſoning, is what can by no means be maintained: neither can it be aſſerted that they act entirely from inſtinct, or a blind propenſity, without knowing why. In numberleſs inſtances, which will readily occur to every reader, it is evident, that education will get the better of many of the natural inſtincts of brutes; which could never be the caſe were they abſolutely incapable of reaſoning. On the other hand, it is equally certain, that they are by no means capable of education in the ſame degree that men are; neither are their rational exertions at all to be compared even with thoſe of the meaneſt ſavages. One remarkable inſtance of this is in the uſe of fire. The moſt ſavage nations have known how to make this element ſubſervient to their purpoſes; or if ſome have been found entirely ignorant of its exiſtence, they have quickly learned its uſes on ſeeing it made uſe of by others: but though many of the brute creatures are delighted with warmth, and have opportunities every day of ſeeing how fire is ſupplied with fuel, and by that means preſerved, it never was known that one of them attempted to preſerve a fire by this means. This ſhows a ſtrange defect of rationality, unaccountable upon any other ſuppoſition, than that the ſoul or ſentient principle of brutes is ſome how or other inferior in its nature to that of man; but ſtill it is a ſentient principle, capable of perceptions as quick, and in many inſtances much more ſo than our own.

(7.) BRUTES, PROF. BERGMAN'S RESEARCHES INTO THE NATURE OF. There is a very ingenious treatiſe in German, publiſhed by the late profeſſor Bergman, entitled "Reſearches deſigned to ſhow what the Brute Animals certainly *are not*, and alſo what they probably *are*." That they are *not* machines, he proves with more detail than ſeems neceſſary for refuting a hypotheſis which would equally tend to make *us all* machines. It is certain, that the *half-reaſoning* elephant cannot be deemed a machine by us, from any other conſideration, than that *he* goes upon four feet, while *we* go upon two; and he might as well take us for mere machines becauſe *we* go upon two feet, while *he* goes upon four. But if animals are not mere machines, what *are* they? Manifeſtly ſenſitive beings, with an immaterial principle; and thinking or reaſoning beings, to a *certain degree*. In certain claſſes of animals this appears evident to Sir T. Bergman, who ſeems to have obſerved with great ſagacity and attention their *various* operations, their ways and means, &c. He thinks it impoſſible to deduce this variety of action, in any animals, (if we except thoſe of the loweſt claſſes in the gradation of intelligence,) from a general and uniform inſtinct. For they accommodate their operations to times and

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circumſtances. They combine; they chooſe their favourable moment; and receive inſtruction by experience. Many of their operations announce reflection: the bird repairs a ſhattered neſt, inſtead of conſtructing inſtinctively a new one: the hen, who has been robbed of her eggs, changes her place in order to lay the remainder with more ſecurity; the cat diſcovers both care and artifice in concealing her kittens. Again, it is evident, that, on many occaſions, animals know their faults and miſtakes, and correct them; they ſometimes contrive the moſt ingenious methods of obtaining their ends, and when one method fails have recourſe to another; and they have, without doubt, a kind of language for the mutual communication of their ideas. How is all this to be accounted for, (ſays Bergman,) unleſs we ſuppoſe them endowed with the powers of perceiving, thinking, remembering, comparing, and judging? They have theſe powers, indeed, in a degree inferior to that in which they are poſſeſſed by the human ſpecies, and form claſſes below them in the ſcale of intelligent beings. But ſtill it ſeems unreaſonable to exclude them from the place which the principles of ſound philoſophy, and facts aſcertained by conſtant obſervation, aſſign to them in the great and diverſified ſphere of life, ſenſation, and intelligence. He does not, however, conſider them as beings whoſe actions are directed to *moral* ends, nor conſequently as accountable and proper ſubjects for *reward* or *puniſhment* in a future world. That brutes poſſeſs reflection and ſentiment, and are ſuſceptible of the kindly as well as the iraſcible paſſions, independently of ſexual attachment and natural affection, is evident from the numerous inſtances of gratitude daily obſervable in different animals particularly the dog. Of thoſe and other ſentiments, ſuch as pride, and even a ſenſe of glory, the elephant exhibits proofs equally ſurpriſing and indubitable, as the reader may ſee under the article ELEPHAS.

(8.) BRUTES, REMARKABLE STRENGTH OF AFFECTION IN. Mr White, in his *Natural Hiſtory, &c. of Selborne*, ſpeaking of the natural affection of brutes, ſays "the more I reflect on it the more I am aſtoniſhed at its effects. Nor is the violence of this affection more wonderful than the ſhortneſs of its duration. Thus every hen is in her turn the virago of the yard, in proportion to the helpleſſneſs of her brood; and will fly in the face of a dog or a ſow in defence of thoſe chickens, which in a few weeks ſhe will drive before her with relentleſs cruelty. This affection ſublimes the paſſions, quickens the invention, and ſharpens the ſagacity of the brute creation. Thus an hen, juſt become a mother, is no longer that placid bird ſhe uſed to be, but with feather ſtanding on end, wings hovering, and clucking note, ſhe runs about like one poſſeſſed. Dams will throw themſelves in the way of the greateſt danger in order to avert it from their progeny. Thus a partridge will tumble along before a ſportſman, in order to draw away the dogs from her helpleſs covey. In the time of nidification the moſt feeble birds will aſſault the moſt rapacious. All the hirundines of a village are up in arms at the ſight of a hawk, whom they will perſecute till he leaves that diſtrict. A very exact obſerver has often remarked, that a pair of ravens neſtling in the rock of Gibraltar would ſuffer no vulture or eagle to reſt near their ſtation, but would drive them from the hill with an amazing fury: even the blue thruſh at the ſeaſon of breeding would dart out from the clefts of the rocks, to chaſe away the keſtril or the ſparrow hawk. If you ſtand near the neſt of a bird that has young, ſhe will not be induced to betray them by an inadvertent fondneſs, but will wait about at a diſtance with meat in her mouth for an hour together. The flycatcher builds every year in the vines that grow on the walls of my houſe. A pair of theſe little birds had one year inadvertently placed their neſt on a naked bough, perhaps in a ſhady time, not being aware of the inconvenience that followed: but an hot ſunny ſeaſon coming on before the brood was half fledged, the reflection of the wall became inſupportable, and muſt inevitably have deſtroyed the tender young, had not affection ſuggeſted an expedient, and prompted the parent birds to hover over the neſt all the hotter hours, while with wings expanded and mouths gaping for breath they ſcreened of the heat for their ſuffering offſpring. A farther inſtance I once ſaw of notable ſagacity in a willow wren, which had built in a bank in my fields. This bird a friend and myſelf had obſerved as ſhe ſat in her neſt; but were particularly careful not to diſturb her, though we ſaw ſhe eyed us with ſome degree of jealouſy. Some days after, as we paſſed that way, we were deſirous of remarking how this brood went on; but no neſt could be found, till I happened to take up a large bundle of long green moſs as it were careleſsly thrown over the neſt, in order to dodge the eye of any impertinent intruder."

(9.) BRUTES, SURPRISING INSTANCES OF SOCIALITY IN. A wonderful ſpirit of ſociality in the brute creation, independent of ſexual attachment, has been frequently remarked. Many horſes though quiet with company, will not ſtay one minute in a field by themſelves; the ſtrongeſt fences cannot reſtrain them. A horſe has been known to leap out at a ſtable window, through which dung was thrown, after company; and yet in other reſpects was remarkably quiet. Oxen and cows will not fatten by themſelves; but will neglect the fineſt paſture that is not recommended by ſociety. It would be needleſs to inſtance in ſheep, which conſtantly flock together. But this propenſity ſeems not to be confined to animals of the ſame ſpecies. Mr White mentions "a doe that was brought up from a little fawn with a dairy of cows. With them it goes a-field, and with them it returns to the yard. The dogs of the houſe take no notice of this doe, being uſed to her; but if ſtrange dogs come by, a chaſe enſues; while the maſter ſmiles to ſee his favourite ſecurely leading her purſuers over hedge, or gate, or ſtyle, till ſhe returns to the cows, who with fierce lowings and menacing horns drive the aſſailants quite out of the paſture." Even great diſparity of kind and ſize does not always prevent ſocial advances and mutual fellowſhip. Of this the following remarkable inſtance is given by the ſame author. "A very intelligent and obſervant perſon has aſſured me, that in the former part of his life, keeping but one horſe, he happened alſo

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on a time to have but one ſolitary hen. Theſe two incongruous animals ſpent much of their time together, in a lonely orchard, where they ſaw no creature but each other. By degrees an apparent regard began to take place between theſe two ſequeſtrated individuals. The fowl would approach the quadruped with notes of complacency, rubbing herſelf gently againſt his legs; while the horſe would look down with ſatisfaction, and move with the greateſt caution and circumſpection, leſt he ſhould trample on his diminutive companion. Thus by mutual good offices each ſeemed to conſole the vacant hours of the other." In the Gentleman's Magazine for March 1788, we have the following anecdotes of a raven, communicated by a correſpondent who does not ſign his name, but ſays it is at the ſervice of the doubtful. The raven alluded to "lives, or did live 3 years ſince, at the red lion at Hungerford; his name, I think, is *Rafe*. You muſt know then, that coming into that inn, my chaiſe run over or bruiſed the leg of my Newfoundland dog; and while we were examining the injury done the dog's foot, *Rafe was evidently a concerned ſpectator;* for the minute the dog was tied up under the manger with my horſe, Rafe not only viſited him, but fetched him bones, and attended upon him with particular and repeated marks of kindneſs. The bird's notice of the dog was ſo *marked*, that I obſerved it to the hoſtler; for I had not heard a word *before* of the hiſtory of this benevolent creature. John then told me, that he had been bred from his pin-feather in intimacy with a dog; that the affection between them was mutual; and that all the neighbourhood had often been witneſſes of the innumerable acts of kindneſs they had conferred upon each other. Rafe's poor dog, after a while, unfortunately broke his leg; and during the long time he was confined, Rafe waited upon him conſtantly, carried him proviſions daily, and never ſcarce left him alone! One night by accident the hoſtler had ſhut the ſtable door, and Rafe was deprived of the company of his friend the whole night; but the hoſtler found in the morning the bottom of the door ſo pecked away, that had it not been opened, Rafe would in another hour have made his own entrance port. I then enquired of my landlady (a ſenſible woman,) and heard what I have related confirmed by her, with ſeveral other ſingular traits of the kindneſſes this bird ſhows to all dogs in general, but particularly to *maimed* or wounded ones. I hope and believe, however, the bird is ſtill living; and the traveller will find I have not *over-rated* this wonderful bird's merit." To theſe inſtances of attachment between incongruous animals from a ſpirit of ſociality or the feelings of ſympathy, may be added the following inſtance of fondneſs from a different motive, recounted by Mr White in the work already ſo often quoted. "My friend had a little helpleſs leveret brought to him, which the ſervants fed with milk in a ſpoon; and about the ſame time his cat kittened, and the young were diſpatched and buried. The hare was ſoon loſt, and ſuppoſed to be gone the way of moſt foundlings, or to be killed by ſome dog or cat. However, in about a fortnight, as the maſter was ſitting in his garden in the duſk of the evening, he obſerved his cat, with tail erect, trotting towards him, and talking with little ſhort inward notes of complacency, ſuch as they uſe towards their kittens, and ſomething gambling after, which proved to be the leveret which the cat had ſupported with her milk, and continued to ſupport with great affection. Thus was a graminivorous animal nurtured by a carnivorous and predaceous one! why ſo cruel and ſanguinary a beaſt as a cat, of the ferocious genus of *Felis*, the *murian leo*, (the lion of the mice,) as Linnæus calls it, ſhould be affected with any tenderneſs towards an animal which is its natural prey, is not ſo eaſy to determine. The ſtrange affection probably was occaſioned by that deſiderium, thoſe tender maternal feelings, which the loſs of her kittens had awakened in her breaſt; and by the complacency and eaſe ſhe derived to herſelf from the procuring her teats to be drawn, which were too much diſtended with milk, till from habit ſhe became as much delighted with this foundling, as if it had been her real offspring. This incident is no bad ſolution of that ſtrange circumſtance which grave hiſtorians as well as the poets aſſert, of expoſed children being ſometimes nurtured by female wild beaſts that probably had loſt their young. For it is not one whit more marvellous that Romulus and Remus, in their infant ſtate, ſhould be nurſed by a ſhe wolf, than that a poor little ſucking leveret ſhould be foſtered and cheriſhed by a bloody grimalkin."

(10.) BRUTES, UNACCOUNTABLE FACULTIES POSSESSED BY SOME. Beſides the different qualities enumerated, (§ 9.) beſides reflection and ſagacity often in an aſtoniſhing degree, and beſides the ſentiments and actions prompted by ſocial or natural attachments, brutes ſeem on many occaſions inſpired with a ſuperior faculty, a kind of preſentiment or ſecond ſight as it were, with regard to events and deſigns altogether unforeſeen by the rational beings whom they concern. Of the faculty alluded to, various inſtances will probably conſiſt with the knowledge or recollection of moſt of our readers: We ſhall therefore only recite the following on account of its unqueſtionable authenticity. At the ſeat of the late earl of Lichfield, 3 miles from Blenheim, there is a portrait in the dining-room of Sir Henry Lee, by Johnſton, with that of a maſtiff dog which ſaved his life. A ſervant had formed the deſign of aſſaſſinating his maſter and robbing the houſe; but the night he had fixed on, the dog, which had never been much noticed by Sir Henry, for the firſt time followed him up ſtairs, got under his bed, and could not be got from thence by either maſter or man: in the dead of night, the ſame ſervant entered the room to execute his horrid deſign; but was inſtantly ſeized by the dog, and being ſecured confeſſed his intentions. Upon what hypotheſis can we account for a degree of foreſight and penetration ſuch as this? Will it be ſuggeſted, as a ſolution of the difficulty, that a dog may poſſibly become capable in great meaſure of underſtanding human diſcourſe, and of reaſoning and acting accordingly; and that, in the preſent inſtance, the villain had either uttered his deſign in ſoliloquy, or imparted it to an accomplice, in the hearing of the animal? It has been diſputed whether the brutes have any language wherel.y

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whereby they can expreſs their minds to each other; or whether all the noiſe they make conſiſts only of cries inarticulate, and unintelligible even to themſelves. We are, however, too little acquainted with the intellectual faculties of theſe creatures to be able to determine the point. Certain it is, that their paſſions, when excited, are generally productive of ſome peculiar cry, but whether this be deſigned as an expreſſion of the paſſion to others, or only a mechanical motion of the muſcles of the larynx occaſioned by the paſſion, is what we have no means of knowing. We may indeed, from analogy, conclude, with great reaſon, that ſome of the cries of beaſts are really expreſſions of their ſentiments; but whether one beaſt is capable of forming a deſign, and communicating that deſign by any kind of language to others, is what we ſubmit to the judgment of the readers, after giving the following inſtance, which among others is brought as a proof of it by father Bougeant. "A ſparrow, finding a neſt that a martin had juſt built, ſtanding very conveniently for him, poſſeſſed himſelf of it. The martin, ſeeing the uſurper in her houſe, called for help to expel him. A thouſand martins came full ſpeed, and attacked the ſparrow; but the latter being covered on every ſide, and preſenting only his large beak at the entrance of the neſt, was invulnerable, and made the boldeſt of them who durſt approach him repent of their temerity. After a quarter of an hour's combat, all the martins diſappeared. The ſparrow thought he had got the better, and the ſpectators judged that the martins had abandoned the undertaking. Not in the leaſt. Immediately they returned to the charge; and each of them having procured a little of that tempered earth with which they make their neſts, they all at once fell upon the ſparrow, and incloſed him in the neſt to periſh there, though they could not drive him thence. Can it be imagined that the martins could have been able to hatch and concert this deſign all of them together, without ſpeaking to each other, or without ſome medium of communication equivalent to language?"

* *To* BRUTE. *v. a.* [written ill for *brut.*] To report.—This, once *bruted* through the army, filled them all with heavineſs. *Knolles.*

* BRUTENESS. *n. ſ.* [from *brute.*] Brutality; a word not now uſed.—

Thou dotard vile,
That with thy *bruteneſs* ſhend'ſt thy comely age.
Spenſer.

(1.) BRUTIA, in ancient geography, a country in the extremity of Italy, from whence the pitch ſo named (N° 2.) was denominated and originally obtained. *Plin. lib.* xv. *cap.* 7.

(2.) BRUTIA, in the medical writings of the ancients, the fatteſt and moſt reſinous kind of pitch, ſuch as was propereſt for making the oil of pitch, called *oleum picinum.*

* *To* BRUTIFY. *v. n.* [from *brute.*] To make a man a brute.—O thou fallacious woman! am I then *brutified?* Ay; feel it here; I ſprout, I bud, I am ripe horn mad. *Congreve.*

BRUTII. See BRUTTII.

BRUTILNESS. *n. ſ. obſ.* brittleneſs. *Chauc.*

* BRUTISH. *adj.* [from *brute.*] 1. Beſtial; reſembling a beaſt.—

Oſiris, Iſis, Orus, and their train,
With monſtrous ſhapes and ſorceries abus'd
Fanatick Egypt, and her prieſts, to ſeek
Their wand'ring gods diſguis'd in *bruti/h* forms
Milton.

2. Having the qualities of a brute; rough; ſavage; ferocious.—Brutes, and *bruti/h* men, are commonly more able to bear pain than others. *Grew.* 3. Groſs; carnal.—

For thou thyſelf haſt been a libertine,
As ſenſual as the *bruti/h* ſting itſelf. *Shak.*

—After he has ſlept himſelf into ſome uſe of himſelf, by much ado he ſtaggers to his table again, and there acts over the ſame *bruti/h* ſcene. *South.* 4. Ignorant; untaught; uncivilized.—They were not ſo *bruti/h*, that they could be ignorant to call upon the name of God. *Hooker.*

* BRUTISHLY. *adv.* [from *bruti/h.*] In the manner of a brute, ſavagely; irrationally; groſsly.—I am ſo diffident of myſelf, as *bruti/hly* to ſubmit to any man's dictates. *King Charles.*—For a man to found a confident practice upon a diſputable principle, is *bruti/hly* to outrun his reaſon. *South.*

* BRUTISHNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *bruti/h.*] Brutality; ſavageneſs.—All other courage, beſides that, is not true valour, but *bruti/hneſs. Spratt.*

BRUTON. See BRUTTON.

(1.) BRUTTII, in ancient geography, one of the two peninſulas of Italy, the ancient Calabria being the other; ſtretching S. towards Sicily; bounded by the ſea on every ſide except by the iſthmus, between the river Laüs and the Thurii, where it is terminated by Lucania; inhabited by the Bruttii, for whoſe country the ancient Romans had no peculiar name, calling both the people and the country indiſcriminately *Bruttii*: though Mr Chambers ſtiles the country BRUTIA, for which he quotes Pliny. This and a part of Lucania formed the ancient Italia. It was called Πίττη, which in Greek ſignifies *pitch*, from the great quantity of it produced there. It is divided into two coaſts by the Apennine; that on the Tuſcan and that on the Ionian Sea; and is now called *Calabria Ultra.* It now differs from the ancient Calabria or Meſſapia, on the eaſt on the Adriatic ſea, which formed the other peninſula or heel of the leg, now called *Calabria Citra*, the Bruttii forming the foot.

(2.) BRUTTII, the people of BRUTTII. N° 1.

BRUTTLE, *n. ſ. obſ.* under-wood.

BRUTTON, a town of Somerſetſhire, ſituated on the river Brue; and well inhabited. It is adorned with a very beautiful church; has a free ſchool, founded by Edward I. and the alms-houſe or hoſpital is ſo elegant, that it has the appearance of a college. It is famous for malt and for a woollen manufactory of cloth and ſerges. It is 12 miles SE. of Wells, and 109 W. of London. Lon. 2. 30. W. Lat. 51. 15. N.

(1.) BRUTUS, Lucius Junius, the avenger of the rape of Lucretia, and founder of the Roman republic, flouriſhed about A. A. C. 509. See ROME, HISTORY OF.

(2.) BRUTUS, Marcus, the paſſionate lover of his country, and chief conſpirator againſt Cæſar, ſlew himſelf on loſing the battle of Philippi, A. A. C. 42. See ROME, HISTORY OF.

(3.) BRU-

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(3.) BRUTUS, or BRUTE, according to the ancient fabulous history of this island, by Geoffroy of Monmouth, was the first king of Britain. He is said to have been the son of Sylvius, and grandson of Ascanius the son of Æneas, and born in Italy. Having accidentally killed his father, he fled into Greece, where he took king Pandrasus prisoner, who kept the Trojans in slavery, whom he released on condition of providing ships, &c. for the Trojans to emigrate with them. Being advised by the oracle to sail west beyond Gaul, he after some adventures, landed at Totnes in Devonshire. Albion was then inhabited by a remnant of giants, whom Brutus destroyed; and called the island after his own name BRITAIN. He built a city called *Troja Nova*, or *Troynovant*, now London; and having reigned 24 years, at his death divided the island among his 3 sons: Locrine had the middle, called *Loegria*, now England; Camber had Cambria, now Wales; and Albanact Albania, now Scotland.

(4.) BRUTUS, Decimus Junius, one of the conspirators against Cæsar. He was slain by Marc Antony.

(5.) BRUTUS, John Michael, a man of learning in the 16th century. He was born in Venice; and, having studied at Padua, spent great part of his life in travelling, and became historiographer to the Emperor. He wrote, 1. A history of Hungary. 2. A history of Florence. 3. Notes on Horace, Cæsar, Cicero, &c. and other works.

(6.) BRUTUS, Stephen Junius, the disguised author of a political work entitled *Vindiciæ contra tyrannos*. See LANGUET.

BRUYERE, John DE LA, a celebrated French author, born at Dourdan, in 1664. He wrote Characters, describing the manners of his age, in imitation of Theophrastus. These were not always imaginary, but descriptive, as was well known, of persons of considerable rank. In 1693, he was chosen a member of the French Academy, and died in 1696.—"The Characters of Bruyere (says Voltaire) may justly be ranked among the extraordinary productions of this age. Antiquity furnishes no example of such a work. A style rapid, concise, and nervous; expressions animated and picturesque; an use of language altogether new, without offending against its established rules, struck the public at first; and the allusions, which are crowded in almost every page, completed its success." La Bruyere showed his work in M. S. to Malesieux, who told him, that the book would have many readers, and its author many enemies. It contains many things applicable to all times and places.

BRUYIERS, a town of France, in the department of Vosges, and ci-devant province of Lorrain; 22 miles S. by E. of Luneville. Lon. 6. 50. E. Lat. 48. 18. N.

BRUYN. See BRUN, N° 1.

BRY, BREW, or BRUE, a river in Somersetsh. which falls into the Bristol channel, in Bridge water bay.

BRYANS-BRIDGE, a town of Ireland, in the county of Clare and province of Connaught, seated on the river Shannon, 8 miles N. of Limeric. Lon. 8. 30. W. Lat. 52. 31. N.

BRYANSTON, a village near Dublin.

BRYANT, Sir Francis, a soldier, statesman, and a poet, was born of a genteel family, educated at Oxford, and afterwards spent some time in travelling. In 1522, the 14th of Henry VIII. he attended the earl of Surrey to the coast of Brittany; and commanded the troops in the attack of Morlaix, which he took and burnt. For this service he was knighted on the spot by the earl. In 1529, he was sent ambassador to France; and, in 1530, to Rome on account of the king's divorce. He was gentleman of the privy chamber to Henry VIII. and to Edward VI. in the beginning of whose reign he marched with the protector against the Scots; and after the battle of Musselburgh, was made banneret. In 1548, he was appointed chief governor of Ireland, where he married the countess of Ormond. He died soon after, and was buried at Waterford. He wrote, 1. Songs and Sonnets; some of which were printed with those of the earl of Surrey and Sir Thomas Wyat. Lond. 1565. 2. Letters written from Rome concerning the king's divorce; M. S. 3. Various letters of state. 4. A dispraise of the life of a courtier, &c. Lond. 1548, 8vo, from the French of Alaygri, who translated it from the Castilian language, in which it was originally written by Guevara.

BRYCHEIN, [βρυχειν,] a word used by Hippocrates for chattering of the teeth.

BRYDE, ST, an ancient parish in Peebles-shire, now united with that of Traquair.

BRYE, John Theodore DE, an excellent engraver, a native of Liege, who resided chiefly at Frankfort. He seldom used the point. He acquired a neat, free style of engraving, excellently adapted to small subjects, with many figures; as funeral parades, processions, &c. He also drew very correctly. His heads in general are spirited, and his back grounds are touched with a masterly hand. He died in 1598. The two first parts of Boissard's collection of portraits were engraved by him, assisted by his sons, who afterwards continued it.

(1.) BRYENNIUS, Manuel, a Greek writer on music, is supposed to have flourished under the elder Paleologus, about the year of Christ 1120. He wrote 3 books on Harmonics; the first is a kind of commentary on Euclid; the 2d and 3d on Ptolemy. He professes to have studied perspicuity for the sake of young men. Meibomius had given the public expectations of a translation of this work; but not living to complete it, Dr Wallis undertook it; and it now makes a part of the 3d volume of his works, published at Oxford, in three volumes folio, 1699.

(2.) BRYENNIUS, Nicephorus, a prince distinguished by his courage, probity, and learning, was born at Orestia in Macedonia; where his father by rebellion provoked the emperor to send his general Alexis Comnenus against him, who ordered his eyes to be put out; but being charmed with his son Nicephorus, he married him to his own daughter Anna Comnena, so famous by her writings. When Alexis came to the throne, he gave Bryennius the title of *Cæsar*; but would not declare him his successor, though solicited by the empress Irene: and was therefore succeeded by his son John Comnenus, to whom Bryennius behaved

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behaved with the utmoſt fidelity. Being ſent, about A. D. 1137, to beſiege Antioch, he fell ſick; and returning died at Conſtantinople. This prince wrote the *Hiſtory of Alexis Comnenus*, which he compoſed at the requeſt of his mother-in-law, Irene.

BRYGMOS, or BRYGMUS, among phyſicians, a grating noiſe made by the gnaſhing of the teeth.

BRYKEIN. See BRYCHEIN.

BRYN, a village in Lancaſhire, near Wigan.

BRYNING, 5 m. SW. of Kirkham, Lancaſh.

BRYNTON, in Staffordſhire, N. of Blimhill.

BRYON, in the botanical writings of the ancient Greeks, an abbreviation of BRYONIA.

(I.) BRYONIA, BRYONY, a genus of the ſyngeneſia order, and monœcia claſs of plants; in the natural method ranking under the 34th order, cucurbitaceæ. The calyx of the male is five-toothed, with a quinquefid corolla, and three filaments. In the female the calyx is dentated, the corolla quinquefid, the ſtyle trifid, with a roundiſh many ſeeded berry. There are 6 ſpecies, viz.

1. BRYONIA AFRICANA, African tuberous-rooted bryony.

2. BRYONIA ALBA, rough or white bryony with red flowers, a native of dry banks under hedges in many parts of Britain. The roots of this plant have by impoſtors been brought into a human ſhape, and ſhown for mandrakes. Their method was to find a young thriving plant of bryony; then they open the earth all round, being careful not to diſturb the lower fibres; and being provided with ſuch a mould as is uſed for making plaſter figures, they fix the mould cloſe to the root, faſtening it with wire to keep it in its proper ſituation; then they filled the earth about the root, leaving it to grow to the ſhape of the mould; which in one ſummer it will do; ſo that if done in March, by September it will have the ſhape. The leaves of the plant are alſo impoſed on people for mandrake leaves; although there is no reſemblance between them, nor any agreement in quality. The roots of this ſpecies are uſed in medicine. Theſe are very large ſometimes as thick as a man's thigh; their ſmell, when freſh is ſtrong and diſagreeable; the taſte naſeouſly bitter, acrid, and biting; the juice is ſo ſharp, as in little time to excoriate the ſkin; in drying, they loſe great part of their acrimony, and almoſt their whole ſcent. Bryony root is a ſtrong irritating cathartic; and as ſuch has ſometimes been ſucceſsfully exhibited in maniacal caſes, in ſome kinds of dropſies, and in ſeveral chronical diſorders, where a quick ſolution of viſcid juices and a ſudden ſtimulus on the ſolids were required. An extract prepared by water acts more mildly, and with greater ſafety, than the root in ſubſtance: given from half a dram to a dram, it is ſaid to prove a gentle purgative, and likewiſe to operate powerfully by urine. Bryony root, applied externally, is ſaid to be a powerful diſcutient.

3. BRYONIA BONARIENSIS, bryony with hairy palmated leaves, divided into 5 parts; and obtuſe ſegments. It is a native of warm countries; but merits cultivation on account of the pretty appearance it makes when full of fruit.

4. BRYONIA CRETICA, ſpotted bryony of Crete.

5. BRYONIA RACEMOSA, bryony with a red olive-ſhaped fruit. It is a native of warm climates, and perennial; but the branches decay every winter. They flower in July, and in warm ſummers will perfect their ſeeds in Britain.

6. BRYONIA VARIEGATA, the American bryony with variegated fruit.

(II.) BRYONIÆ, CULTURE OF THE. The 1ſt and 5th ſorts ſhould be planted in pots filled with freſh light earth; and in winter muſt be placed in the green-houſe to protect them from froſts and rains, which would deſtroy them. In ſummer they may be expoſed to the open air, and muſt be frequently refreſhed with water in dry weather. The 3d, 4th, and 6th ſorts are annual: they muſt be raiſed on a hot-bed early in the ſpring; and when about 3 inches high they ſhould be each tranſplanted into a ſmall pot, and plunged into a hot-bed of tanner's bark. When grown ſo large as to ramble about on the ſurface of the bed, and to entangle with other plants, they ſhould be ſhifted into larger pots, and placed in the bark-ſtove; where their branches may be trained to the wall, againſt an eſpalier, that they may have ſun and air, which is abſolutely neceſſary for their producing fruit.

BRYONIOIDES, a name given by ſome botaniſts to the ſingle ſeeded cucumber. See SICYOS.

(1.) * BRYONY. *n. ſ.* [*bryonia*, Lat.] A plant.

(2.) BRYONY, BLACK. See TAMUS.

BRYTIA, among ancient naturaliſts, the muſt of grapes, which remains after expreſſing the juice.

BRYUM, in botany, a genus of the 56th natural order, viz. *Muſci*, belonging to the cryptogamia claſs of plants. The anthera is operculated or covered with a lid, the calyptra poliſhed; and there is a filament ariſing from the terminal tubercle. There are 41 ſpecies, moſt of them natives of Britain.

BRZEST, a town in Sileſia.

BRZEZY. See BERZEZY.

BUA, an iſland of the gulph of Venice, on the coaſt of Dalmatia, near Trau; called alſo the PARTRIDGE ISLAND, becauſe frequented by thoſe birds. It is called BUBUS by Pliny. During the decline of the empire it was called BOAS; and ſeveral illuſtrious men who fell under diſgrace at court were baniſhed to it, particularly Florentius, maſter of the offices under Julian, Immentius de Valenti, and the heretic Jovinian. The emperors of Conſtantinople either were not acquainted with it, or were willing to treat the baniſhed with great clemency. The climate is exceedingly mild; the air good; the oil, grapes, and fruit excellent; the ſea around it abounds in fiſh, and the port is large and ſecure. It is ten miles in length, and 25 in circuit; but rather high and mountainous.

BUANES, a town of France, in the department of Gers, and ci-devant province of Gaſcony, ſeated on the river Bahus. Lon. 0. 5. E. Lat. 43. 47. N.

BUARCOS, a town of Portugal, in Beira, on the Mondego. Moſt of its buildings were deſtroyed by the earthquake in 1752. Lon. 8. 5. W. Lat. 40. 3. N.

* BUB. *n. ſ.* [a cant word.] Strong malt liquor.—

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Or if it be his fate to meet
With folks who have more wealth than wit,
He loves cheap port, and double *bub*,
And ſettles in the humdrum club. *Prior.*

BUBALINUS. See ANACANDAYA.

BUBALUS, in zoology, the trivial name of the buffalo. See Bos, N° IV. § v. 1—4.

(1.) BUBASTIS, a name of Iſis, or the moon. The Egyptians beſtowed different names on the ſun and moon, to characterize their effects and relations with reſpect to the earth. Chæremon, a ſacred writer of Egypt, leaves no doubt on this ſubject. "Every thing which is publiſhed of Oſiris and Iſis, all the ſacerdotal fables, allude only to the phaſes of the moon, and the courſe of the ſun." Theology, having perſonified Bubaſtis, formed a divinity, of whom a cat was the ſymbol. The prieſts fed it with ſacred food; and when it died, they embalmed its body, and carried it in pomp to the tomb prepared for it. The ancients have explained this worſhip variouſly. The Greeks pretended, that when Typhon declared war againſt the gods, Apollo transformed himſelf into a vulture, Mercury into an ibis, and Bubaſtis into a cat, and that the veneration of the people for cats took riſe from that fable; but they aſcribe their own ideas to the Egyptians, who thought very differently. However that may be, the cat was greatly honoured in Egypt, and a Roman ſoldier having imprudently killed one, was immediately put to death by the populace. The Greeks who worſhipped the moon by the name of DIANA, beſtowed it alſo on this Egyptian divinity. The Egyptians attributed to her the virtue of aſſiſting pregnant women, as the Greeks and Latins did to Diana. The philoſopher will ſeek for the origin of this ancient worſhip in the laws impoſed by nature on women, and which in ſome meaſure follow the lunar revolutions. The natural philoſophers and the poets buried it under allegories unintelligible to the people. A perfect reſemblance, however, does not exiſt between the two deities. The Greeks conſtituted Diana goddeſs of the chace, an attribute the Egyptians did not acknowledge in Bubaſtis. Diana was the daughter of Jupiter and Latona, but Bubaſtis of Oſiris and Iſis. A queſtion naturally ariſes here: How could Bubaſtis be called the daughter of Iſis, ſince ſhe alſo was a ſymbol of the moon? The Egyptian theology eaſily explains this. Iſis was the general appellation of the moon; Bubaſtis a particular attribute. The ſun, in conjunction with the ſtar of the night, formed the celeſtial marriage of Oſiris and Iſis; the creſcent, which appears 3 days after, was allegorically called their daughter. Accordingly, in the city of *Ilithyia*, where Bubaſtis was adored under that title, the 3d day of the lunar month was conſecrated by a particular worſhip; becauſe 3 days after the conjunction, the moon diſengaged from the rays of the ſun, appears as a creſcent, and is viſible. The Egyptians celebrated therefore a ſolemnity in honour of Bubaſtis, which in their tongue ſignified *new moon*.

(2.) BUBASTIS, in ancient geography, a city of Egypt built in honour of the goddeſs, (N° 1.) and where, according to Herodotus, the people annually aſſembled from all parts of Egypt, to celebrate her feſtival.

(1.) * BUBBLE. *n. ſ.* [*bobbel*, Dutch.] 1. A ſmall bladder of water; a film of water filled with wind. —*Bubbles* are in the form of a hemiſphere; air within, and a little ſkin of water without: and it ſeemeth ſomewhat ſtrange, that the air ſhould riſe ſo ſwiftly, while it is in the water, and when it cometh to the top, ſhould be ſtayed by ſo weak a cover as that of the *bubble* is. *Bacon.*—The colours of *bubbles*, with which children play, are various and change their ſituation variouſly, without any reſpect to confine or ſhadow. *Newton.* 2. Any thing which wants ſolidity and firmneſs; any thing that is more ſpecious than real.—The earl of Lincoln was induced to participate, not lightly upon the ſtrength of the proceedings there, which was but a *bubble*, but upon letters from the lady Margaret. *Bacon.*—

Then a ſoldier,
Seeking the *bubble* reputation,
Even in the cannon's mouth. *Shakeſpeare.*

War, he ſung, is toil and trouble,
Honour but an empty *bubble*,
Fighting ſtill, and ſtill deſtroying. *Dryden.*

3. A cheat; a falſe ſhow.—

The nation then too late will find,
Directors promiſes but wind,
South-Sea at beſt a mighty *bubble*. *Swift.*

4. The perſon cheated.—

Ceaſe, deareſt mother, ceaſe to chide;
Gany's a cheat, and I'm a *bubble*;
Yet why this great exceſs of trouble? *Prior.*

—He has been my *bubble* theſe twenty years, and, to my certain knowledge, underſtands no more of his own affairs, than a child in ſwaddling clothes. *Arbuthnot.*

(2.) BUBBLE, in commerce, a cant term given to a project for raiſing money on imaginary grounds, too much practiſed in France and England, in 1719, 1720, and 1721. The pretence of thoſe ſchemes was the raiſing a capital for retrieving, ſetting on foot, or carrying on, ſome promiſing and uſeful branch of trade, manufacture, machinery, or the like. To this end propoſals were made out, ſhowing the advantages to be derived from the undertaking, and inviting perſons to be engaged in it. The ſum neceſſary to manage the affair, together with the profits expected from it, were divided into ſhares or ſubſcriptions, to be purchaſed by any diſpoſed to adventure therein. Bubbles by which the public have been tricked, are of two kinds, viz. 1. Thoſe which we may properly enough term *trading bubbles*; 2. Stock or fund bubbles. The former have been of various kinds; and the latter at different times, as in 1719 and 1720.

(3.) BUBBLE, in natural philoſophy, a ſmall drop or veſicle of any fluid filled with air; and formed either on its ſurface by an addition of more of the fluid, as in raining, &c.; or in its ſubſtance by an inteſtine motion of its component particles. Bubbles are dilatable or compreſſible, *i. e.* they take up more or leſs room as the included air is more or leſs heated, or more or leſs preſſed from without; and are round, becauſe the included air acts equally from within all around.

(1.) * *To* BUBBLE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To cheat: a cant word.—He tells me, with great paſſion, that ſhe has *bubbled* him out of his youth; and has drilled him on to five and fifty. *Addiſon.*

—Charles

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—Charles Mather could not *bubble* a young beau better with a toy. *Arbuthnot.*

(2.) * *To* BUBBLE. *v. n.* 1. To riſe in bubbles.—

Alas! a crimſon river of warm blood,
Like to a *bubbling* fountain ſtirr'd with wind,
Doth riſe and fall. *Shakeſpeare.*

Adder's fork, and blind worm's ſting,
Lizard's leg, and owlet's wing:
For a charm of pow'rful trouble,
Like a hellbroth boil and *bubble.* *Shakſpeare.*

Still *bubble* on, and pour forth blood and tears. *Dryden.*

—The ſame ſpring ſuffers at ſometimes a very manifeſt remiſſion of its heat: at others, as manifeſt an increaſe of it; yea, ſometimes to that exceſs, as to make it boil and *bubble* with extreme heat. *Woodward.* 2. To run with a gentle noiſe.—

For thee the *bubbling* ſprings appear'd to mourn,
And whiſpring pines made vows for thy return. *Dryden.*

Not *bubbling* fountains to the thirſty ſwain,
Not ſhow'rs to larks, or ſunſhine to the bee,
Are half ſo charming as thy ſight to me. *Pope.*

* BUBBLER. *n. ſ.* [from *bubble.*] A cheat.—What words can ſuffice to expreſs, how infinitely I eſteem you, above all the great ones in this part of the world; above all the Jews, jobbers, and *bubblers!* *Digby to Pope.*

* BUBBY. *n. ſ.* A woman's breaſts.—Foh! ſay they, to ſee a handſome, briſk, genteel young fellow, ſo much governed by a doating old woman; why don't you go and ſuck the *bubby?* *Arbuthnot.*

BUBNALL, the name of two villages, viz. 1. in Peak of Derby: 2. in Warwickſhire, W. of Dunſmore Heath.

(1.) * BUBO. *n. ſ.* [Lat. from βουϛον, the groin.] That part of the groin from the bending of the thigh to the ſcrotum; and therefore all tumours in that part are called *buboes.* *Quincy.*—I ſuppurated it after the manner of a *bubo*, opened it, and endeavoured deterſion. *Wiſeman.*

(2.) BUBO, in ornithology, the trivial name of a ſpecies of ſtrix. See STRIX.

(3.) BUBO, or BUBOE, in ſurgery, a tumour which ariſes, with inflammation, in the arm-pits and the groin. See MEDICINE *Index.*

BUBON, MACEDONIAN PARSLEY: a genus of the digynia order, belonging to the pentandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 46th order, *Umbellatæ.* The fruit is ovated, ſtriated and villous. There are 4 ſpecies which are propagated by ſeeds, and require the common culture of other exotic vegetables; viz.

1. BUBON GALBANUM or African ferula, riſes with an upright ſtalk to the height of 8 or 10 feet, which at bottom is woody, having a purpliſh bark covered with a whitiſh powder that comes off when handled. The upper part of the ſtalk is garniſhed with leaves at every joint, the foot-ſtalks half embracing them at their baſe, and are ſet with leaves like thoſe of the lovage, but ſmaller, and of a grey colour: the top of the ſtalk is terminated by an umbel of yellow flowers; which are ſucceeded by oblong channelled ſeeds, which have a thin membrane or wing on their border. When any part of the plant is broken, there iſſues out a little thin milk of a cream colour, which hath a ſtrong ſcent of galbanum.

2. BUBON GUMMIFERUM, with a mock chervil leaf, riſes with a ligneous ſtalk about the ſame height; and is garniſhed with leaves at each joint, which branch out like the former; but the ſmall leaves or lobes are narrow and indented like thoſe of baſtard hemlock. The ſtalk is terminated by an umbel of ſmall yellow flowers, which are ſucceeded by ſeeds like thoſe of the former ſort.—The galbanum of the ſhops is ſuppoſed to be procured from theſe two ſpecies.

3. BUBON MACEDONICUM ſends out many leaves from the root; the loweſt grow almoſt horizontally, ſpreading near the ſurface of the ground: the foot-ſtalk of each leaf divides into ſeveral ſmaller; which are garniſhed with ſmooth rhomb-ſhaped leaves, which are of a bright pale-green colour, and ſawed on their edges. In the centre of the plant ariſes the flower-ſtem, which is little more than a foot high, dividing into many branches, each terminated by an umbel of white flowers, which are ſucceeded by oblong hairy ſeeds. This plant, in warm countries, is biennial; the plants, which riſe from ſeeds, one year produce flowers, and ſeeds the next, and then periſh: but in Britain they ſeldom flower till the 3d or 4th; but whenever the plant flowers, it always dies.

4. BUBON RIGIDUM, hard or rigid ferula, is a native of Sicily. It is a low perennial plant, having ſhort, ſtiff, and very narrow leaves: the flower-ſtalk riſes a foot high, which is terminated by an umbel of ſmall white flowers; which are ſucceeded by ſmall, oblong, channelled ſeeds. It is a plant of little beauty or uſe, ſo is only cultivated for the ſake of variety.

BUBONA, in ancient mythology, the tutelar goddeſs of the larger cattle.

(1.) BUBONIUM, in botany, a ſynonime of the INULA.

(2.) BUBONIUM is alſo a name given by ſome botaniſts to the ASTER ATTICUS, or golden ſtarwort.

BUBONIUS LAPIS, a figured ſtone, in ſhape reſembling an owl's head, of a flinty ſubſtance, black within, and cineritious without; thus denominated by Dr Plott. *Hiſt. Oxford.* ch. v. § 45.

(1.) * BUBONOCELE. *n. ſ.* [Lat. from βουϛον, the groin, and κηλη, a rupture.] a particular kind of rupture, when the inteſtines, break down into the groin. *Quincy.*—When the inteſtine, or omentum, falls through the rings of the abdominal muſcles into the groin, it is called *hernia inguinalis* or if into the ſcrotum, *ſcrotalis:* theſe two, though the firſt only is properly ſo called, are known by the name of *bubonocele*, *Sharp.*

(2.) BUBONOCELE. See SURGERY.

BUBTON, a village in Derbyſhire, in Appletree hundred.

* BUBUKLE. *n. ſ.* a red pimple.—His face is all *bubukles*, and Whelks, and knobs and flames of fire. *Shak.*

BUBULCA, in ichthyology, a ſmall freſh-water fiſh, called by ſome BOUVIERA and PETENSE. It is ſmall, flat, and very ſhort, approaching to a round

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round rather than a long ſhape, and of a fine ſilvery whiteneſs, ſeldom above 2 inches in length.

BUBULCUS, } Names of the conſtellation
BUBULUS, } BOOTES.

BUBUS. See BUA.

BUBWITH, in Yorkſhire, W. of Wighton.

BUC, George, a learned Engliſh antiquarian, who flouriſhed in the beginning of the 17th century. In the reign of K. James I. he was made one of the gentlemen of the privy chamber, knighted: and conſtituted maſter of the revels. He wrote, 1. The hiſtory of the reign of Richard III. in which he takes great pains to wipe off the bloody ſtains that have blotted his character, and repreſents the perſon and actions of that prince in a much leſs odious light, than other hiſtorians have done: 2. A treatiſe of the art of revels; and 3. A work intitled the Third Univerſitie of England.

BUCA, in natural hiſtory, a name given by ſome authors to the BUCCINUM.

BUCAN. See BUCCAN.

To BUCAN. See *To* BUCCAN.

BUCANEER, or } See BUCCANIER, § 1.
(1.) BUCANIER. }

(2.) * BUCANIERS. *n. ſ.* a cant word for the privateers, or pirates of America.

BUCANNING. See BUCCANING.

BUCAO, in natural hiſtory, a name given by the people of the Philippine iſlands to a ſpecies of ſcreech owl, of the ſize of a peacock, common in thoſe iſlands. It is very beautiful, but makes a hideous noiſe in the night.

BUCARDIA, or } in natural hiſtory, a name
BUCARDITES, } given by many authors to a ſtone, in ſome degree reſembling the figure of an ox's heart. It is uſually of the ſubſtance of the coarſer ſtones, and is no other than a quantity of the matter of ſuch ſtone, received while moiſt into the cavity of a large cockle, and thence aſſuming the figure of the inſide of that ſhell, the depreſſion of the head of the cockle, where the *cardo* or hinge of this ſhell is, makes a long and large dent in the formed maſs, which gives it a heart-like ſhape. Plott mentions a *bucardites*, which he found at Stretford in Staffordſhire, which weighed 20lb. though broken half away, curiouſly reticulated, with a white-ſpar coloured ſtone.

BUCARDIUM, in natural hiſtory, a name given by authors to a kind of heart ſhell, reſembling an ox's heart in ſhape; it is of the genus of the corditormes, or heart-ſhells, and differs from the other kinds, in being of a more globular figure.

BUCCA, in anatomy, the cheek.

BUCCÆ MUSCULUS, in anatomy, a name given by ſome to the muſcle more uſually called the BUCCINATOR, and *contrahens labiorum*.

BUCCA FERREA, in botany, a name given by Micheli to a genus of plants, called ſince by Linnæus *rappia*.

BUCCAL, *adj.* belonging to the cheek.

BUCCALES GLANDULÆ are ſmall glands diſperſed over the inner ſide of the cheeks and lips, which ſeparate a ſpittle uſeful in maſtication and digeſtion. Steno and ſome other writers, confound the buccal with the maxillary glands.

BUCCAN, *n. ſ.* the place where the Buccaniers ſmoke and dry their meat. The name is alſo applied to the grate or hurdle, made of Brazil wood, upon which the meat is hung above the fire.

To BUCCAN, or BUCAN, *v. a.* To ſmoke and dry fleſh, or fiſh. See BUCCANIERS, § 2.

(1.) BUCCANIER, or BUCANIER, one who dries and ſmokes fleſh or fiſh after the manner of the Indians. The name was particularly given to the firſt French ſettlers on the iſland of St Domingo, whoſe ſole employment conſiſted in hunting wild bulls or boars, in order to ſell their hides and fleſh. See § 2. It has alſo been applied to thoſe famous piratical adventurers, chiefly Engliſh and French, who joined together to make depredations on the Spaniards of America. See § 5—7.

(2.) BUCCANIERS OF ST DOMINGO. The Spaniards had not been long in poſſeſſion of the Weſt Indies and the continent of America, when other nations, eſpecially the Engliſh and French, began to follow them. But though the Spaniards were unable to people ſuch extenſive countries themſelves, they were reſolved that no others ſhould do it for them; and therefore made a moſt cruel war on all thoſe of any other nation who attempted to ſettle in any of the Antilles or Caribbee iſlands. The French, however, were at laſt lucky enough to acquire ſome footing in the iſland of St Chriſtopher's; but by the time they began to form a regular government, the Spaniards found means to diſlodge them. Upon this the wretched fugitives, conſidering at how great a diſtance they were from their mother country, and how near to the iſland of Hiſpaniola or St Domingo, the northern parts of which were then uninhabited and full of ſwine and black cattle, immediately reſolved to take poſſeſſion of that country, in conjunction with other adventurers of their own and the Engliſh nation. And the Dutch promiſed to ſupply them plentifully with all kinds of neceſſaries they might require, in exchange for the hides and tallow they ſhould procure by hunting. Theſe new ſettlers obtained the name of *buccaniers*, from their cuſtom of buccaning their beef and pork to preſerve it for conſumption or ſale. But ſome of them ſoon grew tired of this new way of life, and took to planting; while many more choſe to turn pirates, truſting to find among thoſe who remained on ſhore a quick ſale for all the plunder they could make at ſea. This new body of adventurers were called *free-booters*, from their making free booty of whatever came in their way.—The colony now began to thrive faſt by the riches acquired by theſe free-booters, and the profuſion with which they diſtributed them among their old companions, the buccaneers and planters, for the meereſt trifles. This brought numbers of ſettlers from France, in quality of indented ſervants, tho' they toiled rather like ſlaves during the 3 years for which they generally bound themſelves. One of theſe men preſuming to repreſent to his maſter, who always fixed upon a Sunday for ſending him with ſkins to the port, that God had forbidden ſuch a practice, when he had declared, "Six days ſhalt thou labour, and on the 7th day ſhalt thou reſt:" "And I (replied the brutal buccanier) ſay to thee, Six days ſhalt thou kill bulls, and ſtrip them of their ſkins, and on the ſeventh day ſhalt thou carry their hides to the ſea-ſhore." This command, followed by blows,

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ſoon enforced obedience. Thus the colony conſiſted of 4 claſſes: buccaniers; freebooters; planters; and indented ſervants; who now began to call themſelves the *body of adventurers*. They lived together in perfect harmony under a kind of democracy; every freeman had a deſpotic authority over his own family; and every captain was ſovereign in his own ſhip, though liable to be diſcarded at the diſcretion of the crew. The planters ſettled chiefly in the little iſland of Tortuga on the northern coaſt of Hiſpaniola; but it was not long before ſome of them going to the great iſland to hunt with the buccaniers, the reſt were ſurpriſed by the Spaniards; and all, even thoſe who had ſurrendered at diſcretion, were put to the ſword or hanged. The Spaniards now reſolving to rid the great iſland of the buccaneers, aſſembled a body of 500 lance men, who, by their ſeldom going fewer than 50 in a company, obtained the name of *the Fifties* from their enemies.

(3.) BUCCANIERS OF ST DOMINGO, CUSTOMS, &c. OF THE. The buccaniers had hitherto lived in little huts built on ſome ſpots of cleared ground, juſt large enough to dry their ſkins on, and contain their buccaning houſes. Theſe ſpots they called *Boucans*, and the huts they dwelt in *Ajoupas*, a word which they borrowed from the Spaniards, and the Spaniards from the natives.—Though theſe ajoupas lay open on all ſides, they were very agreeable to the hardy inhabitants, in a climate where wind and air are ſo very deſirable. As the buccaniers had neither wives nor children, they aſſociated by pairs, and mutually rendered each other all the ſervices a maſter could reaſonably expect from a ſervant, living together in ſo perfect a community, that the ſurvivor always ſucceeded his deceaſed partner. This kind of union or fellowſhip they called *ſ'ematelot*, inſailoring, and each other *matelot*, or ſailor, whence is derived the cuſtom of giving, at leaſt in ſome parts of the French Antilles, the name *matelotage*, ſailorage, to any kind of ſociety formed by private perſons for their mutual advantage. They behaved to each other with the greateſt juſtice and openneſs of heart; it would have been a crime to keep any thing under lock and key; but on the other hand, the leaſt pilfering was unpardonable, and puniſhed with expulſion from the community.—And indeed there could be no great temptation to ſteal, when it was reckoned a point of honour never to refuſe a neighbour what he wanted; and where there was ſo little property, it was impoſſible there ſhould be many diſputes. If any happened, the common friends of the parties at variance interpoſed, and ſoon put an end to the difference. As to laws, the buccaniers acknowledged none but ſome rules drawn up in conventions among themſelves. They ſilenced all objections from ſtrangers, by coolly anſwering, that it was not the cuſtom of the coaſt; and grounded their right of acting in this manner, on their baptiſm under the tropic, which freed them, in their opinion, from all obligations antecedent to that marine ceremony. The governor of Tortuga, when that iſland was again ſettled, though appointed by the French court, had very little authority over them; they contented themſelves with rendering him from time to time ſome ſlight homage. They had in a manner entirely ſhaken off religion, and thought they did a great deal in not wholly forgetting the God of their fathers. We need not be ſurpriſed to meet with nations, among whom it is difficult to diſcover any trace of religious worſhip: for it is certain, that had the buccaniers of St Domingo been perpetuated on the ſame footing they eſtabliſhed at this time, the 3d or 4th generation of them would have as little religion as the Caffres and Hottentots of Africa, or the Topinambous and Cannibals of America. They even laid aſide their ſurnames, and aſſumed nicknames, or martial names, moſt of which have continued in their families to this day. Many, however, on their marrying, which ſeldom happened till they turned planters, took care to have their ſurnames inſerted in the marriage contract; and this practice gave occaſion to a proverb ſtill current in the French Antilles, *a man is not to be known till he takes a wife*. Their dreſs conſiſted of a filthy greaſy ſhirt, dyed with the blood of the animals they killed; a pair of trouſers ſtill more naſty; a thong of leather by way of belt, to which they hung a caſe containing ſome Dutch knives, and a kind of very ſhort ſabre called *Manchette*; a hat without any brim, except a little flap on the front; and ſhoes of hog-ſkins all of a piece. Their guns were 2½ feet in the barrel, and of a bore to carry balls of an ounce. Every man had his contract ſervants, more or fewer according to his abilities; beſides a pack of 20 or 30 dogs, among which there was alſo a couple of beagles. Their chief employment at firſt was ox-hunting; and if at any time they chaſed a wild hog, it was rather for paſtime, or to make proviſion for a feaſt, than for any other advantage. But in proceſs of time, ſome of them betook themſelves entirely to hunting of hogs, whoſe fleſh they buccaned in the following manner: Firſt, they cut the fleſh into very long pieces, an inch and an half thick, and ſprinkled them with ſalt, which they rubbed off after 24 hours. Then they dried theſe pieces in ſtoves over the fire made of the ſkin and bones of the beaſt till they grew as hard as a board, and aſſumed a deep brown colour. Pork prepared in this manner will keep in caſks above a year; and when ſteeped but a little while in lukewarm water, become plump and roſy, and yield moreover a moſt grateful ſmell, either broiled or boiled, or otherwiſe dreſſed, enough to tempt the moſt languid appetite, and pleaſe the moſt delicate palate. Thoſe who hunt the wild boar have of late been called ſimply *hunters*. In hunting, they ſet out at day break, preceded by the beagles, and followed by their ſervants with the reſt of the dogs; and as they made it a point never to balk their beagles, they were often led by them over the moſt frightful precipices, and through places which any other mortal would have deemed abſolutely impaſſable. As ſoon as the beagles had rouſed the game, the reſt of the dogs ſtruck up and ſurrounded the beaſt, ſtopping it, and keeping a conſtant barking till the buccanier could get near enough to ſhoot it; in doing this, he commonly aimed at the pit of the breaſt; when the beaſt fell, he hamſtrung it to prevent its riſing again. But it has ſometimes happened that the creature, not wounded enough to tumble to the ground, has run furi-

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ouſly at his purſuer, and ripped him up. But in general the buccanier ſeldom miſſed his aim; and when he did, was nimble enough to get up the tree, behind which he had the precaution to place himſelf. Some of them have even been ſeen to overtake the beaſt in chace, and hamſtringing it without any further ceremony. As ſoon as the prey was half ſkinned, the maſter cut out a large bone and ſucked the marrow for breakfaſt. The reſt he left to his ſervants, one of whom always remained behind to finiſh the ſkinning, and bring the ſkin with a choice piece of meat for the huntſmen's dinner. They then continued the chace till they had killed as many beaſts as there were heads in the company. The maſter was the laſt to return to the boucan, loaded like the reſt with a ſkin and a piece of meat. Here the buccaniers found their tables ready: for every one had his ſeparate table; which was the firſt thing, any way fit for the purpoſe, that came in their way, a ſtone, the trunk of a tree, and the like. No tablecloth, no napkin, no bread or wine graced their board; not even potatoes or bananas, unleſs they found them ready to their hands. When this did not happen, the fat and lean of the game, taken alternately, ſerved to ſupply the place. A little pimento, and the ſqueeze of an orange, their only ſauce; contentment, peace of mind, a good appetite, and abundance of mirth, made every thing agreeable. Thus they lived till they had compleated the number of hides, for which they had agreed with the merchants; when they carried them to Tortuga, or ſome port of the great iſland. As the buccaniers uſed much exerciſe, and fed only on fleſh they generally enjoyed a good ſtate of health. They were indeed ſubject to fevers, but either ſuch as laſted only a day, and left no ſenſible impreſſion the day following; or ſlight ſlow fevers, which did not hinder them from action, and were of courſe ſo little regarded, that it was uſual with the patient, when aſked how he did, to anſwer, "Very well; nothing ails me but the fever." It was impoſſible, however, they ſhould not ſuffer conſiderably by ſuch fatigues under a hot climate, to which few of them had been early inured. Hence the moſt conſiderate among them, after they had got money enough for that purpoſe, turned planters. The reſt ſoon ſpent the fruits of their labour in taverns and tippling houſes; and many had ſo habituated themſelves to this kind of life, as to become incapable of any other. Nay, there have been inſtances of young men, who having early embarked through neceſſity in this painful and dangerous profeſſion, perſiſted in it afterwards, merely through habit, rather than return to France and take poſſeſſion of the moſt plentiful fortunes. Such were the buccaniers of St Domingo, and ſuch their ſituation, when the Spaniards undertook to extirpate them. And at firſt they met with great ſucceſs; for as the buccaniers hunted ſeparately, every one attended by his ſervants, they were eaſily ſurpriſed. Hence the Spaniards killed numbers, and took many more, whom they condemned to a moſt cruel ſlavery. But whenever the buccaniers had time to put themſelves into a ſtate of defence, they fought like lions, to avoid falling into the hands of a nation from whom they were ſure to receive no quarter; by which means they often eſcaped: nay, there are many inſtances of ſingle men fighting their way through numbers. Theſe dangers, however, and the ſucceſs of the Spaniards in diſcovering their boucans, where they uſed to ſurpriſe and cut the throats of them and their ſervants in their ſleep, engaged them to cohabit in great numbers, and even to act offenſively, in hopes that by ſo doing they might at laſt induce the Spaniards to let them live in peace. But the fury with which they behaved whenever they met any Spaniards, ſerved only to make their enemies more intent on their deſtruction: and aſſiſtance coming to both parties, the whole iſland was turned into a ſlaughter houſe, and ſo much blood ſpilt on both ſides, that many places, on account of the carnage of which they had been the theatres, were intitled, *of the maſſacre*; ſuch as *the hill of the maſſacre: the plain of the maſſacre; the valley of the maſſacre*; names which they ſtill retain. At length the Spaniards had recourſe to their old method of ſurpriſe, which againſt enemies of more courage than vigilance was likely to ſucceed better. This put the buccaniers under a neceſſity of never hunting but in large parties, and fixing their boucans in the little iſlands on the coaſt, where they retired every evening. This expedient ſucceeded: and the boucans, by being more fixed ſoon acquired the air of little towns. When the buccaniers had once fixed themſelves, each boucan ordered ſcouts every morning to the higheſt part of the iſland, in order to reconnoitre the coaſt, and ſee if any Spaniſh parties were abroad. If no enemy appeared, they appointed a place and hour of rendezvous in the evening, and were never abſent if not killed or priſoners. When therefore any one of the company was miſſing, it was not lawful for the reſt to hunt again till they had got intelligence of him if taken, or avenged his death if killed. Things continued long in this ſituation till the Spaniards made a general hunt over the whole iſland; and, by deſtroying their game, put the buccaniers under a neceſſity of betaking themſelves to another courſe of life. Some of them turned planters; and thereby increaſed ſome of the French ſettlements on the coaſt, and formed others. The reſt, not reliſhing ſo confined and regular a life, entered among the free-booters, who thereby became a powerful body. France, who had hitherto diſclaimed for her ſubjects theſe ruffians whoſe ſucceſſes were only temporary, acknowledged them, as ſoon as they formed themſelves into ſettlements; and took meaſures for their government and defence. See DOMINGO, St.

(4.) BUCCANIERS OF St DOMINGO, TRADE OF THE. The hunting both of the bull and boar is ſtill carried on, and proves of conſiderable importance. That of the former furniſhes France with the fineſt hides brought from America. The buccaniers put the hides in packs which they call loads, mixing together hides of full grown bulls, of young bullocks, and of cows. Each of theſe loads is compoſed of two bull hides, or of an equivalent; *i. e.* either of two bull hides, or of one bull hide and two cow hides, or of 4 cow hides, or 3 bullocks hides. Each load is commonly ſold for ſix Spaniſh dollars. The boar meat buccaned is ſold by the bundle or pack, weighing commonly

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ly 60 pounds, at the rate of 6 dollars per pack. The palmetto leaves ſerve to pack it up; but their weight is deducted, ſo that there muſt be in each pack 60 lb. of fleſh. Theſe buccaniers have alſo a great trade of the lard of boars, which they melt, and gather into large pots called *potiches*. This lard, which is called *mantegua*, is alſo ſold for about 8 dollars per pot. There is a great trade, and a great conſumption of each of theſe merchandiſes in the French ſettlements of St Domingo, and Tortuga: beſides which, they uſed to ſend great quantities to the Antilles, and even into the continent of French America. There is alſo a great deal of it ſold for the ſupport of the crews of the ſhips that come from France for trading, or which the privateers of Tortuga fit our for cruizing againſt the Spaniards. The Spaniards, who have large ſettlements in St Domingo, have alſo their buccaniers, whom they call *matadores* or *monteros*. Their chace has ſomething in it, which ſavours of the Spaniſh pride: the huntſman being on horſeback, uſes the lance to ſtrike the bull, thinking it beneath his courage to ſhoot him at a diſtance. When the ſervants, who are on foot, have diſcovered the beaſt, and with their dogs have driven it into ſome meadow, in which the maſter waits for them on horſeback, armed with two lances, the matadore hamſtrings it with the firſt lance, the head of which is made like a creſcent or half moon, and extremely ſharp, and kills it afterwards with the other lance, which is a common one. This chace is very pompous; the huntſman commonly making, to attack the bull, the ſame turns and ceremonies which are practiſed in thoſe barbarous feſtivals ſo famous in Spain, wherein the greateſt lords expoſe themſelves, to make the people admire their dexterity and intrepidity in attacking thoſe furious animals; although it is a very dangerous ſport; the bulls, in their fury, often running directly againſt the huntſman, who may think himſelf very happy if he comes off with only the loſs of his horſe. The Spaniards dreſs their hides like the French, and the hides being carried to the Havannah, are part of the trade of that celebrated town. The flota and the galleons ſcarce ever fail touching there, on their return from Vera Cruz and Porto Bello, and carry the hides into Spain, where they are ſold, and are the moſt eſteemed of any that are brought from America into Europe.

(5.) BUCCANIERS, PIRATICAL. Before the Engliſh had made any ſettlement at Jamaica, and the French at St Domingo, ſome pirates of both nations, who have ſince been peculiarly diſtinguiſhed by the name of *Buccaniers*, had driven the Spaniards out of the ſmall iſland of Tortuga; and, fortifying themſelves there, had with amazing intrepidity made excurſions againſt the common enemy. They formed themſelves into ſmall companies, conſiſting of 50, 100, or 150 men each. A boat, of a greater or ſmaller ſize, was their only armament. Here they were expoſed night and day to all the inclemencies of the weather, having ſcarce room enough to lie down. A love of abſolute independence, the greateſt bleſſing to thoſe who are not proprietors of land, rendered them averſe from thoſe mutual reſtraints which the members of ſociety impoſe upon themſelves for the common good. As the authority they had conferred on their captain, was confined to his giving orders in battle, they lived in the greateſt confuſion. Like the ſavages, having no apprehenſion of want, nor any anxiety to preſerve the neceſſaries of life, they were conſtantly expoſed to the ſevereſt extremities of hunger and thuſt. But deriving, even from their very diſtreſſes, a courage ſuperior to every danger, the fight of a ſhip tranſported them to a degree of frenzy. They never deliberated on the attack, but it was their cuſtom to board the ſhip as quickly as poſſible. The ſmallneſs of their veſſels, and the ſkill they ſhowed in the management of them, ſcreened them from the fire of the greater ſhips; and they preſented only the fore part of our little veſſels filled with fuſileers; who fired at the port holes with ſo much exactneſs, that it entirely confounded the moſt experienced gunners. As ſoon as they threw out the grappling, the largeſt veſſels ſeldom eſcaped them. In caſes of extreme neceſſity, they attacked the people of every nation, but fell upon the Spaniards at all times. They thought that the cruelties the latter had exerciſed on the inhabitants of the new world juſtified the implacable averſion they had ſworn againſt them. But this was heightened by a perſonal pique, from the mortification they felt in ſeeing themſelves debarred from the privilege of hunting and fiſhing, which they conſidered as natural rights. Such were their principles of juſtice and religion, that whenever they embarked on any expedition, they uſed to pray to heaven for the ſucceſs of it; and they never came back from the plunder, but they conſtantly returned thanks to God for their victory! The ſhips that ſailed from Europe to America ſeldom tempted their avidity. The merchandiſe they contained would not eaſily have been ſold, nor been very profitable in thoſe early times. The buccaniers waited for their return, when they were laden with gold, ſilver, jewels, and the moſt valuable productions of the new world. If they met a ſingle ſhip, they were ſure to attack her. They followed the fleets till they ſailed out of the gulph of Bahama; and as ſoon as any one of the veſſels was ſeparated by accident from the reſt, it was taken. The Spaniards, who trembled at the approach of the buccaniers, whom they called *devils*, immediately ſurrendered. Quarter was granted, if the cargo proved to be a rich one; if not, all the priſoners were thrown into the ſea. The buccaniers, when they had got a conſiderable booty, at firſt held their rendezvous at the iſland of Tortuga, to divide the ſpoil; but afterwards the French went to St Domingo, and the Engliſh to Jamaica. Each perſon, holding up his hand, ſolemnly proteſted, that he had ſecreted nothing of what he had taken. If any one was convicted of perjury, a caſe that ſeldom happened, he was left, as ſoon as an opportunity offered, upon ſome deſert iſland, as a traitor unworthy to live in ſociety. Such brave men as had been maimed in any of their expeditions, were firſt provided for. If they had loſt a hand, an arm, a leg, or a foot, they received 261. An eye, finger, or toe, loſt in fight was valued only at half the ſum. The wounded were allowed 2s. 6d. a day for two months, to enable them to have their wounds taken care of

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If they had not money enough to anſwer theſe ſeveral demands, the whole company engaged in ſome freſh expedition, and continued it till they had acquired a ſufficient ſtock to enable them to ſatisfy ſuch honourable contracts. After theſe acts of juſtice and humanity, the remainder of the booty was divided into as many ſhares as there were buccaniers. The commander could only claim a ſingle ſhare, but they complimented him with two or three, in proportion as he had acquitted himſelf to their ſatisfaction. Favour never had any influence in the diviſion of the booty; for every ſhare was determined by lot. Inſtances of ſuch rigid juſtice as this are not often met with; and they extended even to the dead. Their ſhare was given to the man who was known to be their companion when alive, and therefore their heir. If the perſon who had been killed had no intimate, his part was ſent to his relations when they were known. If there were no friends or relations, it was diſtributed in charity to the poor and to churches, to obtain prayers for the perſon in whoſe name theſe benefactions were given! When theſe duties had been complied with, they indulged themſelves in gaming, wine, women, and every kind of debauchery; which was carried to the utmoſt pitch of exceſs, and was ſtopt only by the want which ſuch profuſions brought on. Thoſe men who were enriched with ſeveral millions, were ſoon after totally ruined, and deſtitute of clothes and proviſions. They returned to ſea; and the new ſupplies they acquired were quickly laviſhed in the ſame manner. The Spaniſh colonies, reduced almoſt to deſpair in finding themſelves a perpetual prey to theſe ruffians, grew weary of navigation. They gave up all the power, conveniences, and fortune, which their connections procured them, and formed themſelves into many diſtinct and ſeparate ſtates. They were ſenſible of the inconveniences ariſing from ſuch conduct, but the dread of falling into the hands of theſe rapacious monſters, had greater influence over them than the dictates of honour, intereſt, and policy; and gave riſe to that ſpirit of inactivity which ſtill continues. Their deſpondency increaſed the boldneſs of the buccaniers. As yet they had only appeared in the Spaniſh ſettlements, to carry off ſome proviſions when they were in want of them. They no ſooner found their captures begin to diminiſh, than they determined to recover by land what they loſt at ſea. The richeſt and moſt populous countries of the continent were plundered and laid waſte. The culture of lands was equally neglected with navigation; and the Spaniards dared neither appear in their public roads, nor ſail in the latitudes which belonged to them.

(6.) BUCCANIERS, PIRATICAL, HISTORY OF THE MOST CELEBRATED. Among thoſe who ſignalized themſelves in this new ſpecies of excurſions, MONTBAR, a gentleman of Languedoc, particulary diſtinguiſhed himſelf. Having, in his infancy, met with a circumſtantial account of the cruelties practiſed by the Spaniards, in the conqueſt of the new world, he conceived an averſion which he carried to a degree of frenzy againſt that nation which had committed ſuch enormities. The enthuſiaſm this ſpirit of humanity worked him up to, was turned into a rage more cruel than even that of religious fanaticiſm; thus literally fulfilling the text, *the tender mercies of the wicked are cruelty.* The names of theſe unhappy ſufferers ſeemed to rouze him, and call upon him for vengeance. He had heard that the buccaniers were the moſt inveterate enemies to the Spaniſh name: he therefore embarked on board a ſhip, to join them. In the paſſage, they met with a Spaniſh veſſel; attacked it; and, as uſual, immediately boarded it. Montbar, with a ſabre in his hand, fell upon the enemy; broke through them; and hurrying twice from one end of the ſhip to the other, levelled every thing that oppoſed him. When he had compelled them to ſurrender, leaving to his companions the dividing of ſo rich a booty, he contented himſelf with the ſavage pleaſure of contemplating the dead bodies of the Spaniards, lying in heaps together, againſt whom he had ſworn a conſtant and deadly hatred. Freſh opportunities ſoon occurred, that enabled him to glut this ſpirit of revenge. The ſhip he was in arrived at the coaſt of St Domingo; where the buccaniers on land immediately applied to barter ſome proviſions for brandy. As the articles they offered were of little value, they alledged in excuſe, that their enemies had over-run the country, laid waſte their ſettlements, and carried off all they could. "Why (replied Montbar) do you tamely ſuffer ſuch inſults?"—"Neither do we; (anſwered they in the ſame tone) the Spaniards have experienced what kind of men we are, and have therefore taken advantage of the time when we were engaged in hunting. But we are going to join ſome of our companions, who have been ſtill more ill treated than we; and then we ſhall have warm work."—"If you approve of it (anſwered Montbar) I will head you not as your commander, but as the foremoſt to expoſe myſelf to danger." The buccaniers, perceiving that he was ſuch a man as they wanted, cheerfully accepted his offer. The ſame day they overtook the enemy, and Montbar attacked them with an impetuoſity that aſtoniſhed the braveſt. Scarce one Spaniard eſcaped the effects of his fury. The remaining part of his life was equally diſtinguiſhed. The Spaniards ſuffered ſo much from him, both by land and at ſea, that he acquired the name of the *Exterminator.* The ſavage diſpoſitions of the buccaniers, having obliged the Spaniards to confine themſelves within their ſettlements, theſe free-booters reſolved to attack them there. This new method of carrying on the war required ſuperior forces; and their aſſociations in conſequence became more numerous. The firſt that was conſiderable was formed by LOLONOIS, who, from the abject ſtate of a bondſman, had gradually raiſed himſelf to the command of two canoes, with 22 men. With theſe he took a Spaniſh frigate on the coaſt of Cuba. He then repaired to Port-au-Prince, in which were 4 ſhips, fitted out purpoſely to purſue him. He took them, and threw all the crews into the ſea except one man, whom he ſaved, in order to ſend him with a letter to the governor of the Havannah, acquainting him with what he had done, and aſſuring him that he would treat in the ſame manner all the Spaniards that ſhould fall into his hands, not excepting the governor himſelf, if he ſhould be ſo fortunate as

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to take him. After this, he ran his canoes and prize ships aground, and sailed with his frigate only to Tortuga. Here he met with Michael de Basco, who had distinguished himself by having taken, even under the cannon of Porto-Bello, a Spanish ship, estimated at 218,500 l. and by other actions equally brave and daring. These two soon collected together 440 men. This body, the most numerous the buccaniers had yet been able to muster, sailed to the bay of Venezuela, which runs up into the country 50 leagues. The fort that was built at its entrance was taken; the cannon were nailed up; and the whole garrison, consisting of 250 men, put to death. They then reimbarked, and came to Maracaybo, built on the western coast of the lake, at the distance of ten leagues from its mouth. This city, which had become rich by its trade in skins, tobacco, and cocoa, was deserted. The inhabitants had retired with their effects to the other side of the bay. If the buccaniers had not lost a fortnight in riot and debauch, they would have found at Gibraltar, near the extremity of the lake, every thing that the inhabitants had secreted to secure it from being plundered. On the contrary, they met with fortifications lately erected, which they had the useless satisfaction of making themselves masters of, at the expence of a great deal of blood; for the inhabitants had already removed at a distance the most valuable part of their property. Exasperated at this disappointment, they set fire to Gibraltar. Maracaybo would have shared the same fate, had it not been ransomed. Besides the sum they received for its ransom, they also carried off with them all the crosses, pictures, and bells of the churches; intending, as they said, to build a chapel in the island of Tortuga, and consecrate this part of their spoils to sacred purposes. Such was the religion of these barbarous people, who made an offering to heaven of the spoils which arose from their robberies and murders! While they were idly dissipating the money they had got on the coast of Venezuela, MORGAN, the most renowned of the English buccaniers, sailed from Jamaica to attack Porto-Bello. His plan of operations was so well contrived, that he surprised the city, and took it without opposition. The conquest of Panama was an object of much greater importance. To secure this, Morgan thought it necessary to sail in the latitudes of Costa-Ricca; to procure some guides in the island of St Catharine's, where the Spaniards confined their malefactors. This place was so strongly fortified, that it ought to have held out for ten years against a considerable army. Notwithstanding this, the governor, on the first appearance of the pirates, sent privately to concert measures how he might surrender himself without incurring the imputation of cowardice. The result of this consultation was, that Morgan, in the night, should attack a fort at some distance, and the governor should sally out of the citadel to defend a post of so much consequence; that the assailants should then attack him in the rear, and take him prisoner, which would consequently occasion a surrender of the place. It was agreed that a smart firing should be kept on both sides, without doing mischief to either. This farce was admirably carried on. The Spaniards, without being exposed to any danger, appeared to have done their duty; and the buccaniers, after having totally demolished the fortifications, and put on board their vessels a prodigious quantity of warlike ammunitions which they found at St Catharine's, steered their course towards the river Chagre, the only channel that was open to them to arrive at the place which was the object of their utmost wishes. At the entrance of this considerable river, a fort was built upon a steep rock, which the waves of the sea constantly beat against. This bulwark, very difficult of access, was defended by an officer whose extraordinary abilities were equal to his courage, and by a garrison that deserved such a commander. The buccaniers, for the first time, here met with a resistance that could only be equalled by their perseverance: It was doubtful whether they would succeed or be obliged to raise the siege, when the commander was killed, and the fort accidentally taking fire, they made themselves masters of the place. Morgan left his vessels at anchor, with a sufficient number of men to guard them; and sailed up the river in his sloops for 33 miles, till he came to Cruces, where it ceases to be navigable. He then proceeded by land to Panama, 5 leagues distant. Upon a large and extensive plain before the city, he met with a considerable body of troops, whom he put to flight with the greatest ease, and entered into the city, now abandoned. Here were found prodigious treasures concealed in the wells and caves. Some valuable commodities were also taken up upon the boats that were left aground at low water; and in the neighbouring forests were found several rich depositi. Having burnt the city, they set sail with a great number of prisoners, who were ransomed a few days after; and came to the mouth of the Chagre with a prodigious booty. In 1603, an expedition of the greatest consequence was formed by VAN HORN, a native of Ostend, but who had served all his life among the French. His intrepidity would never let him suffer the least signs of cowardice among those who associated with him. In the heat of an engagement, he went about his ship; successively observed his men; and immediately killed those who shrank at the sudden report of a pistol, gun, or cannon. This extraordinary discipline had made him become the terror of the coward, and the idol of the brave. He readily shared with the men of spirit and bravery the immense riches that were acquired by so truly warlike and diabolical a disposition. He generally sailed in his frigate, which was his own property. But these new expeditions requiring greater numbers to carry them into execution, he took to his assistance Gramont, Godfrey, and Jonqué, three Frenchmen distinguished by their exploits; and Lawrence de Graff, a Dutchman, who had signalized himself still more than they. These famous commanders were joined by 1200 buccaniers, and sailed in six vessels for Vera Cruz. The darkness of the night favoured their landing, which was effected at 3 leagues from the place, where they arrived without being discovered. The governor, the fort, the barracks, and the posts of the greatest consequence, were all taken by the break of day. All the citizens, men, women, and children,

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iren, were ſhut up in the churches, whether they had fled for ſhelter. At the door of each church were placed barrels of gun powder to blow up the building. A buccanier with a lighted match, was to ſet fire to it upon the leaſt appearance of an inſurrection. While the city was kept in ſuch terror, it was eaſily pillaged; and after the buccaniers had carried off what was moſt valuable, they made a propoſal to the citizens in the churches, to ranſom their lives and liberties at a contribution of 437,500l. Theſe unfortunate people, who had neither ate nor drank for three days, readily accepted the terms that were offered them. Half of the money was paid the ſame day; the other part was expected from the internal parts of the country; when there appeared on an eminence a conſiderable body of troops advancing, and near the port a fleet of 17 ſhips from Europe. At the ſight of this armament, the buccaniers, without any marks of ſurprize, retreated quietly, with 1500 ſlaves as an indemnification for the reſt of the money, the ſettling of which they referred to a more favourable opportunity. Their retreat was equally daring. They boldly ſailed through the midſt of the Spaniſh fleet; which let them paſs without firing a ſingle gun, and were in fact rather afraid of being attacked and beaten. The Spaniards would not probably have eſcaped ſo eaſily, if the veſſels of the pirates had not been laden with ſilver, or if the Spaniſh fleet had been freighted with any other effects but ſuch merchandiſe as were little valued by the buccaniers. A year had ſcarce elapſed ſince their return from Mexico, when they were all ſeized with the rage of plundering Peru. It is ſomewhat remarkable, that both the Engliſh and French, and the particular aſſociations of theſe two nations, had projected this plan at the ſame time, without any communication, intercourſe, or deſign of acting in concert with each other. About 4000 men were employed in this expedition. Some of them came by Terra Firma, others by the ſtraits of Magellan, to the place that was the object of their wiſhes. If the intrepidity of theſe barbarians had been directed, under a ſkilful commander, they would doubtleſs have deprived the Spaniards of this important colony. But their character was an invincible obſtacle to ſuch an union; for they always formed themſelves into ſeveral diſtinct bodies, ſometimes even ſo few in number as ten or twelve, who acted together, or ſeparated, as caprice directed. Grognier, Lecuyer, Picard, and Le Sage, were the moſt diſtinguiſhed officers among the French: David, Samms, Peter, Wilner, and Towley, among the Engliſh. Such of thoſe adventurers as had got into the South Sea by the ſtraits of Darien, ſeized upon the firſt veſſels they found upon the coaſt. Their aſſociates, who had ſailed in their own veſſels, were not much better provided. Weak however as they were, they beat ſeveral times the ſquadrons that were fitted out againſt them. When there were no more ſhips to be taken, they made deſcents upon the coaſt for proviſions, or went by land to plunder thoſe cities where the booty was ſecured. They ſucceſſively attacked Seppa, Puebla-Nuevo, Leon, Realejo, Puebla-Viejo, Chiriquita, Leſparſo, Granada, Villa, Nicoya, Tecoanteca, Mucmeluna, Chiloteca, New Segovia, and Guayaquil, the moſt conſiderable of all theſe places. Many of them were taken by ſurprize; and moſt of them deſerted by their inhabitants, who fled at the ſight of the enemy. As ſoon as they took a town, it was directly ſet on fire, unleſs a ſum proportionate to its value was given to ſave it. The priſoners in battle were maſſacred without mercy, if they were not ranſomed by their governor or the inhabitants; by gold, pearls, or precious ſtones. Silver being too common, and too weighty for its current value, would have been troubleſome to them. The almighty, who ſeldom leaves guilt unpuniſhed, nor adverſity without a compenſation for its ſuffering, thus employed theſe monſters to puniſh the crimes committed in the conqueſt of the new world; and the Indians were amply revenged of the Spaniards, by the hands of the buccaniers.

(7.) BUCCANIERS, PIRATICAL, HISTORY OF THE, TO THEIR DISSOLUTION. While ſuch piracies were committed on the ſouthern ocean, the northern was threatened with ſimilar by GRAMONT. He was a native of Paris, by birth a *gentleman*, and had diſtinguiſhed himſelf in a military capacity in Europe; but his paſſion for wine, gaming, and women, had obliged him to join the pirates. He was, however, affable, polite, generous, and eloquent; had a ſound judgement, and was a perſon of approved valour; which ſoon made him be conſidered as the chief of the French buccaniers. As ſoon as it was known that he had taken up arms, he was immediately joined by a number of brave men. The governor of St Domingo, who had at length prevailed upon his maſter to approve of the project, equally wiſe and juſt, of fixing the pirates to ſome place, and inducing them to become cultivators, was deſirous of preventing the concerted expedition, and forbad it in the king's name. Gramont ſternly replied, "How can Louis diſapprove of a deſign he is unacquainted with, and which has been planned only a few days ago?" This anſwer highly pleaſed all the buccaniers; who directly embarked, in 1685, to attack Campeachy. They landed without oppoſition. But at ſome diſtance from the coaſt, they were attacked by 800 Spaniards, who were beaten and purſued to the town; which both parties entered at the ſame time. The cannon found there was immediately levelled againſt the citadel. As it had very little effect, they were contriving ſome ſtratagem to enable them to become maſters of the place, when intelligence was brought that it was abandoned. There remained in it only a gunner; an Engliſhman; and an officer of ſuch ſignal courage, that he choſe rather to expoſe himſelf to the greateſt extremities, then baſely to fly from the place with the reſt. The commander of the buccaniers received him with marks of diſtinction, generouſly releaſed him, gave him up all his effects, and beſides complimented him with ſome valuable preſents: ſuch influence have courage and fidelity even on the minds of thoſe who violate all the rights of ſociety. The conquerors of Campeachy ſpent two months in ſearching all the environs of the city, from 12 to 15 leagues, carrying off every thing that the inhabitants, in their flight, thought they had preſerved. When all the treaſure they had

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had collected from every quarter was depoſited in the ſhips, a propoſal was made to the governor of the province, who ſtill kept the field with 900 men, to ranſom his capital city. His refuſal determined them to burn it, and demoliſh the citadel. The French buccaniers, on the feſtival of St Louis, celebrated the anniverſary of their king; and in the tranſports of their patriotiſm, intoxication, and national loyalty, they burnt to the value of a million of logwood; a part, and a very conſiderable one, of the ſpoil they had made. After this ſingular and extravagant inſtance of folly, they returned to St Domingo. In 1697, 1200 buccaniers were induced to join a ſquadron of 7 ſhips that ſailed from Europe under the command of POINTIS, to attack the famous city of Carthagena. This was the moſt difficult enterpriſe that could be attempted in the new world. The ſituation of the port, the ſtrength of the place, the badneſs of the climate, were ſo many obſtacles that ſeemed inſurmountable to any but buccaniers. But every obſtacle yielded to their valour: the city was taken, and booty gained to the amount of 1,750,000l. Their rapacious commander, however, deprived them of the advantages reſulting from this ſucceſs. He ſcrupled not, as ſoon as they ſet ſail, to offer 5250l. for the ſhare of thoſe who had been the chief inſtruments in procuring him ſo conſiderable ſpoil. The buccaniers, exaſperated at this treatment, reſolved immediately to board the veſſel, called the *Sceptre*, where Pointis himſelf was, and which at that time was too far diſtant from the reſt of the ſhips to expect to be aſſiſted by them. This avaricious commander was upon the point of being maſſacred, when one of the malecontents cried out: "Brethren, why ſhould we attack this raſcal? he has carried off nothing that belongs to us. He has left our ſhare at Carthagena; and there we muſt go to recover it." This propoſal was received with general applauſe. A ſavage joy at once ſucceeded that gloomy melancholy which had ſeized them; and without further deliberation all their ſhips ſailed towards the city. As ſoon as they entered the city without reſiſtance, they ſhut up all the men in the great church; and exacted payment of 210,750l. the amount of their ſhare of booty which they had been defrauded of; promiſing to retreat immediately upon their compliance but threatening the moſt dreadful vengeance if they refuſed. Upon this, the moſt venerable prieſt in the city mounted the pulpit, and made uſe of the influence his character, his authority, and his eloquence gave him to perſuade his hearers to yield up without reſerve all the gold, ſilver, and jewels they had. The collection, which was made after the ſermon, not furniſhing the ſum required, the city was ordered to be plundered. At length, after amaſſing all they could, theſe adventures ſet ſail; when they met with a fleet of Dutch and Engliſh ſhips, both which nations were then in alliance with Spain. Several of the pirates were either taken or ſunk, with all the cargo they had on board their ſhips; the reſt eſcaped to St Domingo. Such was the laſt memorable event in the hiſtory of the buccaniers. The ſeparation of the Engliſh and French, when the war, on account of the prince of Orange, divided the two nations: the ſucceſsful means they both made uſe of to promote the cultivation of land among their colonies, by the aſſiſtance of theſe enterpriſing men; and the prudence they ſhowed in fixing upon the moſt diſtinguiſhed among them, and entruſting them with civil and military employments: the protection they were both under a neceſſity of affording to the Spaniſh ſettlements, which till then had been a general object of plunder; all theſe circumſtances, and various others, beſides the impoſſibility there was of ſupplying the place of theſe remarkable men, who were continually dropping off, concurred to put an end to a ſociety as extraordinary as ever exiſted. Without any regular ſyſtem, without laws, without ſubordination, and even without any fixed revenue, they became the aſtoniſhment of the age in which they lived.

BUCCEA, or } in medicine, a term uſed by
BUCCELLA, } ſome to expreſs a fragment of any thing; others uſe it for a polypus of the noſe.

(1.) BUCCELLARII, an order of ſoldiery under the Greek emperors, appointed to guard and diſtribute the ammunition bread. Authors differ, however, as to their office and quality. Some give the denomination to paraſites in the courts of princes, ſome make them the body guards of emperors, and ſome fancy they were only ſuch as emperors employed in putting perſons to death privately.

(2.) BUCCELLARII, was a general name among the Viſigoths for vaſſals who lived at the expence of their lords.

(1.) BUCCELLATIO, in ancient phyſic, a medicine, in which ſcammony was the chief ingredient.

(2) BUCCELLATIO, in ſurgery, is uſed by ſome for ſtopping the bleeding of an artery or vein, by lint.

* BUCCELLATION. *n. ſ.* [*buccella*, a mouthful, Lat.] In ſome chymical authors, ſignifies a dividing into large pieces. *Harris.*

BUCCELLATUM, in ancient military affairs, camp bread, or biſcuit baked hard and dry, for lightneſs and keeping. Soldiers always carried with them enough for a fortnight, and ſometimes much longer, during the time that military diſcipline was kept up. See BAGGAGE, § 2.

(1.) BUCCINA, an ancient muſical and military inſtrument, uſually taken for a kind of trumpet. Feſtus defines it a crooked horn, played on like a trumpet. Vegetius obſerves, that the buccina bent in a ſemicircle, in which reſpect it differed from the TUBA or trumpet. It is hard to diſtinguiſh it from the CORNU, or horn, unleſs it was ſomething leſs, and not quite ſo crooked. It certainly was different, as we never read of the cornu uſed by the watch. Beſides, the ſound of the buccina was ſharper, and to be heard much farther than either the cornu or the tuba. In ſcripture, the like inſtrument, uſed both in war and in the temple, was called KIREN-JOBEL, rams horn, and *ſopheroth bagijobelim*. It was uſed among the Jews to proclaim their feaſt-days, new moons, jubilees, ſabbatic years, and the like. At Lacedemon, notice was given by the buccina, when

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when it was ſupper time; and the like was done it Rome, where the grandees had a buccina blown both before and after they ſat down to table.

(2.) BUCCINA AURIS, in middle age writers, he *drum* of the ear.

(1.) BUCCINATOR, in anatomy, a muſcle on each ſide of the face common to the lips and cheeks; making the inner ſubſtance of the latter. See ANATOMY, § 197.

(2.) BUCCINATOR, in antiquity, he that ſounded the BUCCINA.

(3.) BUCCINATOR NOMINUM, a ſlave, among he ancient Romans, who attended the public crier.

(I.) BUCCINUM, in botany, a name given by ome to the lark-ſpur.

(II.) BUCCINUM, in ichthyology, the WHELK, genus of ſhell fiſh belonging to the order of vermes teſtaceæ. This animal is one of the ſnail kind. The ſhell is univalve, ſpiral, and gibbous. The aperture is oval, ending in a ſmall ſtrait canal. Linnæus enumerates about 60 ſpecies, moſt of which are found in the ſouthern ſeas. The ſix following are found in the Britiſh ſeas.

1. BUCCINUM LAPILLUS, or maſſy whelk, with about 5 ſpires; the ſide of the mouth ſlightly toothed; and a very ſtrong thick ſhell, of a whitiſh colour. A variety yellow, or faſciated with yellow, on a white ground; or fulcated ſpirally, and ſometimes reticulated. It is near an inch and an half long, and inhabits, in vaſt abundance, rocks near low-water mark. This is one of the Britiſh ſhells that produce the purple dye analogous to the PURPURA of the ancients. See MUREX. The proceſs of obtaining the Engliſh purpura is thus deſcribed by Mr William Cole of Briſtol, in 1684: "The ſhells, being harder than moſt other kinds, are to be broken with a ſmart ſtroke of a hammer, on a plate of iron or firm piece of timber, (with their mouth downwards,) ſo as not to cruſh the body of the fiſh within. The broken pieces being picked off, there will appear a white vein lying tranſverſely in a little furrow or cleft next to the head of the fiſh, which muſt be digged out with the ſtiff point of a horſe-hair pencil, being made ſhort and tapering. The letters, figures, or what elſe ſhall be made on the linen, (and perhaps ſilk too,) will preſently appear of a pleaſant light green colour; and if placed in the ſun, will change into the following colours; *i. e.* if in winter, about noon; if in ſummer, an hour or two after ſun riſing, and ſo much before ſetting; for in the heat of the day in ſummer, the colours will come on ſo faſt, that the ſucceſſion of each colour will ſcarcely be diſtinguiſhed.) Next to the light green, it will appear of deep green; and in a few minutes, change into a ſea-green; after which, in a few minutes more, it will alter to a watchet-blue; from that, in a little time more, it will be of a purple-red; after which (ſuppoſing the ſun ſtill ſhining,) it will be of a very deep purple red, beyond which the ſun can do no more. But then, the laſt and moſt beautiful colour, after waſhing in ſcalding water and ſoap, will (the matter being again put into the wind or ſun to dry) be of a fair bright crimſon, or near to the prince's colour; which afterwards, notwithſtanding there is no uſe of any ſtyptic to bind the colour, will continue the ſame if well ordered; as I have found in handkerchiefs, that have been waſhed more than 40 times; only it will be ſomewhat allayed from what it was after the firſt waſhing. While the cloth ſo writ upon lies in the ſun, it will yield a very ſtrong and fœtid ſmell, as if garlic and aſſafœtida were mixed together." *Phil. Tranſ. Abr.* II. 826.

2. BUCCINUM MINUTUM, or ſmall whelk, with 5 ſpires, ſtriated ſpirally, ribbed tranſverſely; is leſs than a pea, and is found in Norway.

3. BUCCINUM PULLUS, or brown whelk, with 5 ſpires, ſtriated, waved, and tuberculated; aperture wrinkled; upper part replicated; and in length $\frac{5}{6}$ of an inch.

4. BUCCINUM RETICULATUM, with ſpires ſcarcely raiſed, and ſtrongly reticulated, is of a deep brown colour, and of an oblong form, and of the ſize of a hazel nut. The aperture is white, gloſſy, and denticulated.

5. BUCCINUM STRIATUM has 8 ſpires, with elevated ſtriæ, undulated near the apex. It is near 4 inches long.

6. BUCCINUM UNDATUM, the waved whelk, with 7 ſpires, ſpirally ſtriated and deeply and tranſverſely undulated. It is 3 inches long, and inhabits deep water.

BUCCINUS, the ſound of the Buccina.

BUCCLEUGH, a village of Scotland, in the county of Selkirk, from which the noble family of Scott have the title of Duke.

(1.) BUCCO, in anatomy, a name given by Riolanus, and others to the muſcle called BUCCINATOR.

(2.) BUCCO, the BARBET, in ornithology, a genus belonging to the order of picæ. The beak is cultrated, turned inwards, compreſſed on the ſides, and emarginated on each ſide at the apex; and there is a long ſlit below the eyes. The noſtrils are covered with feathers. The feet have 4 toes, 2 before and 2 behind. Ornithologiſts enumerate ſeveral ſpecies, either as ſuch, or as individuals, differing only in age or ſex, all found in Aſia, Africa, or the ſouthern parts of America.—But Linnæus mentions only one, viz.

BUCCO CAPENSIS, the bull faced barbet. See *Plate* XLII. *Fig.* 17.

(1.) BUCCULA, in anatomy, the fleſhy part under the chin.

(2.) BUCCULA, in antiquity, the umbo or prominent part in the middle of a ſhield; thus called becauſe uſually made in the form of a mouth or face.

BUCCULENT, *adj. obſ.* wide-mouthed. *Aſh.*

(1.) BUCENTAUR, a galeas, or large galley of the ci-devant doge of Venice, adorned with fine pillars on both ſides, and gilt over from the prow to the ſtern. This veſſel is covered over head with a kind of tent made of purple ſilk. In it the doge received the great lords and perſons of quality that went to Venice, accompanied with the ambaſſadors, counſellors of ſtate, and all the ſenators ſeated on benches by him. It ſerved alſo in the magnificent ceremony of aſcenſion day, on which the doge threw a ring into the ſea to eſpouſe it, and to denote his dominion over the gulph of

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Venice. Some aſcribe the name to its being ornamented with the figure of a centaur; and trace its origin to the year 1177.

(2.) BUCENTAUR is alſo the name of a ſhip, as great and magnificent as that of the Venetians, built by order of the elector of Bavaria, and launched on a lake ſix leagues in length.

BUCEPHALA, or BUCEPHALOS, in ancient geography, a town, built by Alexander, on the W. ſide of the Hydaſpis, a river of the Hither India, in memory of his horſe.

BUCEPHALON, in botany. See TROPHIS.

BUCEPHALUS, the horſe of Alexander the Great, which was killed in the action with Porus, after croſſing that river. Others ſay, this horſe died of age, 30 years old; and not in the battle, but ſome time after. Heſychius ſays, his being marked on the buttock with the head of an ox, gave riſe to his name. This animal, who had ſo long ſhared the toils and dangers of his maſter, had formerly received ſignal marks of royal regard. Having diſappeared in the country of Uxii, Alexander iſſued a proclamation, commanding his horſe to be reſtored, otherwiſe he would ravage the whole country with fire and ſword. This command was immediately obeyed. "So dear" ſays Arrian, "was Bucephalus to Alexander, and ſo terrible was Alexander to the Barbarians!"

BUCER, Martin, one of the firſt reformers at Straſburg, was born in 1491, in Alſace; and took the religious habit of St Dominic, at 7 years of age: but meeting with the writings of Martin Luther, and comparing them with the Scriptures, he began to doubt of ſeveral things in the Romiſh religion. After ſome conferences with Luther at Heidelburg in 1521, he adopted moſt of his ſentiments; but, in 1532, he gave the preference to thoſe of Zuinglius. He aſſiſted in many conferences concerning religion; and in 1548, was ſent for to Augſburg to ſign the agreement between the Papiſts and Proteſtants, called the *interim*. His warm oppoſition to this project expoſed him to many difficulties and hardſhips; the news of which reaching England, where his fame had already arrived, Cranmer, Abp. of Canterbury, gave him an invitation to come over, which he readily accepted. In 1549, an handſome apartment was aſſigned him in the univerſity of Cambridge, and a ſalary to teach theology. K. Edward VI. had the greateſt regard for him. Being told that he was very ſenſible of the cold of the climate, and ſuffered much for want of a German ſtove, he ſent him 100 crowns to purchaſe one. He died in 1551, and was buried at Cambridge with great funeral pomp. In the reign of Mary, 5 years after, he was buried, his body was dug up and publicly burnt, and his tomb demoliſhed; but it was afterwards re-built by order of queen Eliſabeth. He compoſed many works, among which are commentaries on the evangeliſts and goſpels.

BUCERAS, in botany, fenugreek. See TRIGONELLA.

BUCERISM, the tenets of Bucer.

BUCEROS, in ornithology, a genus belonging to the order of picæ. The beak is convex, cultrated, very large, and ſerrated outwards: the fore head is naked, with a bony gibboſity. The noſtrils are behind the baſe of the beak. The tongue is ſharp and ſhort. The feet are of the greſſarii kind, *i e.* the toes are diſtinct from each other. There are 4 ſpecies, viz.

1. BUCEROS, BICORNIS, with a flat bony forehead, and two horns before. The body is black, and about the ſize of a hen; but the breaſt, belly, and thighs are white. There is a white ſpot on the wing; the tail is long, with ten black prime feathers, and the 4 outermoſt on each are white. The feet are greeniſh with 3 toes before, and one behind. It is a native of China, and called CALAO by Willoughby and other authors. The PIED HORN-BILL, deſcribed by Mr Latham (*Synopſ.* Vol. I. p. 349.) from a living ſpecimen which came from the E. Indies, the author ſuppoſes to be the ſame ſpecies, differing merely in ſex or age. In ſize it was a trifle bigger than a crow. The manners of this bird were peculiar: it would leap forwards or ſideways with both legs at once like a magpie or jay, never walking: when at reſt it folded its head back between the wings: the general air and appearance was rather ſtupid and dull, though it would ſometimes put on a fierce look when ſurpriſed: it would eat lettuce, after bruiſing it with its bill, and ſwallow raw fleſh; as well as devour rats, mice, and ſmall birds, if given to him: it had different tones of voice on different occaſions; ſometimes a hoarſe ſound in the throat, moſt like *oück, cück*; at other times very hoarſe and weak, not unlike the clucking of a Turkey hen. This bird uſed to diſplay its wings and enjoy itſelf in a warm ſun, but ſhivered in the cold; and, as the winter approached, died, unable to bear the ſeverity of the climate, ſo different to its nature. See *Plate* XLI. *Fig.* 1. Another variety, the calao (*Phil. Tranſ.* vol. xxiii. p. 394.) is about the ſize of a hen. It inhabits the Philippine iſlands, and has a cry more like that of a hog or a calf than of a bird. The Gentoos rank it among their gods, and worſhip it. It lives altogether in woods, feeding on fruits, ſuch as the Indian fig, piſtachios, &c. which it ſwallows whole; and after the external parts have been digeſted, it brings up the nuts again whole, with the kernels fit for vegetation.

2. BUCEROS HYDROCORAX, the Indian crow of Ray, has a plain bony fore-head without any horns. The body is yelloviſh, and blackiſh below. It inhabits the Molucca iſles. Willoughby obſerves, that it reſembles our raven in the bill, but is red on the temples like ſome kinds of turkies; has wide noſtrils and ill-favoured eyes; and that it feeds chiefly on nutmegs, whence its fleſh has a fine aromatic reliſh. In its native place it is frequently tamed, and is uſeful in deſtroying rats and mice in houſes.

3. BUCEROS NASUTUS, has a ſmooth fore-head, is about the ſize of a magpye, and is a native of Senegal. Theſe birds are very common at Senegal, and other warm parts of the old continent, where they are called *tock*. They are very tame, while young, inſomuch as to ſuffer themſelves to be taken by the hand; but having learned experience with age, they become rather ſhy. When taken young they immediately become familiar; but are ſo ſtupid, as not to feed of themſelves, though food be offered to them. In their wild

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ſtate they feed on fruits, but when domeſticated eat bread, and almoſt any thing that is offered to them.

5. BUCEROS RHINOCEROS has a crooked horn in the forehead joined to the upper mandible. It is a native of India. It is ſaid to feed on fleſh and carrion; and to follow the hunters for the purpoſe of feeding on the entrails of the beaſts which they kill. They chace rats and mice, and after preſſing them flat with the bill in a peculiar manner and toſſing them up into the air, ſwallow them whole immediately on their deſcent.

BUCHAM, a vilage in Norfolkſhire, near Havergate, W. of Yarmouth.

(1.) BUCHAN, a territory, of Scotland, lying partly in the county of Aberdeen and partly in that of Banff. The latter diſtrict extends northwards from the Ugie to the ſea, and weſtward as far as Deveron, comprehending a tract of 20 miles in length and 9 in breadth, is more free from hills and mountains than any other county of the ſame extent in Scotland. That part which lies in Aberdeenſhire, extends S. to the river Ythan. It is inhabited chiefly by Lowlanders, and gives the title of *earl* to the family of Erſkine; of which family, however, Erſkine of Mar is the chief.

(2.) BUCHAN, BULLERS OF. See BULLERS BUCHAN.

(1.) BUCHANAN, a pariſh of Scotland, in Stirlingſhire, anciently called INCH-CAILLOCH, about 27 m. long and 9 broad. A long tract of it lies on the N. ſide of Lochlomond, and the Grampian hills ſtretch through it, from SW. to N. E. The climate is healthy, but rather moiſt. Some of the natives have reached to 98 and 99 years of age. The ſoil is various, and produces oats, barley, ſown graſs, and potatoes, upon which laſt the people live half the year. The population about 1790, was 1111, and had decreaſed 598, ſince 1755, according to Mr M'Gibbon's ſtatement to Sir J. Sinclair.

(2.) BUCHANAN, George, the beſt Latin poet of his time, was born in February 1506. This accompliſhed ſcholar and diſtinguiſhed wit was not deſcended of a family remarkable for its rank. He had no occaſion for the ſplendor of anceſtry. He wanted not a reflected greatneſs, the equivocal, and too often the only ornament of the rich and noble. A ſmall farm called the Moss, 2 miles from the village of Killearn, in Stirlingſhire, was the place of his nativity, and the property of his father. George, however, might have been confined to toil at the loweſt employments of life, if the generoſity of his uncle George Heriot, had not aſſiſted him in his education, and enabled him to purſue for two years his ſtudies at Paris, after his father's death. But that ſhort ſpace was ſcarcely elapſed, when the death of his benefactor obliged him to return to his own country, and forſake for a time the paths of ſcience. He was yet under his 20th year, and in this extremity, he enliſted as a common ſoldier under John duke of Albany, who commanded the troops which France had ſent, to aſſiſt Scotland in the war againſt England. But he was diſguſted with the fatigues of one campaign; and, fortunately, John Major, then profeſſor of philoſophy at St Andrew's, hearing of his neceſſity and his merit, afforded him a temporary relief. He now became the pupil of John Maiz, a celebrated teacher in that univerſity, under whom he ſtudied logic: and contracting an attachment to his maſter, he followed him to Paris, where he was invited to teach grammar in the college of St Barbe. In this ſlaviſh occupation, he was found by the earl of Caſſillis; with whom, having remained 5 years at Paris, he returned to Scotland. He next acted as a preceptor to the famous earl of Murray, the natural ſon of James V. But while he was forming this nobleman for foreign affairs, he found that his life was in danger, from enemies, whoſe vindictive rage could ſuffer no abatemen, and who would not ſcruple the moſt diſhonourable means of gratifying it. The ſcandalous lives of the clergy had excited his indignation; and, more than reaſoning or argument, had eſtranged him from the errors of Popery. The Franciſcan monks, enraged at the beautiful but poignant ſatires he had written againſt them, branded him with the appellation of *atheiſt*; a term which bigots of all denominations are too apt indiſcriminately to laviſh upon thoſe who differ from them. Not ſatisfied with the outrage of abuſe and calumny, they conſpired his deſtruction. Cardinal Beaton gave orders to apprehend him, and bribed king James V. with a very conſiderable ſum to permit his execution. He was ſeized accordingly; and the firſt genius of the age was about to periſh by the halter, or by fire, to ſatisfy a few bloody prieſts, when eſcaping the vigilance of his guards, he fled into England. Henry VIII. at all times the ſlave of caprice and paſſion, was then burning at the ſame ſtake, the Lutheran and the Papiſt. His court did not ſuit a philoſopher or a ſatyriſt. After a ſhort ſtay, Buchanan croſſed the ſea to France; and to his extreme diſappointment, found, at Paris, cardinal Beaton, as ambaſſador from Scotland. He retired privately to Bourdeaux, dreading new misfortunes, and concerned that he could not proſecute his ſtudies in obſcurity and in ſilence. Here he met with Andrew Govea, a Portugueſe of great learning and worth, with whom he had formerly been acquainted during his travels, and who was employed in teaching a public ſchool. He diſdained not to act as the aſſiſtant of his friend; and during the 3 years he reſided at this place, he compoſed the tragedies which do him ſo much honour. It was here, alſo, that he wrote ſome of the moſt pleaſant of thoſe poems, in which he rallied the Muſes, and threatened to forſake them, as not being able to maintain their votary. About this time, too, he preſented a copy of verſes to the emperor Charles V. who happened to paſs through Bourdeaux. His enemies, mean time, were not inactive. Cardinal Beaton wrote about him to the archbiſhop of Bourdeaux; and by every motive which a cunning and wicked heart can invent, he invited him to puniſh the moſt peſtilential of all heretics. The archbiſhop, however, on enquiry, was convinced that the poet had committed a very ſmall impropriety. Meantime Govea being called by the K. of Portugal, to eſtabliſh an academy at Coimbra, intreated Buchanan to accompany him. He conſented, but had not been a year in Portugal, when Govea died, and left him expoſed to the malice of his inveterate enemies the monks. The loud-

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ly objected to him, that he was a Lutheran; that he had written poems againſt the Franciſans; and that he had been guilty of the abominable crime of eating fleſh in lent. He was confined to a monaſtry till he ſhould learn what theſe men fancied to be religion; and they enjoined him to tranſlate the Pſalms into Latin verſe; a taſk which every man of taſte knows with what admirable ſkill and genius he performed. On obtaining his liberty, he had the promiſe of a ſpeedy promotion from the king of Portugal; the iſſue of which, his averſion to the clergy did not allow him to wait. He haſtened to England; but the perturbed ſtate of affairs during the minority of Edward VI. not giving him the proſpect of any laſting ſecurity, he ſet out for France. There he had not been long, when he publiſhed his Jephthes, which he dedicated to the marſhal de Briſſac. This patron did not want generoſity, and could judge of merit. He ſent him to Piedmont, as preceptor to his ſon Timoleon de Coſſi. In this employment he continued ſeveral years; and during the leiſure it afforded him, he fully examined the controverſies which now agitated Europe; and put the laſt hand to many of the moſt admired of his ſmaller poems. After this, he returned to Scotland, and made an open profeſſion of the reformed faith. But he ſoon quitted his native country for France; which appears to have been more agreeable to his taſte. Q. Mary, however, having determined that he ſhould have the charge of educating her ſon, recalled him; and till the prince ſhould arrive at a proper age, he was nominated to the principality of St Andrew's. His ſucceſs as James's preceptor is well known.—When it was reproached to him that he had made his majeſty a pedant: "It is a wonder (replied he) that I have made ſo much of him." Mackenzie relates a ſtory concerning his tutelage of his pedantic majeſty, which is ſtrongly expreſſive of Buchanan's character as a man of humour, and at the ſame time ſhows the degree of his veneration for royalty. The young king being one day at play with his fellow pupil, the maſter of Erſkine, Buchanan, who was then reading, deſired them to make leſs noiſe. Finding that they diſregarded his admonition, he told his majeſty, if he did not hold his tongue, he would certainly whip his breech. The king replied he would be glad to ſee who would *bell the cat*, alluding to the fable. Buchanan, in a paſſion, threw the book from him and gave his majeſty a ſound flogging. The old counteſs of Mar, who was then in the next apartment, ruſhed into the room and taking the king in her arms, aſked how he dared to lay his hand on *the Lord's anointed?* "Madam, ſays Buchanan, I have whipped his a—; you may kiſs it, if you pleaſe." During the misfortunes that befel the amiable but imprudent Mary, he joined the party of the Earl of Murray; and at his earneſt deſire, he was prevailed upon to write his *Detection*, a work which his greateſt admirers have read with regret. Having been ſent with other commiſſioners to England, againſt his miſtreſs, he was, on his return, rewarded with the abbacy of Croſs Reguel; made director to the chancery; and ſome time after lord of privy council and privy ſeal. He was likewiſe rewarded by Q. Elizabeth with a penſion of L. 100 a-year. The laſt 12 years of his life he employed in compoſing the hiſtory of Scotland. After having vied with the moſt eminent of the Latin poets, he conteſted with Livy and Salluſt the palm of eloquence and political ſagacity. But like the former of theſe hiſtorians, he was not always careful to preſerve himſelf from the charge of partiality. He expired at Edinburg, in 1582, aged 76. Authors ſpeak of him in very different language, according to their religious and political principles. As a Latin writer, however, in proſe as well as poetry, he has hardly been equalled ſince the reign of Auguſtus; nor is he leſs deſerving of remembrance as a friend to the natural liberties of mankind, in oppoſition to uſurpation and tyranny. "The happy genius of Buchanan, (ſays Doctor Robertſon,) equally formed to excel in proſe and in verſe, more various, more original, and more elegant, than that of almoſt any other modern who writes in Latin, reflects, with regard to this particular, the greateſt luſtre on his country." And the Earl of Buchan, in his *Introd.* to his *Life of Fletcher*, (p. xxi.) ſays, "Buchanan aroſe in Scotland like the morning ſtar, to announce the approach of philoſophical day. He was the father of *Wbiggery as a Syſtem* in Britain, if not in Europe; the Lord Bacon or Newton of political ſcience; by far the greateſt man of his age, as Napier was of his country, in invention; in as much as political ſcience is above all others in real importance. Buchanan and Fletcher alone were elevated above the ages in which they lived; and ſhed a luſtre towards thoſe that were to ſucceed, which will continue to ſhine more and more unto the perfect day." The following is a liſt of his works, 1. *Rerum Scoticarum Hiſtoria*, &c. 2. *Pſalmorum Davidis paraphraſis poetica.* 3. *De jure regni apud Scotos Dialogus.* 4. *Pſalmus* civ. *cum judicio Barclaii*, &c. 5. *Pſalmus* cxx. *cum analyſi organica Beuzeri.* 6. *Baptiſtes, ſive Calumnia.* 7. *Jephthes, ſive votum, tragœdia.* 8. *Euripidis Medea et Alceſtis, tragœdiæ.* 9. *De Caleto recepto carmen.* 10. *Franciſcanus et Fratres.* 11. *Elegiæ, Silvæ*, &c. 12. *De ſphæra.* 13. *Poemata miſcellanea.* 14. *Satyra in cardinalem Lotharingium.* 15. *Rudimenta grammatices, Themæ Linacri ex Anglico ſermone in Latinum verſa.* 16. An admonition to the true lords. 17. *De proſodi.* 18. *Chamæleon*, 1572. 19. *Ad viros ſui ſeculi epiſtolæ.* 20. *Literæ reginæ Scoticæ ad com. Bothweliæ*, 21. A detection of the doings of Mary queen of Scots, and of James earl of Bothwell, againſt Henry lord Darnly. 22. *Hendecaſyllabi, et Jambi.* 23. *Fratres Fraterrimi.* 24. *Epigrammata.* 25. *Vita ab ipſo ſcripta biennio ante mortem.* 26. Life of Mary queen of Scots. Theſe have been ſeverally printed often, and in various countries. An edition of his whole works was printed at Edinburgh, in 1704, in 2 vols folio. An elegant monument was erected to his memory, in 1788, at Killearn; which is thus deſcribed by the rev. Mr Ure: "It is a well proportioned obeliſk, 19 feet ſquare at the baſis, and reaching to the height of 103 feet. In the middle is a cavity of 6 feet ſquare at the bottom, gradually diminiſhing until it reaches the height of 54 feet; where it becomes

ſo

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) narrow as to receive the end of a Norway pole, which is continued to the top of the obelisk. The oundation stone was laid in June, 1788, by the ev. J. Graham. In it was deposited a crystal ottle hermetically sealed, containing a silver meal; on which was engraved the following inscription:

IN MEMORIAM
GEORGII BUCHANANI,
POETÆ & HISTORICI CELEBERRIMI:
ACCOLIS HUJUS LOCI ULTRA CONFERENTIBUS,
HÆC COLUMNA POSITA EST, 1788.
JACOBUS CRAIG, ARCHITECT. EDINBURGEN."

(3.) BUCHANAN HOUSE, an ancient mansion n the above parish, (N° 1.) which belonged for ear 700 years to the Buchanans of that ilk, but s now the seat of the D. of Montrose.

(4.) BUCHANAN'S SOCIETY, a charitable institution in Glasgow, founded in 1725, for the relief of persons of the name of Buchanan.

BUCHANITES, a sect of enthusiasts, who sprung up in the west of Scotland, about 1783, and took their name from a Mrs Buchan of Glasgow, who gave herself out to be the woman spoken of in the Revelations, and that all who believed in her should be taken up into Heaven without tasting death, as the end of the world was near. Mr White minister of the Relief Church at Irvine, whom she stiled the man-child brought forth by the woman,) with the town clerk and some others, were among the principal people, who were so infatuated as to listen to her ravings, and join her followers. From the folly of some bigots, the Buchanites had their share of persecution. At Irvine, the house in which they met was assaulted, and the furniture and windows broken; and in Dec. 1784, similar outrages were committed against them at Closeburn, in Dumfries-shire; in consequence whereof 21 of the rioters were fined by the sheriff. Their party, however, never increased much, and the death of their leader within a year or two afterwards, occasioned their dispersion by putting an end to their hopes of reaching the New Jerusalem without death. See *Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc.* VII. 181; and *Scots Mag.*

BUCHAN-NESS, a promontory of Scotland, of which it is the fartheſt point, and the moſt eaſtern of all Scotland. It is near Peterhead. Lon. 1. 20. E. Lat. 57. 28. N.

BUCHANTY, a place in Perthshire, where there is a bridge over the Almon.

BUCHARS, a people of Great Tartary, who inhabit ABLAI, and are subject to Russia.

BUCHAU, or } a free and imperial town of
(1.) BUCHAW, } Germany in Suabia, seated on the Tederſee, 22 miles SW. of Ulm. It has a monastery, whose abbess has a voice in the diets of the empire. Lon. 9. 40. E. Lat. 48. 5. N.

(2.) BUCHAW, a small territory of Germany, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, which comprehends the district of Flud.

BUCHNERA, in botany, a genus of the angiospermia order, in the didynamia class of plants; ranking, in the natural method, under the 40th order, Personatæ. The characters are these: the perianthium is tubular, consisting of one leaf, divided into 5 segments at the edge, and remaining after the flower is fallen. The flower consists of one petal, which forms a very long and capillary arched tube; its verge is plain and short, and is divided lightly into 5 segments, which are small at the base, and broader, and figured like a heart at the top. The stamina are 4 very short filaments; the antheræ are oblong and obtuse; the germen of the pistil is oblong and oval; the style is very slender, and of the length of the tube; and the stigma is obtuse. The fruit is capsule of an oblong oval figure, pointed at the end, containing two cells, and opening at the top into two parts. The seeds are numerous, and of an angular figure. There are 4 species.

BUCHOREST, a pretty large town of Turkey in Europe, seated in the midde of Walachia, and the ordinary residence of a hospodar. The houses are mean and very ill built, except a few that belong to the principal persons. In 1716, a party of Germans from Transylvania entered this town, and took the prince prisoner with all his court, and carried them off. The prince to regain his liberty, gave up that part of Walachia, which lies between the river Aluth and Transylvania, to the emperor, in 1718. But after the fatal battle of Crotzka, in 1737, the emperor was obliged to restore this part of Walachia to the hospodar by the treaty of Belgrade. Lon. 26. 30. E. Lat. 44. 30. N.

BUCHORN, a small, free, and imperial town of Suabia in Germany, seated on the lake, 14 m. E. from the town of Constance. Lon. 9. 20. E. Lat. 47. 40. N.

BUCIDA, in botany, a genus of the order monogynia, in the decandria class of plants; ranked, in the natural method, under the 12th order, Holoraceæ. The calyx is indented in 5 segments; it has no corolla; and the fruit is a single seeded berry. There is only one species.

BUCINAM, in botany, the comfrey. See SYMPHYTUM.

BUCIOCHE, in commerce, a sort of woollen cloth manufactured in France, chiefly in the departments of Var, Lower Alps, and Mouths of the Rhone, which the French export to Alexandria and Cairo.

(1.) * BUCK. *a. ſ.* [*bauche*, Germ. suds, or lye.] 1. The liquor in which clothes are washed.—*Buck!* I would I could wash myself of the *buck*: I warrant you, buck, and of the season too it shall appear. *Shakesp.* 2. The clothes washed in the liquor.—Of late, not able to travel with her furred pack, she washes *bucks* here at home. *Shak.*

(2.) * BUCK. *n. ſ.* [*bwch*, Welch; *bock*, Dutch; *bour*, Fr.] The male of the fallow deer; the male of rabbets, and other animals.—*Bucks*, goats, and the like are said to be tripping or saliant, that is, going or leaping. *Peacham.*

(3.) BUCK, in geography, a mountain of Scotland, in Aberdeenshire, which is 2377 feet above the level of the sea, and is seen at the distance of 30 miles from land, though situated above 30 m. from the nearest sea.

(4.) BUCK, in zoology and hunting. See CERVUS, LEPUS, and HUNTING.

(1.) * *To* BUCK. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To wash clothes.

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clothes.—Here is a basket; he may creep in here, and throw foul linen upon him, as if it were going to *bucking*. *Shakespeare*.

(2.) * *To* BUCK. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To copulate as bucks and does.—The chief time of setting traps, as in their *bucking* time. *Mortimer*.

BUCK-A-BANK, a village in Cumberland.

* BUCKBASKET. *n. f.* The basket in which clothes are carried to the wash:—They conveyed me into a *buckbasket*; rammed me in with foul shirts, foul stockings, and greasy napkins. *Shak.*

(1.) * BUCKBEAN. *n. f.* [*bockſboonen*, Dutch.] A plant; a sort of *trefoil*.—The bitter, nauseous plants, as centaury, *buckbane*, gentian, of which teas may be made, or wines, by infusion. *Floyer*.

(2.) BUCK-BEAN, in botany. See MENYANTHES.

BUCKBY, LONG, a village in Northamptonsh. 3 miles NE. of Daventry.

BUCKDEN, or BUGDEN. See BUGDEN.

BUCKDON, near Bishopsdale, Yorkshire.

BUCKELLY, 4 miles SW. of Camelford, Cornwall.

BUCKEN-HALL, in Essex, N. of Bocking.

(1.) BUCKENHAM, a town in Norfolkshire, 12 miles from Thetford, and 90 from London.

(2.) BUCKENHAM FERRY, a village in Norfolkshire, over the Yare, 5 miles E. of Norwich.

(3.) BUCKENHAM HOUSE, 4 m. N. of Thetford.

(4.) BUCKENHAM, NEW, a town of Norfolk, which formerly had a strong castle. It is seated on the river Wavency, between Ipswich and Norwich, 96 miles from London. Lon. 1. 10. E. Lat. 52. 30. N.

(5.) BUCKENHAM, OLD, NW. of New Buckenham.

BUCKERALL, 3 miles W. of Honiton, Devonshire.

BUCKEREST. See BUCHOREST.

BUCKERN, 3 miles N. of Bodnin, Cornwall.

(1.) * BUCKET. *n. f.* [*baquet*, Fr.] 1. The vessel in which water is drawn out of a well.—

Now is this golden crown like a deep well,
That owes two *buckets*, filling one another;
The emptier ever dancing in the air,
The other down unseen, and full of water.
Shakespeare.

—Is the sea ever likely to be evaporated by the sun, or to be emptied with *buckets*? *Bentley*. 2. The vessels in which water is carried, particularly to quench a fire.—

Now streets grow throng'd, and, busy as by day,
Some run for *buckets* to the hallow'd quire;
Some cut the pipes, and some the engines play;
And some, more bold, mount ladders to the fire.
Dryden.

The porringers, that in a row,
Hung high, and made a glitt'ring show,
To a less noble substance chang'd,
Were now but leathern *buckets* rang'd. *Swift*.

(2.) BUCKETS (§ 1. *def.* 2.) are often made of leather for lightness and easy use in cases of fire.

BUCKFASTLEIGH, a village in Devonshire, 3 miles from Ashburnham.

BUCKHAM, in Surry, near Egham.

BUCKHAMPTON, near Lamborn, Berkshire.

BUCKHAVEN, a village on the coast of Fifeshire, in the parish of Wemyss, inhabited chiefly by fishermen, who generally marry young, and all of them fishermen's daughters. Its first inhabitants were Dutchmen, whose vessel being stranded on this coast, in the reign of Philip II. they proposed to settle on it, which the family of Wemyss agreed to. By the rev. Mr Gibb's report to Sir J. Sainclair, it contained, in 1791, 163 families, consisting of 601 inhabitants, of sober, honest, and industrious characters. Above 40 years ago, haddocks were so plentiful on this coast that they would have caught 25,000 in one day, which sold at from 6d. to 10d. per 100.

BUCKHOLE, 2 miles SE. of Hoo, Suffex.

BUCKHOLE FOREST, in Hampshire, near Wilts.

BUCKHORN WESTON, in Dorsetshire.

BUCK-HUNTING. See HUNTING.

BUCKHURST, in Suffex, near Ashdown.

(1.) BUCKIE, a fishing town on the coast of Banff-shire, in the parish of Rathven, seated at the mouth of the rivulet. (N° 2.) By the rev. Mr Donaldson's report to Sir J. Sinclair, in 1793, it contained 165 houses, and 703 inhabitants; and employed 6 sloops, 14 boats, and 1 yawl.

(2.) BUCKIE, a rivulet in Banff-shire.

BUCKING. See BLEACHING, *Index*.

(1.) BUCKINGHAM, a county of the United States, in Virginia, bounded on the N. by James river, which separates it from Fluvanna; on the SE. by Cumberland; on the SW. by Campbell; and on the S. by the Appamattox, which divides it from Prince-Edward County. It is 65 miles long and 30 broad; and in 1795, contained 5,611 free inhabitants, and 4,168 slaves.

(2.) BUCKINGHAM, BUCKS, or BUCKINGHAMSHIRE, an inland county of England. Before the landing of the Romans it was included in the division of Catieuchlani; and after their conquest it was included in their 3d province of Flavia Cæsariensis. During the heptarchy it belonged to the kingdom of Mercia; and it is now included in the Norfolk circuit, the diocese of Lincoln, and the province of Canterbury. It is bounded on the N. by Northamptonshire; S. by Berkshire; E. by Bedfordshire, Hertfordshire, and Middlesex; and W. by Oxfordshire. It is of an oblong form, and its greatest extent is from N. to S. It contains 441,000 acres, has above 111,400 inhabitants, 185 parishes, 73 vicarages, is 39 miles long, 18 broad, and 109 in circumference. It has 15 market towns, viz. Buckingham and Aylesbury the county towns, Marlow, Newport-Pagnel, Winslow, Wendover, Beaconsfield, Wiccomb, Chesham, Amersham, Stony Stratford, Colnbrook, Ivingho, Oulney, and Risborough; besides the considerable villages of Eaton and Fenny Stratford, and 613 others inferior. It is divided into 8 hundreds, provides 560 men for the militia, sends 14 members to parliament, and pays 12 parts of the land-tax. Its rivers are the Thames, Ouse, Colne, Wicham, Amersham, Isa, Tame, and Loddon. Its chief trade consists in bone-lace, paper, corn, fine wool, and breeding rams. The most noted places are the Chiltren Hills, Vale of Aylesbury, Bernwood Forest, Wooburn Heath, and 15 parks. The air is generally good, and the soil mostly chalk or marle.

(3.) BUCKINGHAM, the chief town of the above county, (N° 2.) stands in a low ground, on the river

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ver Ouse, by which it is almost surrounded, and over which there are 3 handsome stone bridges. It is large and populous, and sends two members to parliament. At the conquest, according to Doomsday-book, it paid only for one hide, and had but 26 burgesses. Edward the elder fortified it in 918, against the incursions of the Danes, with a rampart and turrets. It also had formerly a castle in the middle of the town of which no vestiges now remain. The shrine of St Rumbald, the patron of fishermen, preserved in the church, was held in great veneration. The county gaol stands in this town, and the assizes are sometimes held in it. It was formerly a staple for wool. It is governed by a bailiff and 12 burgesses, who are the sole electors of the members. In its neighbourhood are many paper mills upon the Ouse. It is 25 miles NE. of Oxford, and 57 NW. of London. Lon. 0. 58. W. Lat. 51. 56. N.

(4.) BUCKINGHAM, a village in Sussex, N. of Shoreham.

(5, 6.) BUCKINGHAM, dukes of. See SHEFFIELD, and VILLIERS.

BUCKINGTON, a town in Wilts, between Devizes and Trowbridge.

BUCKLAND, the name of 15 English villages; viz. 1. in Berkshire, near Farrington: 2. in Bucks, NE. of Wendover: 3. EAST, and 4. WEST, in Devonsh. near S. Moulton: 5. NORTH, in ditto, near Bear-Alston: 6. in Gloucestershire, 5 miles W. of Campden: 7. in Hertfordshire, 34 miles from London: 8, 9, & 10. in Kent, near Dover, Feversham, and Maidstone: 11. in Lincolnshire, between Tattershall and Horncastle: 12. in Somersetshire, 2 miles NE. of Frome; 13. in ditto, 5 miles from Taunton; 14. in ditto, near Wellington: and 15. in Surry, near Ryegate.

BUCKLAND-ABBAS, or NEWTON, in Dorsetsh. 4 miles E. of Cerne-Abbas.

BUCKLAND-ABBOTS, near Calne, Wilts.

BUCKLAND-BRUER, in Devonsh. NW. of Torrington.

BUCKLAND BURN, a rivulet of Scotland, in Kirkcudbrightshire.

BUCKLAND-FEE, a village in Somersetshire, near N. Petherton.

BUCKLAND-FILLY, in Devonsh. NW. of Sheepwash.

BUCKLAND HOUSE, New Forest, Hampshire.

BUCKLAND-MARY, in Somersetshire, 4 miles SW. of Ilminster. It has a fair September 18.

BUCKLAND MONACHORUM, [*i. e.* OF THE MONKS,] in Devonshire, near Tavistock. It has fairs on Whit. Tuesday and November 2.

BUCKLAND-RIPERS, in Dorsetsh. SW. of Radipole.

BUCKLAND'S PLACE, in Gloucestershire, near Badgworth.

BUCKLAND-TOWNSEND, in Devonshire, near Dartmouth.

(1.) * BUCKLE. *n. s.* [*bwcl*, Welch, and the same in the Armorick; *boucle*, Fr.] 1. A link of metal, with a tongue or catch made to fasten one thing to another.—

Fair lined slippers for the cold;
With *buckles* of the purest gold. *Shak.*

—The chlamys was a sort of short cloak tied with a *buckle*, commonly to the right shoulder. *Arbuth.*

Three seal rings; which after, melted down,
Form'd a vast *buckle* for his widow's gown. *Pope.*

2. The state of the hair crisped and curled, by being kept long in the same state.—The greatest beau was dressed in a flaxen periwig; the wearer of it goes in his own hair at home, and lets his wig lie in *buckle* for a whole half year. *Spectat.*—

That live-long wig, which Gorgon' self might own,
Eternal *buckle* takes in Parian stone. *Pope.*

(2.) BUCKLE, in heraldry, is considered as a token of the surety, faith, and service of the bearer.

(3.) BUCKLES, (§ 1. *def.* 1.) are made of various metals, as gold, silver, steel, brass, &c.

(1.) * *To* BUCKLE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To fasten with a buckle.—

Like saphire, pearl, in rich embroidery,
Buckled below fair knighthood's bending knee. *Shakespeare.*

France, whose armour conscience *buckl'd* on,
Whom zeal and charity brought to the field. *Shakespeare.*

Thus, ever, when I *buckle* on my helmet,
Thy fears afflict thee. *Philips.*

—When you carry your master's riding coat, wrap your own in it, and *buckle* them up close with a strap. *Swift.* 2. To prepare to do any thing: the metaphor is taken from *buckling* on the armour.—

The Saracen, this hearing, rose amain,
And catching up in haste his three-square shield,
And shining helmet, soon him *buckled* to the field *Spenser.*

3. To join in battle.—The lord Gray, captain of the men at arms, was forbidden to charge, until the foot of the avantguard were *buckled* with them in front. *Hayward.* 4. To confine.—

How brief the life of man
Runs his erring pilgrimage!
That the stretching of a span
Buckles in his sum of age. *Shak.*

(2.) * *To* BUCKLE. *v. n.* [*bucken*, Germ.] 1. To bend; to bow.—

The wretch, whose fever-weaken'd joints,
Like strengthless hinges, *buckle* under life
Impatient of his fit, breaks like a fire
Out of his keeper's arms. *Shak.*

2. *To buckle to.* To apply to; to attend. See the *active*, 2d sense.—

Now a covetous old crafty knave,
At dead of night, shall raise his son, and cry,
Turn out, you rogue; how like a beast you lie;
Go *buckle to* the law. *Dryden.*

—This is to be done in children, by trying them, when they are by laziness unbent, or by avocation bent another way, and endeavouring to make them *buckle to* the thing proposed. *Locke.* 3. *To buckle with.* To engage with; to encounter; to join in a close fight, like men locked or buckled together.—

For single combat, thou shalt *buckle with* me. *Shakesp.*

Yet thou, they say, for marriage doft provide;
Is this an age to *buckle with* a bride? *Dryden.*

BUCKLEBURY, a town NE. of Newbury, Berkshire.

(1.) * BUCKLER. *n. s.* [*bwcled*, Welch; *bouclier*

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lier, Fr.] A ſhield; a defenſive weapon buckled on the arm.—

He took my arms, and while I forc'd my way,
Thro' troops of foes, which did our paſſage ſtay;
My *buckler* o'er my aged father caſt,
Still fighting, ſtill defending as I paſt. *Dryden.*

—This medal compliments the emperor, as the Romans did dictator Fabius, when they called him the *buckler* of Rome. *Addiſon.*

(2.) BUCKLERS were compoſed of wickers woven together, or wood of the lighteſt ſort, covered with hides, and fortified with plates of braſs or other metal. The figure was ſometimes round, ſometimes oval, and ſometimes almoſt ſquare. Moſt bucklers were adorned with figures of birds, beaſts, gods, celeſtial bodies, &c. &c. a cuſtom derived from the heroic times, and from them communicated to the Grecians, Romans, and Barbarians. See § 3.

(3.) BUCKLERS, ROMAN. The SCUTUM, or Roman buckler, was of wood, the parts being joined together with little plates of iron, and the whole covered with a bull's hide. An iron plate encompaſſed it without, to keep off blows; and another within, to prevent damage by lying on the ground. In the middle was an iron boſs (*umbo*) jutting out, to glance off ſtones and darts; and ſometimes to preſs violently upon the enemy, and drive all before them. The CLYPEI, were leſs, and quite round, belonging more properly to other nations, though for ſome time uſed by the Romans. The ſcuta were of two kinds; the OVATA, of a plain oval figure; and the IMBRICATA, oblong, and bending inward like half a cylinder. Polybius makes the ſcuta 4 feet long, and Plutarch calls them ποδηνεις, reaching down to the feet. And it is probable that they covered almoſt the whole body, for in Livy, we find that ſoldiers on guard ſometimes ſlept with their head on their ſhield, having fixed the other part of it in the earth.

(4.) BUCKLERS, VOTIVE, were thoſe conſecrated to the gods, and hung up in their temples, either in commemoration of ſome hero, or as a thankſgiving for a victory obtained over an enemy; whoſe bucklers, taken in war, were offered as a trophy.

* *To* BUCKLER. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To ſupport; to defend.—

Fear not, ſweet wench, they ſhall not touch thee, Kate;
I'll *buckler* thee againſt a million. *Shak.*
Can Oxford, that did ever fence the right,
Now *buckler* falſhood with a pedigree? *Shak.*

BUCKLER-MUSTARD. See BISCUTELLA.

* BUCKLER-THORN. *n. ſ.* Chriſt's thorn.

BUCKLESHAM, a village in Suffolk, between Ipſwich and Bawdſey.

BUCKLESTOWN, a ſmall town of Virginia, 8 miles from Martinſburg, and 250 from Philadelphia.

BUCKLEY, two villages; viz. 1. in Cheſhire, W. of lake Combermere: 2. in Cornwall, 3 miles NW. of Camelford.

BUCKLEY-FERRY, in Northamptonſhire, near Daventry.

* BUCKMAST. *n. ſ.* The fruit or maſt of the beech tree.

BUCKMINSTER, two villages; viz. 1. in Leiceſterſhire, near Rutlandſhire: 2. in Wiltſhire, 4 miles N. of Ambreſbury.

BUCKNALL, 5 miles W. of Horncaſtle, Lincolnſhire.

BUCKNELL, 4 villages: viz. 1. in Oxfordſh. near Biceſter: 2. in Shropſhire, near Herefordſh. 3. in Somerſetſhire, near Staple-Fitz-Pain: and, 4. in Staffordſhire, 3 miles N. of Stone.

BUCKNESS, W. of Stapleton, Cumberland.

BUCKNOL, 1 mile SW. of Corfe-Caſtle, Dorſetſhire.

BUCKNY, a rivulet of Perthſhire, which riſes from Lochnachat, and running SE. between the mountains Ben-achally and Deuchara, forms the lake called DOO-LOCH; thence thunders down a deep narrow rocky den, covered with wood, called Richip, and after ſeparating the pariſhes of Caputh and Clunie, falls into the river Lunan.

(1.) BUCKOR, a province of Aſia, ſubject to the Great Mogul. It is ſeated on the Indus, on the banks of which there are corn and cattle; but the W. part is a deſert. It is bounded on the N. by the province of Multan; on the S. by Tattan, and on the W. by Sageſtan in Perſia. The inhabitants are ſtrong, robuſt, and apt to mutiny; for which reaſon the mogul has a garriſon at the capital. (N° 2.) They are all Mahometans, and drive a great trade in cotton cloth, and other Indian commodities.

(2.) BUCKOR, the capital of the above province, N° 1. Lon. 70. 5. E. Lat. 28. 20. N.

(1.) * BUCKRAM. *n. ſ.* [*bougran*, Fr.] A ſort of ſtrong linen cloth, ſtiffened with gum, uſed by taylors and ſtaymakers.—I have peppered two of them; two, I am ſure, I have paid, two rogues in *buckram* ſuits. *Shak.*

(2.) BUCKRAM is more generally, if not always, ſtiffened with glue, and uſed in the making of garments to keep them in the form intended. It is alſo uſed in the bodies of women's gowns; and often to make wrappers to cover cloths, ſerges, and ſuch other merchandiſes, to preſerve them, and keep them from the duſt, and their colours from fading. Buckrams are ſold wholeſale by the dozen of ſmall pieces or remnants, each about 4 ells long, and broad according to the piece from which they are cut. Sometimes new pieces of linen cloth are uſed to make buckrams, but moſt commonly old ſheets and old pieces of ſails.

* BUCKRAMS. *n. ſ.* The ſame with *wild garlick*.

(1.) BUCKS, a populous and well cultivated county of the United States in Pennſylvania; bounded on the NE., E. and SE. by the Delaware; which ſeparates it from Hunterdon county; on the SW. by Philadelphia and Montgomery counties, and on the NW. by Northampton. Its greateſt length is 41 miles, and breadth 21. It contains 411,900 acres; and is divided into 27 townſhips. Its population, in 1795, was 25,140 free citizens, and 261 ſlaves. On the S. it is fertile, but the land on the N. is rather poor: But it abounds in lime ſtone. Lead and iron ores have alſo been diſcovered in it. Newton is the chief town.

(2.) BUCKS. See BUCKINGHAM, N° 2.

BUCKSEED, a village near Haynham, Suſſex.

(1.) * BUCKS,

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1.) * BUCKSHORN PLANTAIN. *n. f.* [*corono*-, Lat. from the form of the leaf.] A plant. *Miller.*
2.) BUCKS-HORN PLANTAIN. See PLANTAGO.
3.) BUCKS-HORN, WARTED. See COCHLEARIA.
BUCK-SKIN, *adj.* made of leather; prepared m the ſkin of a buck. *Aſh.*
BUCK-STALL, a toil to take deer, which muſt be kept by any perſon, who has not a park of own, under penalties.
BUCKSTEAD, a town of Suſſex, near Aſhwn Foreſt, where the firſt pieces of caſt iron ever de in England were run. It has a fair, July 31.
1.) * BUCKTHORN. *n. f.* [*rhamnus*, Lat. ſuppoſed to be ſo called from *buce*, Saxon, the belly.] tree that bears a purging berry.
2.) BUCK-THORN, in botany. See RHAMNUS.
3.) BUCK-THORN, SEA. See HIPPOPHAE.
BUCKTHORP, a town 4 m. S. of Gloucester.
BUCKTON, the name of 4 villages; viz. 1. in refordſh. near Brampton-Bryan: 2. in Northptonſhire, near Fenwick: 3. in ditto, W. of oulton: and, 4. in Yorkſh. N. of Bridlington.
BUCKWARE, in Eſſex, W. of Roding-Abbots.
BUCKWELL, in Kent, between Canterbury l Whitſtable.
1.) * BUCKWHEAT. *n. f.* [*buckweitz*, Germ. *opyrum*, Lat.] A plant. *Miller.*
2.) BUCK-WHEAT, in botany. See POLYGOM.
BUCKWORTH, 2 villages; 1. near Leighton, ntingdonſhire: 2. near Newcaſtle on Tyne.
BUCOLICA, a term uſed by ſome authors for art of managing cattle.
1.) * BUCOLICK. *adj.* [*βουκολικὸς*, from *βουκόλος*, owherd.] Paſtoral.
2.) BUCOLICS, in ancient poetry, a kind of ems relating to ſhepherds and country affairs, ich, according to the moſt generally received nion, originated in Sicily. Bucolics, ſays Voſs, have ſome conformity with comedy. Like they are pictures and imitations of ordinary ; with this difference, that comedy repreſents manners of the inhabitants of cities, and bucics the occupations of country people. Sometes, this laſt poem is in form of a monologue, l ſometimes of a dialogue. Sometimes there action in it, and ſometimes only narration; l ſometimes it is compoſed both of action and ration. The hexameter verſe is the moſt proper for bucolics in the Greek and Latin tongues. ſchus, Bion, Theocritus, and Virgil, are the ſt renowned of the ancient bucolic poets.
BUCTON, in anatomy, a word uſed by Seveus and others for the Hymen.
1.) * BUD. *n. f.* [*bouton*, Fr.] The firſt ſhoot a plant; a gem.—

Be as thou was wont to be,
See as thou was wont to ſee:
Diana's *bud* o'er Cupid's flower
Hath ſuch force and bleſſed power. *Shakeſp.*

Writers ſay, as the moſt forward *bud*
Is eaten by the canker ere it blow,
Even ſo by love the young and tender wit
Is turn'd to folly, blaſting in the *bud*,
Loſing his verdure even in the prime. *Shakeſp.*

When you the flow'rs for Chloe twine,
Why do you to her garland join
The meaneſt *bud* that falls from mine? *Prior.*

—Inſects wound the tender *buds*, with a long hollow trunk, and depoſit an egg in the hole, with a ſharp corroding liquour, that cauſeth a ſwelling in the leaf, and cloſeth the orifice. *Bentley.*
(2.) BUD. See GEMMA, and BOTANY, *Index.*
(1.) * *To* BUD. *v. a.* To inoculate; to graff by inſerting a bud into the rind of another tree.—Of apricocks, the largeſt is much improved by *budding* upon a peach ſtock. *Temple.*
(2.) * *To* BUD. *v. n.* [from the noun.] 1. To put forth young ſhoots, or gems.—*Bud* forth as a roſe growing by the brook of the field. *Eccleſ.*
2. To riſe as a gem from the ſtalk.—There the fruit, that was to be gathered from ſuch a conflux, quickly *budded* out. *Clarendon.*—

Heav'n gave him all at once, then ſnatch'd away,
Ere mortals all his beauties could ſurvey;
Juſt like that flower that *buds* and withers in a day. *Dryden.*

Tho' lab'ring yokes on their own necks they fear'd,
And felt for budding horns on their ſmooth foreheads rear'd. *Dryden's Silenus.*

3. To be in the bloom, or growing.—

Young *budding* virgin, fair and freſh and ſweet,
Whither away, or where is thy abode? *Shakeſp.*

(1.) BUDA, the capital of Lower Hungary, called OSEN by the inhabitants, and BUDEN by the Turks. It is large and well fortified; and has a caſtle that is almoſt impregnable. The houſes are moſtly built with ſquare ſtones. The Turks had it in their poſſeſſion 135 years, and ſuffered the fineſt buildings to decay. The lower city, or Jews town, extends like ſuburbs from the upper city to the Danube. The upper town occupies the declivity of a mountain; and is fortified with good walls, which have towers at certain diſtances. The caſtle, which is at the extremity of the hill, on the E. ſide, and commands the greateſt part of it, is ſurrounded with a very deep ditch, and defended by an old-faſhioned tower, with new fortifications. The ſuburbs are incloſed with hedges. The moſt ſumptuous ſtructures are the caravanſeras, the moſques, bridges, and baths; which laſt are the fineſt in Europe, for the magnificence of the buildings, and plenty of water. Some of the ſprings are uſed for bathing and drinking; and others are ſo hot, that they cannot be uſed without a mixture of cold water. The Danube is about ¼ of a mile in breadth; and there is a bridge of boats between this city and Peſt, conſiſting of 63 large pontoons. The Jews have a ſynagogue near the caſtle gardens. Buda was the reſidence of the Hungarian monarchs, till the Turks took it in 1526. Ferdinand, archduke of Auſtria, recovered it in 1527; but in 1529, the Turks took it again. In 1684, the Chriſtians laid ſiege to it, but were obliged to raiſe it ſoon after, though they had an army of 80,000 men. In 1686, however, they took it by aſſault, in the ſight of a very numerous army. The booty that they found in it was almoſt incredible, the rich Turks having lodged their treaſures in it as a place of ſafety. After this they augmented its fortifications, to which the pope contributed 100,000 crowns, Buda being conſidered as the key of Chriſtendom. It is ſeated on the Danube, 105

miles SE. of Vienna, 163 N. by E. of Belgrade, and 563 NW. of Conſtantinople. Lon. 19. 22. E. Lat. 47. 26. N.

(2.) BUDA, THE BEGLERBEGLIC OF, was one of the chief governments of the Turks in Europe. It included all the countries of Upper Hungary between the rivers Teiſſe and Danube, and between Agria and Novogrod; all Lower Hungary, from Gran and Canifca, the eaſtern part of Sclavonia, and almoſt all Servia: but great part of this government now belongs to Hungary.

BUDÆUS, William, the moſt learned man in France in the 15th century, was born at Paris in 1467. He was placed young under maſters, but ſpent his whole time in idleneſs, till his parents ſent him to the univerſity of Orleans to ſtudy law; where he paſſed 3 years without adding to his knowledge. His parents ſending for him back to Paris, found his ignorance not diminiſhed, and his reluctance to ſtudy, and love to gaming, &c. much increaſed. They talked no more to him of learning, but, as he was heir to a large fortune, left him to follow his own inclinations. He was paſſionately fond of hunting, and took great pleaſure in horſes, dogs, and hawks. But the fire of youth beginning to cool, he was at length ſeized with an irreſiſtible paſſion for ſtudy. He immediately diſpoſed of his hunting equipage, and even abſtracted himſelf from all buſineſs, to apply wholly to ſtudy; in which he made without any aſſiſtance, a very rapid and amazing progreſs, particularly in the Latin and Greek languages. The work which gained him greateſt reputation was his treatiſe *de Aſſe*. His erudition and high birth were not his only advantages; he had an uncommon ſhare of piety, modeſty, gentleneſs, and good breeding. The French king, Francis I. often ſent for him; and at his perſuaſion, and that of Du Bellay, founded the royal college of France, for teaching the languages and ſciences. The king ſent him to Rome, as his ambaſſador, to Leo X. and in 1552 made him maſter of requeſts. The ſame year he was choſen provoſt of the merchants. He died at Paris in 1540. His works, in 4 vols. folio, were printed at Baſil in 1557.

BUDBROOK, a village, 2 miles W. of Warwick.

BUDBY, near Towerbridge, Nottinghamſhire.

BUDDÆUS, John Francis, a celebrated Lutheran divine, and one of the moſt learned men Germany has produced, was born in 1667, at Anclam, in Pomerania. He was at firſt profeſſor of Greek and Latin at Colburg; afterwards of morality and politics in the univerſity of Hall; and at length, in 1705, of divinity at Jena; where he died, with a very great reputation. His principal works are, 1. A large hiſtorical German dictionary. 2. *Hiſtoria eccleſiaſtica Veteris Teſtamenti*, 2 vols. 4to. 3. *Elementa philoſophiæ practicæ, inſtrumentalis, et theoreticæ*, 3 vols 8vo. In moſt of the univerſities of Germany the profeſſors take this work for their text book. 4. *Selecta juris naturæ et gentium*. 5. *Miſcellanea ſacra*, 3 vols 4to. 6. *Iſagoge hiſtorico-theologica ad theologiam univerſam, ſingulaſque ejus partes*, 2 vols 4to. 7. A treatiſe on atheiſm and ſuperſtition.

BUDDESDALE, or BOTTESDALE, a town of Suffolk, on the borders of Norfolk, ſeated in a valley. Its ſtreet takes in a good part of Ricking, which makes up the town, for of itſelf it is but a hamlet. It has a ſmall chapel, and an endowed grammar-ſchool, to which belong certain ſcholarſhips, aſſigned to Bennet or Corpus-Chriſti college in Cambridge, being the gift of Sir Nicholas Bacon, lord keeper of the great ſeal. It is 15 miles NE. of Bury, on the Yarmouth road, and 81 from London. Lon. 1. 8. E. Lat. 52. 25. N.

BUDDING, in gardening. See ENGRAFTING.

BUDDLE, in mineralogy, a large ſquare frame of boards, uſed in waſhing the tin-ore.

To BUDDLE, *v. a.* To waſh ore. *Aſh.*

BUDDLEIA, in botany, a genus of the monogynia order, in the tetrandria claſs of plants. The calyx and corolla are quadrifid; the ſtamina placed at the inciſures of the corolla. The capſule is bifulcated, bilocular, and polyſpermous. There are two ſpecies, viz.

1. BUDDLEIA AMERICANA, a native of Jamaica and moſt of the other American iſlands. It riſes to the height of 10 or 12 feet, with a thick woody ſtem covered with grey bark; and ſends out many branches towards the top, which come out: oppoſite at the ends of the branches the flowers are produced in long cloſe ſpikes branching out in cluſters, which are yellow, conſiſting of one leaf cut into 4 ſegments: theſe are ſucceeded by oblong capſules filled with ſmall ſeeds.

2. BUDDLEIA OCCIDENTALIS, a native of Carthagena. It riſes much higher than the other, dividing into a great number of ſlender branches covered with a ruſſet hairy bark, garniſhed with long ſpear-ſhaped leaves ending in ſharp points: at the end of the branches are produced branching ſpikes of white flowers growing in whorls round the ſtalks, with ſmall ſpaces between each. All theſe plants grow in low ſheltered ſpots; their branches being too tender to reſiſt the force of ſtrong winds. They may be propagated by ſeeds procured from their native countries, and muſt be managed like other exotics: only their ſeeds muſt be ſown in pots as ſoon as they arrive, and very lightly covered; for if they are buried deep in the earth they will all periſh.

BUDDLING-DISH, a ſmall, ſhallow veſſel, like the baſon of a pair of ſcales, for waſhing ores of metals by the hand.

BUDDLING OF CALAMINE, the operation of cleanſing it from filth, by waſhing and picking it, preparatory to the baking of it in the oven.

BUDDO, an inſulated rock, on the coaſt of Fife, about 2 miles E. from the harbour of St Andrews, which ſerves for a land mark; being between 30 and 40 feet high, and perforated by a kind of gate-way, 4 or 5 feet wide.

BUDDON BURN, a rivulet of Angus-ſhire, which riſes at the foot of the hill of Dodd, and after meandering through the pariſhes of Monikie and Monifieth, falls into the æſtuary of the Tay.

BUDE, William. See BUDÆUS.

BUDELICH, a town of Germany, in the electoral circle of the Rhine, and archbiſhopric of Treves, ſeated on the river Traen. Lon. 6. 55. E. Lat. 49. 52. N.

BUDESDEN, a village in Cheſhire, W. of the Merſey, oppoſite to Liverpool.

BUDESTON, near Chippenham, Wiltſhire.

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(1.) * BUDGE. *adj.* [of uncertain etymology.] Surly; ſtiff; formal.—

O fooliſhneſs of men! that lend their ears
To thoſe *budge* doctors of the ſtoick fur. *Milt.*

(2.) * BUDGE. *n. ſ.* The dreſſed ſkin or fur of lambs. *Dict.*

(3.) BUDGE. See BOUCHE, N° 2.

* *To* BUDGE. *v. n.* [*bauger*, Fr.] To ſtir; to move off the place: a low word.—

All your priſoners are
In the lime grove, which weather fends your cell,
They cannot *budge* till you releaſe. *Shak.*

The mouſe ne'er ſhunn'd the cat, as they did *budge*
From raſcals worſe than they. *Shak.*

I thought th' hadſt ſcorn'd to *budge*
For fear. *Hudibras.*

BUDGE BACHELORS, a company clothed in long gowns, who attend the Lord Mayor of London during his inauguration. *Aſh.*

BUDGE BARRELS, among engineers, ſmall barrels well hooped, with only one head; on the other end is nailed a piece of leather, to draw together upon ſtrings like a purſe. Their uſe is for carrying powder along with a gun or mortar; being leſs dangerous, and eaſier carried, than whole barrels. They are likewiſe uſed upon a battery of mortars for holding meal powder.

BUDGELL, Euſtace, Eſq; the ſon of Gilbert Budgell, D. D. was born near Exeter, about 1685. He was educated at Chriſt-church college, Oxford; from which he removed to the Inner Temple, London: but inſtead of ſtudying the law, for which his father intended him, he applied to literature, and contracted a ſtrict intimacy with the ingenious Mr Addiſon, who was firſt couſin to his mother, and who, on his being made ſecretary to the lord lieutenant of Ireland, took him with him as one of the clerks of his office. Mr Budgell, who was then about 20 years of age, and had read the claſſics, and the works of the beſt Engliſh, French, and Italian authors, now became concerned with Sir Richard Steele and Mr Addiſon, in writing the Tatler, as he had, ſoon after, a ſhare in writing the Spectators, where all the papers written by him are marked X. He had likewiſe a hand in the Guardian, where his performances are marked with an aſteriſk. He was afterwards made under-ſecretary to Mr Addiſon, chief ſecretary to the lord juſtices of Ireland, and deputy-clerk of the council. Soon after, he was choſen a member of the Iriſh parliament; and in 1717, Mr Addiſon, having become principal ſecretary of ſtate in England, procured him the place of accountant and comptroller general of the revenue in Ireland. But next year, the duke of Bolton being appointed lord lieutenant, Mr Budgell wrote a lampoon againſt Mr Webſter, his ſecretary, in which he did not ſpare the duke. This imprudent ſtep was the primary cauſe of his ruin: for the duke got him removed from his poſt; upon which, returning to England, he, contrary to Mr Addiſon's advice, publiſhed his caſe in a pamphlet, entitled, "A letter to the lord * * *, from Euſtace Budgell, Eſq; accountant-general," &c. Mr Addiſon had now reſigned the ſeals, and retired into the country: Mr Budgell had alſo loſt ſeveral other powerful friends by death; particularly lord Halifax and the earl of Sunderland; and his attempts to ſucceed at court, were conſtantly repreſſed by the duke of Bolton. In 1720, he loſt 20,000l. by the South-ſea ſcheme, and afterwards ſpent 5000l. more in unſucceſsful attempts to get into parliament. This completed his ruin. He at length employed himſelf in writing pamphlets againſt the miniſtry, and wrote many papers in the Craftſman. In 1733, he began a weekly pamphlet, called *The Bee;* which he continued for above 100 numbers, in 8 volumes 8vo. During the progreſs of this work, Dr Tindal's death happened, by whoſe will Mr Budgell had 2000l. left him; and the public being ſurpriſed at ſuch a gift from a man entirely unrelated to him, to the excluſion of the heir, a nephew, immediately imputed it to his making the will himſelf. It was thought, however, that he had ſome hand in publiſhing Dr Tindal's *Chriſtianity as old as the Creation;* for he often talked of another additional volume on the ſame ſubject, but never publiſhed it. He alſo wrote a tranſlation of Theophraſtus's characters. After the ceſſation of the Bee, Mr Budgell became ſo involved in law-ſuits, that he was reduced to a very unhappy ſituation. He got himſelf called to the bar, and attended for ſome time in the courts of law; but finding himſelf unable to make any progreſs, and being diſtreſſed to the utmoſt, he loſt his reaſon, and determined to make away with himſelf. Accordingly in 1736, he took a boat at Somerſet-ſtairs, after filling his pockets with ſtones, and, while the boat was under the bridge, threw himſelf into the river. Upon his bureau was found a ſlip of paper, on which were theſe words:

What Cato did, and Addiſon approv'd,
Cannot be wrong.

* BUDGER. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] One that moves or ſtirs from his place.—

Let the firſt *budger* die the other's ſlave,
And the gods doom him after. *Shak.*

BUDGEROW, a peculiar kind of boat uſed in Bengal. See BENGAL, § 6.

(1.) * BUDGET. *n. ſ.* [*bogette*, French.] 1. A bag, ſuch as may be eaſily carried.—

If tinkers may have leave to live,
And bear the ſowſkin *budget;*
Then my account I well may give,
And in thy ſtocks avouch it. *Shak.*

—Sir Robert Clifford, in whoſe boſom, or *budget*, moſt of Perkin's ſecrets were laid up, was come into England. *Bacon.*—

His *budget* with corruptions cramm'd,
The contributions of the damn'd. *Swift.*

2. It is uſed for a ſtore, or ſtock.—It was nature, in fine, that brought off the cat, when the fox's whole *budget* of inventions failed him. *L'Eſtr.*

(2.) BUDGET, in parliamentary language, implies the miniſter's propoſed plan of taxation for the ſubſequent year; and comprehends not only the new taxes and an eſtimate of their probable amount, but a general view of the national debt, income and expenditure, ways and means of raiſing ſupplies, &c. with the real product of laſt budget.

BUDHURS,

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BUDHURS, in ichthology, a name given by the Iriſh to a large ſpecies of trout, reſembling the red GILLAROO. *Phil. Tranſ.* vol. lxiv. N. 14. 15.

BUDIC, a village in Northumberland, near Bamburgh caſtle.

(1.) BUDINGEN, a county of Germany, in the circle of Upper Rhine, and landgraviate of Heſſe.

(2.) BUDINGEN, the capital of the county, (N° 1.) 20 miles NE. of Frankfort.

BUDINUS, in ancient geography, a mountain of Sarmatia Europea, from which the northern ſpring of the Boryſthenes is ſaid to take its riſe, according to Ptolemy. But this is contradicted by later accounts. It is now called PODOLIA.

BUDLEY, a town in Devonſhire, near the mouth of the Otter. It has a market on Monday.

BUDNÆANS, in eccleſiaſtical hiſtory, a ſect, who not only denied all kind of religious worſhip to Jeſus Chriſt, but aſſerted, that he was not begotten by any extraordinary act of divine power: being born, like other men, in a natural way.

BUDNÆUS, Simon, the founder of the above mentioned ſect, was a clergyman, but was depoſed from his miniſterial functions in the year 1584, and publicly excommunicated, with all his diſciples; but afterwards abandoning ſome of his peculiar ſentiments, he was admitted to the communion of the Socinian ſect.

BUDNAHOC, a village in Bedfordſhire, 3 m. NW. of Biggleſwade.

BUDOA, a maritime town of Dalmatia, ſubject to the Venetians. It is ſeated between the gulf of Cattaro and the city of Dulugno, on the coaſt of Albany; and is an important fortreſs, where the Venetians always kept a ſtrong garriſon. In 1665, it ſuffered greatly by an earthquake: and in 1686 was beſieged by Soliman, baſha of Scutari; but general Cornaro obliged him to raiſe the ſiege. Lon. 19. 20. E. Lat. 42. 15. N.

BUDOC, a village near Penryn, Cornwall.

BUDOE. See BATUA.

BUDOX, St, a town 4 miles N. of Plymouth.

BUDRIO, a town of Italy, in the Bologneſe, belonging to the new republic of CISPADANA, or LOMBARDY. The adjacent fields produce large quantities of fine hemp. Lon. 11. 35. E. Lat. 44. 27. N.

BUDSHACK TARTARY. See BUDZIAC.

BUDUN, one of the Ceyloneſe gods, who is fabled to have arrived at ſupremacy, after ſucceſſive tranſmigrations from the loweſt ſtate of an inſect, through the various ſpecies of living animals. There are 3 deities of this name, each of whom is ſaid to reign till a bird ſhall have removed a hill of ſand, half a mile high, and ſix miles round, by carrying off a ſingle grain once in 1000 years. See SAKRADAWENDRA.

BUDWEIS, a royal city of Bohemia in Germany. It is pretty large and well built, ſurrounded with ſtrong walls, fortified with a good rampart, and might be made an important place. It was taken by the king of Pruſſia in 1744, but he did not keep it long. Lon. 14. 19. E. Lat. 49. 20. N.

(1.) BUDWORTH, a town 3 m. from Warwick.

(2.) BUDWORTH MAGNA, } two villages in the
(3.) BUDWORTH PARVA, } county of Cheſhire.

BUDZIAC TARTARY, lies on the rivers Neiſter, Bog, and Nieper; having Poland and Ruſſia on the N. little Tartary on the E. the Black Sea on the S. and Beſſarabia on the W. The chief town is Oczakow. It is ſubject to Turky.

BUEIL. See BOGLIO, N° 1. and 2.

BUENA-VISTA, one of the Cape de Verd Iſlands, called alſo BONAVISTA, and *Bonneveue*; all ſignifying a *good proſpect*, intimating the beautiful appearance it makes to ſhips at ſea. It is reckoned near twenty leagues in circumference, and is diſtinguiſhed on the N. ſide by a ridge of white rocks. The coaſt ſtretches E. and NW. and is terminated with ſundry banks to the ſea. The interior part is chiefly mountainous. From the N. point there is a large ridge of rocks projecting near a whole league into the ſea, againſt which the weaves break with incredible fury. Another point of rocks ſtretches into the ſea on the SE. a league and a half beyond the other: and in that bay is the beſt road for ſhipping. See BONAVISTA.

(1.) BUENOS AYRES, a country of South America, belonging to the Spaniards. This name, given from the pleaſantneſs of the climate, is extended to all that country lying between Tucuman on the E. Paraguay on the N. and Terra Magellanica on the S. or to the vertex of that triangular point of land which compoſes South America. The country is watered by the great river La Plata. It was firſt diſcovered in 1515 by Juan Diaz de Solis, who, with two of his attendants, was maſſacred by the natives; and partly ſubdued by Sebaſtian Gaboto, who gave the great river the appellation of *La Plata*, from the abundance of the precious metals he procured from the inhabitants, imagining them to be the produce of the country, though in fact they were brought from Peru. No country in the world abounds more in horned cattle and horſes, than Buenos Ayres, where the greateſt expence of a horſe or cow is in the catching of it, and they are frequently to be had at the ſmall price of two or three reals. In ſuch abundance are theſe uſeful animals, that the hide alone is deemed of any value, as this conſtitutes a main article in the trade of the country. They all rove wild in the fields, but are now become more difficult of acceſs, the terrible havock made among them having taught the cautious brutes to keep at a greater diſtance. All kinds of fiſh are in the ſame abundance; the fruits produced by every quarter of the globe grow up here in the utmoſt perfection; and for the enjoyment of life, and the ſalubrity of the air, a finer country cannot be imagined. The principal cities are the capital, (N° 2.) Monte Video, Corientio, and Santa Fe.

(2.) BUENOS AYRES, NEUSTRA SENNORA DE, the capital of the above country, (N° 1.) was founded in 1535, under the direction of Don Pedro de Mendoza, then governor. It ſtands on a point called *Cape Blanco*, on the S. ſide of the Plata, fronting a ſmall river, in a fine plain, riſing by a gentle aſcent from the river. It is truly paradiſiacal, whether we regard the temperature of the climate, the fertility of the ſoil, or that beautiful verdure which overſpreads the whole face of the country, of which the inhabitants have a proſpect as far as the eye can reach. The city contains

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contains 3000 houſes, inhabited by 30,000 people, including Spaniards and natives of different complexions. The ſtreets are ſtraight, broad, and pretty equal in the heights and dimenſions of the buildings; one very handſome ſquare adorns it, the front being a caſtle in which the governor holds his court, and preſides over a garriſon of 3000 ſoldiers. Moſt of the buildings are of chalk or brick, except the cathedral, a magnificent ſtructure, compoſed chiefly of ſtone. Lon. 58. 26. W. Lat. 34° 34' 38" S.

BUEN RETIRO, a royal ſeat of Spain, on the E. ſide of Madrid, where the king reſides in ſummer.

BUEREN, a town of Holland, on the S. of the Rhine, which was the general rendezvous of the Britiſh troops in Dec. 1794 and Jan. 1795. It is ſituated NE. from Leerdam. Lon. 5. 25. E. Lat. 51. 55. N.

BUERLEY, 2 villages in Yorkſhire: 1. NW. of Halifax: and, 2. near Patley Bridge.

BUERTON, in Cheſhire, E. of Cumbermere.

BUET, a mountain of France, in the department of Mount Blanc, 10,106 feet high.

BUFALMACO, Bonamico, an Italian painter; the firſt who put labels to the mouths of his figures, with ſentences; ſince followed by many bad maſters, but moſt frequently and ſucceſsfully in caricatura engravings. Others ſay he only gave riſe to this whimſical method of making figures *ſpeak*, by jocularly adviſing a brother painter, called *Bruno*, to do ſo: which Bruno taking in earneſt actually put in execution.

BUFETAGE, or } a duty paid to the lord for
BUFETAGIUM, } the drinking, or rather ſelling of wine in taverns.

(1.) * BUFF. *n. ſ.* [from *buffalo*.] 1. A ſort of leather prepared from the ſkin of the buffalo; uſed for waiſt belts, pouches, and military accoutrements.—

A ropy chain of rheums, a viſage rough,
Deform'd unfeatur'd, and a ſkin of *buff*. *Dryd.*

2. The ſkins of elks and oxen dreſſed in oil, and prepared after the ſame manner as that of the buffalo. 3. A military coat made of thick leather, ſo that a blow cannot eaſily pierce it.—

A fiend, a fairy, pitileſs and rough;
A wolf, nay worſe, a fellow all in *buff*. *Shak.*

(2.) BUFF, in commerce, is dreſſed with oil, after the manner of ſhammy. This makes a very conſiderable article in the French, Engliſh, and Dutch commerce at Conſtantinople, Smyrna, and all along the coaſt of Africa. The ſkins of elks, oxen, and the like animals, when prepared after the ſame manner, are likewiſe called *buffs*. In France, there are ſeveral manufactories for dreſſing theſe ſorts of hides, particularly at Corbeil, near Paris; at Niort, Lyons, Rome, Etanepus, and Cone.

(3.) BUFF, in anatomy, ſignifies that ſizy, viſcid, tough maſs, which forms on the upper ſurface of the blood; and which phyſicians call the *coagulable lymph*. See BLOOD, § 3, 4.

* *To* BUFF. *v. a.* [*buffe*, Fr.] To ſtrike: it is a word no in uſe.—

There was a ſhock,
To have *buff'd* out the blood
From ought but a block. *Ben Jonſon.*

(1.) * BUFFALO. *n. ſ.* [Ital.] A kind of wild ox.—

Become the unworthy browſe
Of *buffaloes*, ſalt goats, and hungry cows. *Dryd.*

(2.) BUFFALO. See BOS, N° IV. § v. i. viii. 3.

(1.) * BUFFET. *n. ſ.* [*buffeto*, Ital.] A blow with the fiſt; a box on the ear.—O, I could divide myſelf, and go to *buffets*, for moving ſuch a diſh of ſkimmed milk with ſo honourable an action. *Shakeſpeare.*—

A man that fortune's *buffets* and rewards
Haſt ta'en with equal thanks. *Shakeſ.*
Go baffl'd coward, leaſt I run upon thee,
And with one *buffet* lay thy ſtructure low. *Milt.*
Round his hollow temples, and his ears,
His buckler beats; the ſun of Neptune ſtunn'd,
With theſe repeated *buffets*, quits the ground.
Dryden.

(2.) * BUFFET. *n. ſ.* [*buffette*, Fr.] A kind of cupboard; or ſet of ſhelves, where plate is ſet out to ſhew, in a room of entertainment.—

The rich *buffet* well colour'd ſerpents grace;
And gaping Tritons ſpew to waſh your face.
Pope.

(3.) BUFFET was anciently a little apartment, ſeparated from the reſt of the room by ſlender wooden columns, for the diſpoſing of china, glaſs ware, &c. It now properly implies a large table in a dining-room, called alſo a SIDE-BOARD, for the plate, glaſſes, bottles, baſons, &c. to be placed on, as well for the ſervice of the table as for magnificence. In houſes of citizens of diſtinction in France, the buffet is a detached room decorated with pictures relative to the ſubject, with fountains, ciſterns, and vaſes. It is commonly faced with marble or bronze.

(1.) * *To* BUFFET. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To ſtrike with the hand to box; to beat.—Why, woman, your huſband is in his old lunes again; he ſo *buffets* himſelf on the forehead, crying, Peer out, peer out! that any madneſs I ever yet beheld, ſeemed but tameneſs. *Shakeſpeare.*—

Our ears are cudgell'd; not a word of his
But *buffets* better than a fiſt of France. *Shak.*
The torrent roar'd, and we did *buffet* it
With luſty ſinews; throwing it aſide. *Shak.*
Inſtantly plung'd into the ſea,
And *buffetting* the billows to her reſcue,
Redeem'd her life with half the loſs of mine.
Otway.

(2.) * *To* BUFFET. *v. n.* To play a boxing-match.—If I might *buffet* for my love, I could lay on like a butcher. *Shakeſpeare's Henry* V.

* BUFFETER. *n. ſ.* [from *buffet*.] A boxer; one that buffets.

BUFFIER, Claude, a French writer, who was born in 1661, became a Jeſuit in 1679, and died at Paris in 1737. He wrote many works, which ſhow deep penetration and accurate judgment. The principal is, *Un Cours des Sciences*, &c. "A Courſe of Sciences, upon principles new and ſimple, in order to form the language, the underſtanding and the heart, 1732," in folio. This collection includes an excellent "French grammar upon a new plan; a philoſophic and practical treatiſe upon eloquence; an art of poetry," which, however, is not reckoned the beſt part of this miſcel-

lany:

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lany; "elements of metaphyſics; an examination into vulgar prejudices; a treatiſe of civil ſociety; an expoſition of the proofs of religion:" all full of juſt reflections. His ſtyle is rather eaſy than accurate, notwithſtanding the precepts in his *Grammar*, which is really philoſophic.

* BUFFLE. *n. ſ.* [*beuffle*, Fr.] The ſame with *buffalo*; a wild ox.

* *To* BUFFLE. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To puzzle; to be at a loſs.—This was the utter ruin of that poor angry, *buffling*, well-meaning mortal, Piſtorides, who lies equally under the contempt of both parties. *Swift.*

* BUFFLEHEADED. *adj.* [from *buffle* and *head*.] A man with a large head, like a buffalo; dull; ſtupid; fooliſh.

BUFFO. See BUFFOON, § 2.

BUFFON, Count de. See CLERC, N° 1.

(1.) * BUFFOON. *n. ſ.* [*buffon*, French.] 1. A man whoſe profeſſion is to make ſport, by low jeſts and antick poſtures; a jackpudding.—No prince would think himſelf greatly honoured, to have his proclamation canvaſſed on a publick ſtage, and become the ſport of *buffoons*. *Watts.* 3. A man that practiſes indecent raillery.—It is the nature of drolls and *buffoons*, to be inſolent to thoſe that will bear it, and ſlaviſh to others. *L'Eſtrange.*—

The bold *buffoon*, whene'er they tread the green,
Their motion mimicks, but with jeſt obſcene.
Garth.

(2.) BUFFOON is derived by Menage, after Salmaſius, from BUFFO; a name given to thoſe who appeared on the Roman theatre with their cheeks blown up; that, receiving blows thereon, they might make the greater noiſe, and ſet the people a laughing. Rhodiginus and others, make the origin of buffoonery more venerable; deriving it from a feaſt inſtituted in Attica by K. Erictheus, called BUPHONIA. Buffoons are alſo denominated *ſcurræ*, *gelaſiani*, *mimilogi*, *miniſtelli*, *goliardi*, *joculatores*, &c. Their chief ſcenes were at the tables of great men. Gallienus never ſat down to meat without a ſecond table of buffoons by him; Tillemont alſo renders *pantomimes* by buffoons; in which ſenſe he obſerves, the ſhows of the buffoons were taken away by Domitian, reſtored by Nerva, and finally aboliſhed by Trajan.

* BUFFOONERY. *n. ſ.* [from *buffoon*.] 1. The practice or art of a buffoon.—Courage, in an ill-bred man, has the air, and eſcapes not the opinion of brutality; learning becomes pedantry, and wit *buffoonery*. *Locke.* 2. Low jeſts; rediculous pranks; ſcurile mirth. *Dryden* places the accent, improperly, on the firſt ſyllable.—Where publick miniſters encourage *buffoonery*, it is no wonder if buffoons ſet up for publick miniſters. *L'Eſtrange.*—

And whilſt it laſts, let *buffoonery* ſucceed,
To make us laugh; for never was more need.
Dryden.

BUFFY, *adj.* reſembling buff; tough.

BUFO, in zoology, the trivial name of a ſpecies of rana, commonly called in Engliſh, the *toad*. See RANA, N° 1. Toads have been long remarked by phyſiologiſts, as poſſeſſed of a capability of living without air or aliment. Of this the moſt aſtoniſhing inſtances are given by different authors. In the volume for 1719, of the Academy of Sciences at Paris, is the following paſſage: "In the foot of an elm, of the bigneſs of a pretty corpulent man, 3 or 4 feet above the root, and exactly in the centre, has been found a live toad, middle-ſized, but lean, and filling up the whole vacant ſpace: no ſooner was a paſſage opened, by ſplitting the wood, than it ſcuttled away very haſtily: a more firm and ſound elm never grew; ſo that the toad cannot be ſuppoſed to have got into it. The egg whence it was formed muſt, by ſome very ſingular accident, have been lodged in the tree at its firſt growth. There the creature had lived without air, feeding on the ſubſtance of the tree, and growing only as the tree grew. This is atteſted by M. Hubert, profeſſor of philoſophy at Caen. The Vol. for 1731, has a ſimilar anecdote, expreſſed in theſe words: "In 1719 we gave an account of a fact, which, though improbable, was well atteſted;—that a toad had been found living and growing in the ſtem of a middling elm, without any way for the creature to come out, or to have got in. M. Sciegne of Nantz lays before the academy a fact juſt of the very ſame nature, except that, inſtead of an elm it was an oak, and larger than the elm, which ſtill heightens the wonder. He judges by the time requiſite for the growth of the oak, that the toad muſt have ſubſiſted in it without air or any adventitious aliment, during 80 or 100 years. M. Seigne ſeems to have known nothing of the fact in 1719." Ambroſe Pare, chief ſurgeon to Henry III. K. of France, a ſenſible writer, relates the following fact, of which he was an eye-witneſs.—"Being, (ſays he,) at my ſeat, near the village Meudon, and over-looking a quarry-man, whom I had ſet to break ſome very large and hard-ſtones; in the middle of one we found a huge toad, full of life, and without any viſible aperture, by which it could get there. I began to wonder how it received birth, had grown and lived; but the labourer told me, it was not the firſt time he had met with a toad and the like creatures, within huge blocks of ſtone, and no viſible opening or fiſſure." Obſervations of living toads, found in very hard and entire ſtones, occur in ſeveral authors, particularly Baptiſt Fulgoſa, Doge of Genoa; the famous phyſicians, Agricola and Horſtius, and Lord Verulam. Others give very ſpecious accounts of ſnakes, frogs, crabs, and lobſters, being found alive, incloſed within blocks of marble, rocks, and large ſtones. An inſtance ſimilar to theſe, of the truth of which we have no reaſon to doubt, was obſerved in this country in 1773; when a large toad was found in the middle of a piece of coal, having not the leaſt viſible crack or fiſſure.

BUFONIA, TOAD GRASS: A genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the diandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 22d order, Caryophylleæ. The calyx is quinquedentate; there is no corolla; the berry is monoſpermous. There is but one ſpecies, viz.

BUFONIA TENUIFOLIA, a native of Britain.

BUFONITA, in natural hiſtory, the toad ſtone. This has been received not only among the liſt of native ſtones by the generality of authors, but even

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even has held a place among the gems, and is ſtill worn in rings by ſome people; though undoubtedly it is an extraneous foſſil. It was anciently believed that it was found in the head of an old toad; and that this animal voided it at the mouth, on being put on a red cloth. The general colour of the bufonitæ is a deep duſky brown; but it varies greatly in this reſpect in ſeveral ſpecimens, ſome of which are quite black, others of an extremely pale ſimple brown, a cheſnut colour, liver colour, black grey, or whitiſh. The bufonitæ are uſually found immerſed in beds of ſtone, and there is now no doubt, that they have originally been the petrified teeth of the lupus piſcis, or wolf-fiſh, part of the jaw of the fiſh being ſometimes found with the teeth petrified in it. The bufonitæ are ſaid to be cordial and aſtringent: many other fanciful virtues are aſcribed to them, which the preſent practice has rejected.

(1.) * BUG. *n. ſ.* A ſtinking inſect bred in old houſehold ſtuff. In the following paſſage, wings are erroneouſly aſcribed to it.—

Yet let me flap this *bug* with gilded wings,
This painted child of dirt, which ſtinks and ſtings. *Pope.*

(2.) * BUG, BUGBEAR. *n. ſ.* [It is derived by ſome from *big*, by others from *pug*; *bug*, in Welch, has the ſame meaning.] A frightful object; a walking ſpectre, imagined to be ſeen; generally now uſed for a falſe terrour to frighten babes.—

Each trembling leaf and whiſtling wind they hear,
As ghaſtly *bug* their hair on end does rear,
Yet both do ſtrive their fearfulneſs to feign.
Fairy Queen.

Sir, ſpare your threats;
The *bug* which you would fright me with, I ſeek. *Shakeſpeare.*

—Haſt not ſlept to-night? would he not, naughty man, let it ſleep? a *bugbear* take him. *Shakeſ.*

—We have a horrour for uncouth monſters; but upon experience, all theſe *bugs* grow familiar and eaſy to us. *L'Eſtrange.*—Such *bugbear* thoughts, once got into the tender minds of children, ſink deep, ſo as not eaſily, if ever, to be got out again. *Locke.*—

To the world, no *bugbear* is ſo great,
As want of figure, and a ſmall eſtate. *Pope.*

(3.) BUG, or BUGG, in zoology. See CIMEX.

(4.) BUGS, METHOD OF EFFECTUALLY DESTROYING. Take of the higheſt rectified ſpirit wine, (viz. Lamp-ſpirits) that will burn all away dry, and leave not the leaſt moiſture behind it, half a pint; new diſtilled oil, or ſpirit, of turpentine, half a pint: mix them together; and break into it, in ſmall bits, half an ounce of camphire, which will diſſolve in a few minutes; ſhake them well together; and with a piece of ſponge, or a bruſh dipt in ſome of it, wet very well the bed furniture or wherein theſe vermin harbour and breed, and it will infallibly deſtroy both them and their nits, although they ſwarm ever ſo much. But then the bed and furniture muſt be well and thoroughly wet with it (the duſt upon them being firſt bruſhed and ſhook off,) by which means it will neither ſoil, ſtain, nor in the leaſt hurt, the fineſt ſilk or damaſk bed. The quantity ordered of this mixture, (that coſts but about ſhilling) will rid any one bed whatever, of bugs. If any bugs ſhould happen to appear after once uſing it, it will only be for want of well wetting the lacing, &c. of the bed, or the folding of the linens or curtains near the rings, or the joints or holes in and about the bed or head-board, wherein the bugs and nits neſtle and breed; and then their being wetted all again with more of the ſame mixture, which dries in as faſt as it is uſed, pouring ſome of it into the joints and holes where the bruſh or ſponge cannot reach, will never fail to deſtroy them all completely. Some beds that have much wood-work can hardly be thoroughly cleared without being firſt taken down; but others that can be drawn out or got behind, may. The ſmell this mixture occaſions will be gone in 2 or 3 days. It is very wholeſome, and to many people agreeable. The mixture muſt always be ſhaken well when uſed, which muſt be in the day time, not by candle light, leaſt the inflammability of the mixture ſhould catch the flame. Early in ſpring, even in February, the larva of theſe creatures begin to burſt from the eggs; and it is at this ſeaſon that attention is chiefly requiſite. The bed ought to be ſtripped of all its furniture; which ſhould be waſhed, and even boiled, if linen; if woollen, it ſhould be hot-preſſed. The bed-ſtead ſhould be taken to pieces, duſted, and waſhed with ſpirit of wine in the joints; for in theſe parts the females lay their eggs. This done, the joints, crevices, cavities, &c. ſhould be well filled with the beſt ſoft ſoap mixed with verdigris, and Scots ſnuff. On this ſubſtance the larva, if any eſcape the cleanſing, or any, which is common in old houſes, creep into the bed-ſtead, will feed at firſt, and of courſe be deſtroyed: this laſt will effect the purpoſe in houſes where theſe vermin are not ſo numerous, by repeating the operation every three months. Profeſſor Kalm mentions, that, from repeated trials, he has been convinced that ſulphur, if it be properly employed, entirely deſtroys bugs and their eggs in beds or walls, tho' they were ten times more numerous than the ants on an ant hill. His tranſlator, Dr Forſter, adds, that a ſtill more effectual remedy is, to waſh all the infected furniture with a ſolution of arſenic. See CIMICIFUGA.

BUGA MARBLE, in natural hiſtory, a name given by the Spaniards to a ſpecies of black marble, called by our artificers the Namur marble, and known among the ancient Romans by the name of *marmor Lucullæum*. It is common in many parts of Europe, and is uſed by the Spaniards in medicine as well as in building; the powder of it being ſaid to be an excellent ſtyptic, applied to freſh wounds.

BUGARES. See BUGGERS, § 1.

BUGBANE, in botany. See MENYANTHES.

BUGBARROW, a village in Dorſetſhire.

* BUGBEAR. See BUG, § 2.

BUGBROOK, a town 2 miles W. of Northampton.

BUGDEN, N. of Bodington, Huntingdonſh.

BUGEE, in zoology, a ſpecies of Indian monkey, very rare even in the Indies. It is about the ſize and colour of a beaver, but its tail and claws are wholly of the monkey kind.

BUGELAIL. See BUGIA, N° 2.

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BUGELUGEY, in zoology, a large ſpecies of lizard, called by Cluſius, and ſome others, *Lacertus Indicus*. It grows to 4 feet long, and 9 inches round; the tail is very long, and ends in an extremely ſlender point.

BUGEY, a ci-devant province of France, bounded on the E. by Savoy, on the W. by Breſſe, on the S. by Dauphiny, and on the N. by Gex and Franche Compte. It was about 40 miles long and 25 broad. It has many hills and rivers, which abound with trouts, and all ſorts of game. Belley was the capital. It is now comprehended chiefly in the departments of Ain and Cher.

BUGG. See BUG, § 1, 3, 4.

BUGGASINES, buckrams made of callico.

(1.) BUGGERS, BULGARII, anciently ſignified a kind of heretics, otherwiſe called *Paterini*, *Cathari*, &c. The word is formed of the French *Bougres*, and that from *Bougria* or *Bulgaria*, the country where they chiefly appeared. Among other errors, they held, that men ought to believe no ſcripture but the New Teſtament; that baptiſm was not neceſſary to infants; that huſbands who converſed with their wives could not be ſaved; and that an oath was abſolutely unlawful. They were ſtrenuouſly refuted by Fr. Robert, a Dominican, ſurnamed the *Bugger*, as having formerly made profeſſion of this hereſy. They are mentioned by Matthew Paris, in the reign of Henry III. under the name of BUGARES.

(2.) BUGGERS, or BUGGERERS, came afterwards to be uſed for Sodomites, it being one of the imputations laid, right or wrong, on the Bulgarian heretics, that they taught, or at leaſt practiſed, this abominable crime. The denomination was alſo applied to uſurers; uſury being a vice to which the ſame heretics are ſaid to have been much addicted.

BUGGERY, or SODOMY, is defined by Sir Edward Coke to be a carnal copulation againſt nature either by a confuſion of ſpecies, that is to ſay, either a man or woman with a brute beaſt; or ſexes, as a man with a man, or a man unnaturally with a woman. It is ſaid, this ſin againſt God and nature was firſt brought into England by the Lombards. As to its puniſhment, the voice of nature and of reaſon, and the expreſs law of God, (Levit. xx. 13, 14.) determines it to be capital. Of this we have a ſignal inſtance, long before the Jewiſh diſpenſation, by the deſtruction of 4 cities by lightening; ſo that this is an univerſal, not merely a provincial precept. Our ancient law, in ſome meaſure, imitated this puniſhment, by commanding ſuch miſcreants to be burnt to death; though Fleta ſays, they ſhould be buried alive; either of which puniſhments was indifferently uſed for this crime among the ancient Goths. But now the general puniſhment of all felonies is the ſame, viz. hanging; and this offence, being in the times of popery only ſubject to eccleſiaſtical cenſures, was made felony without benefit of clergy, by ſtat. 25 Hen. VIII. c. 6. revived and confirmed by 5 Eliz. c. 17. And the law is, that, if both parties are arrived at the years of diſcretion, *agentes et conſentientes pari pœna plectantur*, "both are liable to the ſame puniſhment."

* BUGGINESS. *n. ſ.* [from *buggy*.] The ſtate of being infected with bugs.

* BUGGY. *adj.* [from *bug*.] Abounding with buggs.

BUOGYS, *n. ſ. obſ.* Bugbears. *Chauc.*

(1.) BUGIA, a province of Algiers, formerly a kingdom of Africa. It is almoſt ſurrounded with mountains; and is divided into 3 parts, Benijubar, Auraz, and Labez. Theſe mountains are peopled with the moſt ancient Arabs, Moors, or Saracens. The province is very fertile in corn.

(2.) BUGIA, by the Africans called BUGEIAH, a maritime town of Africa, in the kingdom of Algiers, and once the capital of the province, N° 1. It is ſuppoſed to be the SALDÆ of Strabo, built by the Romans. It has a handſome port formed by a narrow neck of land, running into the ſea; a great part of whoſe promontory was formerly faced with a wall of hewen ſtone; where was likewiſe an aqueduct, which ſupplied the port with water, diſcharging it into a capacious baſon; all which now lie in ruins. The city itſelf is built on the ruins of a large one, at the foot of a high mountain that looks towards the NE.; a great part of whoſe walls run up quite to of the top it; where there is alſo a caſtle that commands the whole town, beſides two others at the bottom, built for a ſecurity to the port. The inhabitants drive a conſiderable trade in ploughſhares, mattocks, and other iron tools, which they manufacture from the neighbouring mines. The town is watered by a large river, ſuppoſed to be the NASAVA of Ptolemy. The place is populous, and has a conſiderable market for iron work, oil, and wax, which is carried on with great tranquillity: but is no ſooner over than the whole place is in an uproar, ſo that the day ſeldom concludes without ſome flagrant inſtance of barbarity. Lon. 4. 5. E. Lat. 35. 36. N.

BUGIE, a town of Egypt, ſituated on the W. ſhore of the Red Sea, almoſt oppoſite to Ziden, the port town of Mecca, and about 110 miles W. of it. Lon. 36. 6. E. Lat. 22. 15. N.

BUGLANA. See BAGLANA.

(1.) * BUGLE. *n. ſ.* A ſhining bead of black glaſs.—

Bugle bracelets, necklace amber,
Perfum'd for a lady's chamber. *Shak.*

'Tis not your inky brows, your black ſilk hair,
Your *bugle* eyeballs, nor your cheek of cream,
That can entame my ſpirits to your worſhip.
Shakeſpeare.

(2.) * BUGLE. *n. ſ.* A ſort of wild ox. *Philip's World of Words.*

(3.) * BUGLE. *n. ſ.* [from *bugula*, Latin.] A plant. *Miller.*

(4.) BUGLE, in botany. See AJUGA.

(5.) * BUGLE. } *n. ſ.* [from *bugen*, Sax. to
* BUGLEHORN. } bend, *Skinner*; from *bucula*, Lat. a heifer, *Junius*; from *bugle*, the bonaſus, *Lye*.] A hunting horn.—

Then took that ſquare an horny *bugle* ſmall,
Which hung adown his ſide in twiſted gold,
And taſſels gay. *Fairy Queen.*

—I will have a recheate winded in my forehead, or hang my *bugle* in an inviſible baldrick. *Shak.*—

He gave his *bugle* horn a blaſt,
That thro' the woodland echo'd far and wide.
Tickell.

(2.) * BU-

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1.) * BUGLOSS. *n. f.* [from *bugloſſum*, Lat.] e herb ox-tongue.

2.) BUGLOSS, in botany. See ANCHUSA.

3.) BUGLOSS, SMALL WILD. See ASPERUGO.

4.) BUGLOSS VIPER'S. See ECHIUM.

BUGLOSSUS, in ichthyology, a name uſed many authors for the ſoal fiſh.

BUGSIL, in Suffolk, W. of Rotherbridge.

BUGTHORP, 5 m. N. of Pocklington, Yorkſh.

BUHL, a ſmall fortreſs of Suabia, on the lines Stolhoffen, 17 miles NE. of Straſburg. Lon. 24. E. Lat. 48. 50. N.

1.) * *To* BUILD. *v. a.* preter. I *built*, I have *lt.* [*bilden*, Dutch.] 1. To raiſe from the ground; make a fabrick, or an edifice.—Thou ſhalt not *ld* an houſe unto my name. *Chron.*—

When uſurers tell their gold in the field,
And whores and bawds do churches *build*.
Shakeſpeare.

To raiſe in any laboured form.—When the head-ſs was *built* up in a couple of cones and ſpires, ich ſtood ſo exceſſively high on the ſide of the id, that a woman, who was but a pigmy with-t her head-dreſs, appeared like a Coloſſus upon tting it on. *Spectator.* 3. To raiſe any thing on upport or foundation.—

Love *built* on beauty, ſoon as beauty, dies;
Chooſe this face, chang'd by no deformities.
Donne.

I would endeavour to deſtroy thoſe curious, t groundleſs ſtructures, that men have *built* up opinions alone. *Boyle.*

2.) * *To* BUILD. *v. n.* 1. To play the architect.

To *build*, to plant, whatever you intend,
To rear the column, or the arch to bend. *Pope.*

To depend on; to reſt on.—By a man's au-ority, we here underſtand the force which his ord hath for the aſſurance of another's mind, it *buildeth* upon it. *Hooker.*—Some *build* rather on the abuſing of others, and putting tricks on them, than upon ſoundneſs of their own oceedings. *Bacon.*—Even thoſe who had not ted of your favours, yet *built* ſo much on the ne of your beneficence, that they bemoaned : loſs of their expectations. *Dryden.*—This is rtainly a much ſurer way, than to *build* on the erpretations of an author, who does not confi-r how the ancients uſed to think. *Addiſon.*

* BUILDER. *n. ſ.* [from *build.*] He that builds; architect.—

But fore-accounting oft makes *builders* miſs;
They found, they felt, they had no leaſe of bliſs.
Sidney.

When they, which had ſeen the beauty of the ſt temple built by Solomon, beheld how far it celled the ſecond, which had not *builders* of e abilities, the tears of their grieved eyes the ophets endeavoured, with comforts, to wipe ray. *Hooker.*—

Mark'd out for ſuch an uſe, as if 'twere meant
T' invite the *builder*, and his choice prevent.
Denham.

Her wings with lengthen'd honour let her ſpread,
And, by her greatneſs, ſhew her *builder's* fame.
Prior.

(1.) * BUILDING. *n. ſ.* [from *build.*] A fabric; a edifice.—

Thy ſumptuous *buildings*, and thy wife's attire,
Have coſt a maſs of publick treaſury. *Shak.*

View not this ſpire by meaſure given
To *buildings* rais'd by common hands:
That fabrick riſes high as heav'n,
Whoſe baſis on devotion ſtands. *Prior.*

—Among the great variety of ancient coins which I ſaw at Rome, I could not but take particular notice of ſuch as relate to any of the *buildings* or ſtatues that are ſtill extant. *Addiſon.*

(2.) BUILDING is alſo uſed for the art of conſtructing and raiſing an edifice. See ARCHITECTURE. The modern buildings are much more commodious, as well as beautiful, than thoſe of former times. Of old they uſed to dwell in houſes, moſt of them with a blind ſtair-caſe, low ceilings, and dark windows; the rooms built at random, without any thing of contrivance, and often with ſteps from one to another; ſo that one would think the people of former ages were afraid of light and freſh air: whereas the genius of our times is altogether for light ſtair-caſes, fine ſaſh-windows, and lofty ceilings. And in point of compactneſs and uniformity, a houſe after the new way will afford, on the ſame quantity of ground, almoſt double the conveniences which could be had from an old one.

(3.) BUILDING, LAWS RESPECTING. By Act 11. Geo. I. and 4 Geo. III. for the regulation of building within the weekly bills of mortality, and in other places therein ſpecified, party walls are required to be erected of brick or ſtone, which ſhall be two bricks and a half thick in the cellar, two bricks thick upwards to the garret floor, &c. and other limitations are enacted reſpecting the diſpoſition of the timbers, &c. And every building is to be ſurveyed; and the perſon who offends againſt the ſtatute in any of the particulars recited, is liable to a forfeit of 250 l. to be levied by warrant of juſtices of the peace. The other principal ſtatutes relating to building are 19 Car. II. c. 3. 22 Car. II. c. 11. 5. Eliz. c. 4. 35 Eliz. c. 6. 6 Ann. c. 31. 7 Ann. c. 17. 33 Geo. II. c. 30. and 6 Geo. III. c. 37.

(4.) BUILDING OF SHIPS. See SHIP-BUILDING.

(1.) * BUILT. *n. ſ.* [from *build.*] 1. The form; the ſtructure.—

As is the *built*, ſo different is the fight;
Their mountain ſhot is on our ſails deſign'd;
Deep in their hulls our deadly bullets light,
And through the yielding planks a paſſage find.
Dryden.

2. Species of building.—There is hardly any country, which has ſo little ſhipping as Ireland; the reaſon muſt be, the ſcarcity of timber proper for this *built*. *Temple.*

(2.) BUILT, in ſea language, is an epithet applied to ſhips, denoting their peculiar form and ſtructure, and diſtinguiſhing ſome from others of a different claſs or nation. Thus we uſe *frigate-built*, *galley-built*, *Engliſh-built*, *French-built*, &c.

BUILTH. See BEALT.

(1.) BUIS, a ci-devant territory of France, in Dauphiny. It is mountainous but pretty fertile.

(2.) BUIS, a town of France, in the department of Drome, and ci-devant territory of Buis, N° 1.

BUITTLE, a pariſh of Scotland, on the coaſt of Galloway, bordering upon the Solway Frith,

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about 8 miles long and 3 broad. The soil is dry, kindly, and fertile; and the climate warm and healthy. The surface is hilly, but the hills bear the marks of having been formerly plowed to the top; which is said to have happened in the reign of king Robert Bruce, when Scotland was under the papal curse, his holiness having forgot to curse the hills. Oats and barley, turnips and potatoes, are the chief crops, of which a part is exported. Agriculture is much improved within these 24 years, and land is of course worth above 12 times its former value. The population, in 1793, as stated by the rev. Mr Waxwell in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 855, and had decreased 44 since 1755. The number of sheep was 752; of horses 195, and black cattle 2299. The wood is estimated at L.10,000. Salmon, cod, flounders, and other fish are caught in the Frith. The coast abounds with shell fish, and with those curious semi-animals, the ANIMAL FLOWERS. (See that article, § 5.) Birds not common in Scotland have lately frequented the parish; particularly the crossbill, the bull-finch and Bohemian chatterer; and quails are now numerous in it. Within these 30 years the sea has been retreating from this coast; so much, that many acres, then only barren sand, are now good pasture land.

BUKARI, a small well-built town of Hungarian Dalmatia, situated on the gulf of Bukariza. Lon. 14. 59. E. Lat. 45. 29. N.

BUKARIZA, GULF OF, lies on the coast of Bukari.

(1.) BUKHARIA, a general name for all that vast tract of land lying between Karazm and the *great Kobi*, or Sandy desart bordering on China. It derives its name of *Bukharia* from the Mogul word *Bukhar*, which signifies a learned man; it being formerly the custom for those who wanted instruction in the languages and sciences to go into Bukharia. Hence this name appears to have been given to it by the Mogul, who, under Jenghiz Khan, conquered the country. It is nearly the same with that called by the Arabs *Mawaralnahr*, which is little else than a translation of the word *Transoxana*, the name formerly given to those provinces. This region is divided into Great and Little Bukharia. Jenghiz Khan, who conquered both the Bukharias from the Arabs, left the empire of them to his son Jakatay Khan. He died A. D. 1240, and left the government of Great Bukharia to his son, Kara Kulaku, and of Little Bukharia to another, called Amul Khoja Khan. A long succession of khans is enumerated, in each of these families, but their history contains no interesting particulars. They are long ago extinct, and the Kalmuck Tartars are masters of the country.

(2.) BUCKHARIA, GREAT, which is supposed to comprehend the SOGDIANA and BACTRIANA of the ancient Greeks and Romans with their dependencies, is situated between 34° and 46° Lat. N. and between 76° and 92° Lon. E. It is bounded on the N. by the river *Sir*, which separates it from the dominions of the *Eluths* or Kalmucks; the kingdom of *Kashgar* in Little Bukharja, on the east; by the dominions of the great Mogul and Persia on the S.; and by the country of Karazm on the W.: being about 770 miles long from W. to E., and 730 broad from S. to N. It is exceedingly rich and fertile; the mountains abound with the richest mines; the valleys are of an astonishing fertility in all sorts of fruit and pulse; the fields are covered with grass the height of a man, the rivers abound with excellent fish; and wood, which is scarce over all Grand Tartary, is here in great plenty. But all these benefits are of little use to the Tartar inhabitants, who are naturally so lazy, that they would rather rob and kill their neighbours than improve the benefits so liberally offered them. This country is divided into three large provinces, *viz.* Buckharia proper, Samarcand, and Balk; each of which generally has its proper khan.

(3.) BUKHARIA, LITTLE, is so called, not because it is less in dimensions than the other, for in reality it is larger; but because it is inferior to it as to the number and beauty of its cities; goodness of the soil, &c. It is surrounded by desarts: it has on the W. Great Bukharia; on the N. the country of the Kalmucs; on the E. that of the Moguls subject to China; on the S. Thibet, and the NW. corner of China. It is situated between 93° and 118° Lon. E. and 35° 30′ and 45° of Lat. N. being in length from E. to W. about 850 miles, and in breadth from N. to S. 580: but if its dimensions be taken according to its semicircular course from the south to the north-east, its length will be 1200 miles. It is sufficiently populous and fertile; but the great elevation of its land, joined to the height of the mountains which bound it in several parts, particularly towards the S. renders it much colder than from its situation might be expected. It is very rich in mines of gold and silver; but the inhabitants reap little benefit by them, because neither the Eluths nor Calmucs, who are masters of the country, nor the Bukhars, care to work in them. Nevertheless, they gather abundance of gold from the beds of the torrents formed by the melting of the snow in the spring; and from hence comes all that gold dust which the Bukhars carry into India, China, and Siberia. Much musk is likewise found in this country; as well as diamonds and all sorts of precious stones; but the inhabitants have not the art of cutting or polishing them.

(4.) BUKHARIA, PROPER, is the most western province of Great Bukharia; having on the W. Karazm, on the N. a desert called by the Arabs *Gaznah*, on the E. Samarcand, and on the S. the river Amu. It is about 390 miles long, and 320 broad. The towns are Bokhara, Zam, Wardansi, Karakul, Siunjbala, Karshi, Zarjui, Nersem, Karmina, &c.

(1.) BUKHARS, the inhabitants both of Great and Little Bukharia. They are in general sunburned and black haired; although some of them are very fair, handsome, and well made. They do not want politeness, and are addicted to commerce which they carry on with China, the Indies, Persia, and Russia: but they are ready to over-reach those who deal with them. The habits of the men differ very little from those of the Tartars. Their girdles are like those of the Poles. The garments of the women differ in nothing from those of the men, and are commonly quilted with cotton. They wear bobs in their ears 14 inches

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nches long; part and twift their hair in treffes, which they lengthen with black ribbands embroidered with gold or filver, and with great taffels of filk and filver, which hang down to their heels; three other tufts of a fmaller fize cover their breafts. Both fexes carry about them prayers written by their prieſts, which they keep in a fmall leathern purſe by way of relics. The girls, and ſome of the women, tinge their nails red with the juice of an herb called by them *kena*: they dry and pulverize it; then mixing it with powdered alum, expoſe it in the air for 24 hours before they uſe it, and the colour laſts a long time. Both ſexes wear cloſe breeches, and boots of Ruſſia leather, very light, and without heels, or leather ſoles; putting on galloches, or high-headed ſlippers, like the Turks when they go abroad. They wear alſo the ſame ſort of bonnets and covering for the head; only the women ſet off theirs with trinkets, ſmall pieces of money, and Chineſe pearls. Wives are diſtinguiſhed from maids by a long piece of linen worn under their bonnets; which folding round the neck, they tie in a knot behind, ſo that one end of it hangs down to the waiſt.

(2.) BUCHARS, HOUSES, CUSTOMS, &c. OF THE. The houſes of the Bukhars are of ſtone, and pretty good; but their moveables conſiſt moſtly of ſome China trunks plated with iron. Upon theſe, in the day time, they ſpread the quilts they have made uſe of at night, and cover them with a cotton carpet of various colours. They have likewiſe a curtain ſprigged with flowers and various figures; alſo a ſort of bedſtead half a yard high, and four yards long, which is hidden in the day-time with a carpet. They are very neat about their victuals; which are dreſſed in the maſter's chamber by his ſlaves, whom the Bukhars either take or buy from the Ruſſians, Kalmucs, or other neighbours. For this purpoſe there are in the chamber, according to the largeneſs of the family, ſeveral iron pots, ſet in a kind of range near a chimney. Some have little ovens, made, like the reſt of the walls, with a ſtiff clay or bricks. Their utenſils conſiſt of ſome plates and porringers made of Cagua wood or of China, and ſome copper veſſels. A piece of coloured calico ſerves them inſtead of a table cloth and napkins. They uſe neither chairs nor tables, knives nor forks; but ſit croſs-legged on the ground; and the meat being ſerved up, they pull it to pieces with their fingers. Their ſpoons reſemble our wooden ladles. Their uſual food is minced meats, of which they make pies of the form of a half moon: theſe ſerve for proviſions when the Bukhars go long journeys, eſpecially in winter. They carry them in a bag, having firſt expoſed them to the froſt; and when boiled in water, they make very good broth. Tea is their common drink, of which they have a black ſort prepared with milk, ſalt, and butter; eating bread with it, when they have any.

(3.) BUKHARS, MARRIAGE CEREMONIES OF THE. The Bukhars buy their wives, paying for them more or leſs according to their handſomeneſs. The perſons to be married muſt not ſee or ſpeak to each other from the time of their contract to the day of marriage. This is celebrated with 3 days feaſting, as they do great annual feſtivals. The evening before the wedding, a company of young girls meet at the bride's houſe, and divert themſelves till midnight, playing, dancing, and ſinging. Next morning the gueſts aſſemble, and help her to prepare for the ceremony. Then, notice being given to the bridegroom, he arrives ſoon after, accompanied by 10 or 12 of his relations and friends. Theſe are followed by ſome playing on flutes, and by an *Abus*, (a kind of prieſt,) who ſings, while he beats two little timbrels. The bridegroom then makes a horſe-race: which being ended, he diſtributes the prizes, 6, 8, or 12, in number, according to his ability. They conſiſt of damaſks, ſables, fox ſkins, calico, or the like. The parties do not ſee each other while the marriage ceremony is performing, but anſwer at a diſtance to the queſtions aſked by the prieſt. As ſoon as it is over, the bridegroom returns home with his company; and after dinner carries them to the bride's houſe, and obtains leave to ſpeak to her. This done, he goes back, and returns again in the evening, when he finds her in bed; and in preſence of all the women, lays himſelf down by her in his clothes but only for a moment. The ſame farce is acted for 3 days ſucceſſively; but the third night he paſſes with her entirely, and the next day carries her home.

(4.) BUCKHARS, RELIGIOUS OPINIONS OF THE. Although the prevailing religion throughout all Little Bukharia is the Mahometan, yet all others enjoy a perfect toleration. The Bukhars ſay, that God firſt communicated the koran to mankind by Moſes and the prophets; and afterwards Mahomet explained, and drew a moral from it, which they are obliged to receive and practiſe. They hold Chriſt to be a prophet, but have no notion of his ſufferings. Yet they believe in the reſurrection, but cannot be perſuaded that any mortal ſhall be eternally damned: on the contrary, they believe, that as the dæmons led men into ſin, ſo the puniſhment will fall on them. They believe moreover, that at the laſt day every thing but God will be annihilated; and, conſequently, that all creatures, the devils, angels, and Chriſt himſelf, will die. Likewiſe, that after the reſurrection, all men, excepting a few of the elect, will be purified or chaſtiſed by fire, every one according to his ſins, which will be weighed in the balance. They ſay there will be 8 different paradiſes for the good: and 7 hells, where ſinners are to be purified by fire: that thoſe who will ſuffer moſt, are liars, cheats, and others of that kind: that the elect who do not feel the fire will be choſen from the good; *viz.* one out of 100 men, and one out of 1000 women; which little troop will be carried into one of the paradiſes, where they ſhall enjoy all manner of felicity, till it ſhall pleaſe God to create a new world. It is a ſin, according to them, to ſay, that God is in heaven. God, ſay they, is every where; and therefore it derogates from his omnipreſence to ſay that he is confined to any particular place. They keep an annual faſt of 30 days, from the middle of July to the middle of Auguſt, during which time they taſte nothing all day; but eat twice in the night, at ſun-ſet and midnight; nor do they drink any thing but tea, all ſtrong liquors being forbidden. Whoever tranſgreſſes theſe ordinances is obliged to emancipate his moſt valuable ſlave, or to give an entertainment

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ment to 60 people: he is likewiſe to receive 85 ſtrokes on the back with a leathern ſtrap called *dura*. The common people, however, do not obſerve this fact exactly, and workmen are allowed to eat in the day time. The Bukhars ſay prayers 5 times a-day; before morning, towards noon, afternoon, at ſun-ſet, and in the third hour of the night.

(1.) BUL, in the ancient Hebrew chronology, the 18th month of the eccleſiaſtical, and 2d of the civil year; ſince called MARSHEVAN. It anſwers to our October, and has 29 days.

(2.) BUL, in ichthyology, the flounder.

BULAC, a town of Egypt, ſituated on the E. ſhore of the Nile, about 2 miles W. of Grand Cairo, of which it is the port town, and contains about 2000 families. It is a place of great trade, as all the veſſels going up and down the Nile make ſome ſtay in it. It is alſo at this place that they cut the banks of the river every year to fill their canals, and overflow and fertilize the neighbouring grounds. Lon. 31. 22. E. Lat. 30. 2. N.

BULÆUS, Cæſar. See BOULAY, N° 2.

BULAFO, a muſical inſtrument, conſiſting of ſeveral pipes of wood tied together with thongs of leather, ſo as to form a ſmall interſtice between each pipe. It is uſed by the negroes of Guinea.

(1.) BULAM, a fertile iſland of Africa, at the mouth of the river Gambia, where an attempt has been made to colonize the free negroes. See § 2.

(2.) BULAM ASSOCIATION, a philanthropic ſociety in England, inſtituted "with the humane deſign of eſtabliſhing a friendly entercourſe with the natives of Africa, and a trade unpolluted with ſlavery and blood." The undertaking is now poſtponed on account of the war." *Walker's Gaz.*

BULAPATHUM, in botany, the dock. See RUMEX.

BULARCHUS, a Greek painter, who firſt introduced (among the Greeks at leaſt) different colours in the ſame picture. He flouriſhed about A. A. C. 740.

BULATWÆLA, in botany, a name by which ſome authors have called the BETEL.

(1.) * BULB. *n. ſ.* [from *bulbus*, Lat.] A round body, or root.—Take up your early autumnal tulips, and *bulbs*, if you will remove them. *Evelyn's Kalendar.*—If we conſider the *bulb*, or ball of the eye, the exteriour membrane, or coat thereof, is made thick, tough, or ſtrong, that it is a very hard matter to make a rupture in it. *Ray.*

(2.) BULB, in the anatomy of plants. See BOTANY, *Index*. A bulb is defined by Linnæus to be a ſpecies of hybernaculum, produced upon the deſcending caudex or root; conſiſting of ſtipulæ, petioli, the rudiments of the former leaves, and ſcales or bark. To elucidate this definition, it is proper to remark, that every bud contains, in embryo, a plant, in every reſpect ſimilar to the parent plant upon which it is ſeated. Plants therefore are perpetuated in the buds, as well as in the ſeeds; and the ſpecies may be renewed with equal efficacy in either way. The tender rudiments of the future vegetable of which the bud is compoſed, are incloſed, and during winter defended from cold and external injuries, by a hard rind which generally conſiſts of a number of ſcales placed over each other like tiles, and faſtened together by means of a ſenaceous, reſinous, and frequently odoriferous, ſubſtance. Thus defended, the buds remain upon different parts of the mother plant till ſpring; and are, therefore, with propriety, denominated by Linnæus, the *hybernaculum* or winter quarters of the future vegetable. Buds are ſituated either upon the ſtem and branches, or upon the roots: the former are ſtyled *gemmæ*, or buds properly ſo called; but as they ſubſiſt ſeveral years by their roots, may be furniſhed with the other ſpecies of *hybernaculum* called *bulbs*. Trees which are perennial, with a woody and durable trunk, have generally proper buds, but no bulbs. In bulbous plants, as the tulip, onion, or lily, what we generally call the *root*, is in fact a bulb which incloſes and ſecures the embryo or future ſhoot. At the lower part of this bulb may be obſerved a fleſhy knob, whence proceed a number of fibres. This knob, with the fibres attached to and hanging from it, is, properly ſpeaking, the true root; the upper part being only the cradle or nurſery of the future ſtem, which after the bulb has repaired a certain number of times, it periſhes; but not till it has produced at its ſides a number of ſmaller bulbs or ſuckers for perpetuating the ſpecies. One part of Linnæus's definition ſtill remains obſcure. The bulb, ſays he, is compoſed of the remains or rudiments of the former leaves of the plant; *e rudimento foliorum præteritorum*. It is eaſy to comprehend that buds contain the rudiments of the future leaves; but how can bulbs be ſaid to contain the rudiments of leaves that, to all appearance, are already periſhed? To explain this, let it be obſerved, that, in the opinion of very eminent botaniſts, the root, in a very great number of perennial herbs, is annually renewed or repaired out of the trunk or ſtalk itſelf; in which ſenſe only, roots are properly ſaid to deſcend. In the perennials alluded to, the baſis of the ſtalk continually, and by inſenſible degrees, deſcends below the ſurface of the earth, and is thus changed into a true root; which root, by the continuance of the ſaid motion of the ſtalk, alſo deſcends; and thus, according to the durableneſs of its ſubſtance, becomes a longer or ſhorter root; the elder or lower part rotting off in proportion as the upper is generated out of the ſtalk. Thus, in brownwort, the baſis of the ſtalk, ſinking down by degrees till it is hid under the ground, becomes the upper part of the root; and continuing ſtill to ſink, the next year becomes the lower part, and the following year rots away. This is exactly what obtains in bulbous roots, as well as in the far greater number of other herbaceous perennials; as arum, valerian, tanſy, ſaxifrage, primroſe, wood-ſorrel, iris, and others. The immediate viſible cauſe of this deſcent is the ſtring-roots which this kind of trunks frequently put forth; which deſcending themſelves directly into the ground, ſerve like ſo many ropes for puling the trunk after them. Hence the tuberous roots of iris are ſometimes obſerved to reaſcend a little upon the rotting or fading away of the ſtring-roots which hang at them. In bulbous roots, where the ſtalk and former leaves of the plant are ſunk below, and formed into what is called the *bulb*, or wintering of the future vegetable, the radicles, or ſmall fibres that hang from the bulb, are to be conſidered

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conſidered as the root; that is, the part which furniſhes nouriſhment to the plant: the ſeveral rinds and ſhells, whereof chiefly the bulb conſiſts, ſucceſſively periſh, and ſhrink up into ſo many dry ſkins; betwixt which, and in their centre, are formed other leaves and ſhells, and thus the bulb is perpetuated. What has been ſaid of the deſcent of roots by the ſinking of the ſtalk, is further confirmed by the appearance of certain roots; as of valerian, plantago major, and devils-bit, in which the lower part appears bitten or chopped off. In theſe the lower part rotting off as the upper deſcends, the living remainder becomes ſtumped, or ſeems bitten. All bulbous roots, ſays Dr Grew in his anatomy of plants, may be conſidered as hermaphrodite roots, or root and trunk both together: for the radicles only are abſolute roots; the bulb actually containing thoſe parts which ſpringing up make the body or leaves of the plant; ſo that it may be regarded as a large bud under ground. Bulbous roots are ſaid to be ſolid, when compoſed of one uniform lump of matter: tunicated, when formed of multitudes of coats ſurrounding one another; ſquamoſe, when compoſed of, or covered with, leſſer flakes; duplicate, when there are only two to each plant; and aggregate, when there is ſuch a congeries of ſuch roots to each plant.

* BULBACEOUS. *adj.* [*bulbaceus*, Lat.] The ſame with *Bulbous*. *Diſt.*

BULBINE, a ſynonime of the ANTHERICUM.

BULBOCASTANUM. See BUNIUM.

BULBOCODIUM, MOUNTAIN-SAFFRON: A genus of the monogynia order, in the hexandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 9th order, Spathaceæ. The corolla is funnel-ſhaped, and hexapetalous, with the heels narrow, ſupporting the ſtamina. There are two ſpecies:

1. BULBOCODIUM ALPINUM grows naturally on the Alps, and alſo on Snowdon in Wales. It has a ſmall bulbous root, which ſends forth a few long narrow leaves ſomething like thoſe of ſaffron, but narrower. In the middle of theſe the flower comes out, which ſtands on the top of the footſtalk, growing erect, and is ſhaped like thoſe of the crocus, but ſmaller; the footſtalk riſes about 3 inches high, and has 4 or 5 ſhort narrow leaves placed alternately upon it below the flower. It flowers in March, and the ſeeds are ripe in May.

2. BULBOCODIUM VERNUM is a native of Spain, and has a bulbous root ſhaped like thoſe of the ſnow-drop, which ſends out 3 or 4 ſpear-ſhaped concave leaves, between which comes out the flower, ſtanding on a very ſhort footſtalk. The flowers appear about the ſame time with the laſt: at firſt they are of a pale colour, but afterwards change to a whitiſh purple. Both pieces may be propagated by off-ſets at the decay of the flower and leaf every 2d or 3d year; alſo, by ſowing the ſeed in pots in autumn, ſheltering them in a frame from froſt; and the plants will appear in the ſpring, which, at the decay of the leaves, may be taken up for planting in the borders in October, where they will flower the year following.

BULBONACK, a name uſed by ſeveral botaniſts for the LUNARIA, or honeſty.

BULBOSE. See BULB, and next article.

* BULBOUS. *adj.* [from *bulb*.] Containing bulbs; conſiſting of bulbs; being round or roundiſh knobs.—There are of roots, *bulbous* roots, fibrous roots, and hirſute roots. And I take it, in the *bulbous*, the ſap haſteneth moſt to the air and ſun. *Bacon*.—Set up your traps for vermin, eſpecially amongſt your *bulbous* roots. *Evelyn's Kalend.*—Their leaves, after they are ſwelled out, like a *bulbous* root, to make the bottle, bend inward, or come again cloſe to the ſtalk. *Ray on the Creation.*

BULBUS VERTICTORIUS, in the materia medica, the name uſed for the root of the MUSCARI.

BULBY, a town near Stainfleet, Lincolnſhire.

BULCARD, an Engliſh name for the GALCERTA, or *alauda non criſtata*, of Rondeletius; a ſmall ſea fiſh caught among the rocks on the Corniſh and other ſhores.

BULEF, in botany, a name for the willow.

BULEPHORUS, an officer in the court of the eaſtern emperors, called alſo *ſummæ rei rationalis*.

BULEUTÆ, in Grecian antiquity, were magiſtrates anſwering to the decuriones among the Romans. See DECURIO.

BULEY-CASTLE, a town in Weſtmoreland.

BULEY-GRANGE, a village 3 miles NE. of Stockton, Durham.

BULFINCH, in ornithology. See LOXIA.

BULFORD, a town 3 miles N. of Ambreſbury, Wilts.

BULGA, in old records, a budget; a mail.

BULGAR, a mountain of Natolia, on the coaſt of Caramania.

(1.) BULGARIA, a ſmall province of Turkey in Europe, bounded on the N. by Walachia, on the E. by the Black Sea, on the S. by Romania Macedonia, and on the W. by Servia. It is very narrow, but 325 miles long on the ſide of the Danube, from Servia till it falls into the Black Sea. It is divided into 4 ſangiacates; Byden, Sardice, Nicopolis, and Siliſtria. The chief towns are of the ſame names, except that of Sardice, which is now called SOPHIA.

(2.) BULGARIA, HISTORY OF. The Bulgarians anciently inhabited the plains of Sarmatia that extended along the banks of the Volga. Thence they migrated, about the middle of the 7th century, in queſt of new ſettlements. A large body of them paſſed the Danube, and took poſſeſſion of the country adjacent to the weſtern coaſt of the Euxine ſea. Several attempts were made by the Romans to diſpoſſeſs and extirpate them: But they defended themſelves with equal reſolution and ſucceſs. Conſtantine III. being defeated and intimidated, concluded an ignominious peace with them, A. D. 678, and purchaſed their friendſhip by the payment of an annual tribute. Juſtinian II. refuſed to comply with theſe diſhonourable terms, and invaded their territories, A. D. 687; but he was defeated, and conſtrained to renew the treaty. War was carried on, almoſt without interruption, between them and the eaſtern emperors, for ſeveral centuries. After a long and doubtful ſtruggle, the Romans prevailed; and the emperor Baſil III. reduced Bulgaria to the form of a province, A. D. 1019. From this time the Bulgarians remained in ſubjection, and were governed by Roman dukes, until the reign of Iſaac Angelus, when they revolted A. D. 1186.

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Some time after, Stephen IV. king of Hungary, having defeated the Bulgarians, obliged them to acknowledge him as their sovereign. His successors were styled kings of Hungary and Bulgaria; and this title was transmitted, with the kingdom of Hungary, to the house of Austria. By the aid of the eastern emperors they threw off the Hungarian yoke; and, in return, they assisted their ally in an attempt to recover Adrianople, A. D. 1369. Provoked by this combination, Amurath invaded their country; and Bajazet, his successor, completed the conquest of it, A. D. 1396. Bulgaria still remains a province of the Ottoman empire. The inhabitants are Christians, but so extremely ignorant, that they seem to know nothing of Christianity, but baptism and fasting.

BULGARIAN LANGUAGE, the same with the SCLAVONIC, or *Lingua Eleneta*.

BULGARIANS, the people of BULGARIA. See § 2.

* *To* BULGE. *v. n.* [It was originally written *bilge; bilge* was the lower part of the ship, where it swelled out; from *bilig*, Sax. a bladder.] 1. To take in water; to founder.—

Thrice round the ship was toss't,
Then *bulg'd* at once, and in the deep was lost.
Dryden.

2. To jut out.—The side, or part of the side of a wall, or any timber that *bulges* from its bottom or foundation, is said to batter, or hang over the foundation. *Moxon's Mechanical Exercises.*

BULGOLDA LAPIS, the name of the stone taken out of the head of an animal in America, called by the natives *bulgoldaf*. It is said to possess the virtue of the bezoar, as a cordial and resister of poisons.

BULHAM, a town in the Isle of Wight.

(1.) * BULIMY. *n. s.* [βυλιμια, from βους, an ox, and λιμος, hunger.] An enormous appetite, attended with fainting, and coldness of the extremities. *Dict.*

(2.) BULIMY is also called *fames canina*, canine appetite. See MEDICINE, *Index*.

BULITHOS, or BULITHUS, a stone found in the gall-bladder, kidneys, or urinary bladder, of an ox. See BOS, N° IV. § xi. 1.

(1.) * BULK. *n. s.* [*bulcke*, Dutch, the breast, or largest part of a man.] 1. Magnitude; of material substance; mass.—Against these forces there were prepared near one hundred ships; not so great of *bulk* indeed, but of a more nimble motion, and more serviceable. *Bacon's war with Spain.*—The Spaniards and Portuguese have ships of great *bulk*, but fitter for the merchant than the man of war; for burden than for battle. *Raleigh.*—Though an animal arrives at its full growth, at a certain age, perhaps it never comes to its full *bulk* till the last period of life. *Arbuthnot.* 2. Size; quantity.—Things, or objects, cannot enter into the mind, as they subsist in themselves, and by their own natural *bulk*, pass into the apprehension; but they are taken in by their ideas. *South.* 3. The gross; the majority; the main mass.—Those very points, in which these wise men disagreed from the *bulk* of the people, are points in which they agreed with the received doctrines of our nature. *Addison's Freeholder.*—Change in property, through the *bulk* of a nation, makes slow marches, and its due power always attends it. *Swift.*—The *bulk* of the debt must be lessened gradually. *Swift.* 4. Main fabrick.—

He rais'd a sigh so piteous and profound,
That it did seem to shatter all his *bulk*,
And end is being. *Shakesp.*

5. The main part of a ship's cargo; as, to *break bulk*, is to open the cargo.

(2.) * BULK. *n. s.* [from *bielcke*, Dan. a beam.] A part of a building jutting out.—

Here stand behind this *bulk*. Straight will he come:
Wear thy good rapier bare, and put it home.
Shakespeare.

—The keeper coming up, found Jack with no life in him; he took down the body, and laid it on a *bulk*, and brought out the rope to the company. *Arbuthnot's History of J. Bull.*

(3.) BULK OF A SHIP, the whole content in the hold for the stowage of goods.

(1.) * BULKHEAD. *n. s.* A partition made across a ship, with boards, whereby one part is divided from another. *Harris.*

(2.) BULK-HEAD AFORE, the partition between the fore-castle and the gratings in the head.

* BULKINESS. *n. s.* from *bulky*.] Greatness of stature, or size.—Wheat, or any other grain, cannot serve instead of money, because of its *bulkiness*, and change of its quantity. *Locke.*

BULKINGTON, two villages; 1. in Warwickshire, 4 miles from Coventry: 2 in Wiltshire, near Pottern.—

BULKLEY, NW. of Cholmondley, Cheshire.

BULKWORTHY, W. of Torrington, Devonsh.

* BULKY. *adj.* [from *bulk*.] Of great size or stature.—

Latreus, the *bulkiest* of the double race,
Whom the spoil'd arms of slain Halesus grace.
Dryden.

Huge Telephus, a formidable page,
Cries vengeance; and Orestes' *bulky* rage,
Unsatisfy'd with margins closely writ,
Foams o'er the covers. *Dryden.*

—The manner of sea engagements, which was to bore and sink the enemy's ships with the rostra, gave *bulky* and high ships a great advantage. *Arbuthnot.*

(1.) BULL, Frederick, Esq; a public spirited and disinterested patriot, was one of the aldermen of London, and one of the representatives for that city, in 3 successive parliaments. He first evidenced his zeal for the rights of Britons, by the public and active part he took in favour of Mr Wilkes, whose cause he supported, as considering it the common cause of every Briton, and whom he at the same time personally assisted, at the expence of many thousand pounds out of his own private pocket. Nor did he desist from annually making his motion in the House of Commons for the erasement of the minute of Mr Wilkes's expulsion, till he at last accomplished that object in 1782. In 1772, Mr Bull served the office of sheriff along with Mr Wilkes, and in 1773 he was elected lord mayor. Upon his first election, as member for the city, he set an example, which, it is to be wished, were followed by all who are elected to such important offices; by assuring his constituents, that "he never would ask or accept of any place, pension, title,

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ſtitle, emolument or gratuity of any kind whatever, from any miniſtry under government, neither for himſelf nor any friend: That the welfare and happineſs of his country ſhould be the only object of his attention, and the inſtructions of his conſtituents the ſole rule of his political conduct." Conſiſtently with theſe profeſſions, (from which he never deviated in the ſmalleſt degree,) he rejected the honour of knighthood, which was offered him in 1782, when he went up along with ſome other members of the court of aldermen, to preſent the addreſs to the king on his change of miniſtry,—although the new miniſtry were all men of his own political ſentiments, with whom he had uniformly voted in all public matters; particularly reſpecting the rights of the Americans to tax themſelves, the injuſtice of the American war, &c. He was one of the firſt promoters, if not the founder of the Humane Society, and was many years preſident of it. In private life, he was equally reſpectable.. The moſt active induſtry and the moſt unbounded liberality, virtues too frequently diſjoined, were in him united. In a word, for ſtrict integrity, for a warm and feeling heart, and for a zealous attachment to the eſſentials of the Britiſh conſtitution, Mr Bull left few equals, none ſuperior, when he died in London, in Jan. 1784, aged 79.

(II.) Bull, George, biſhop of St David's, was born at Wells, in 1634; and educated at Exeter college, Oxford. His firſt benefice was that of St George's, near Briſtol; whence he roſe ſucceſſively to be rector of Suddington in Glouceſterſhire, prebendary of Gloceſter, archdeacon of Llandaff, and, in 1705, biſhop of St David's. In the time of Cromwell, he adhered ſteadily to the church of England; and in the reign of James II. preached very ſtrenuouſly againſt the errors of popery. He wrote, 1. A defence of the Nicene faith, 2. Apoſtolical harmony, 3. Primitive apoſtolical tradition; and other works. He died in 1709.

(III.) Bull, John, a celebrated muſician and compoſer was born in Somerſetſhire about A. D. 1563, and was of the Somerſet family. He was educated under Blitheman. In 1586, he was admitted at Oxford, bachelor of muſic, having practiſed in that faculty 14 years; and in 1592, was created doctor in the univerſity of Cambridge. In 1591, he was appointed organiſt of the queen's chapel. Dr Bull was the firſt Greſham profeſſor of muſic, and was recommended to that ſtation by Q. Elizabeth. But however ſkilful he was in his profeſſion, he was not able to read his lectures in Latin; and therefore, by a ſpecial proviſion, made A. D. 1597, his lectures were permitted to be in Engliſh. In 1601, he went abroad for the recovery of his health, and travelled incognito into France and Germany; and Wood relates the following anecdote of him while abroad. "Dr Bull hearing of a famous muſician belonging to a cathedral in St Omer's he applied, as a novice, to him, to learn ſomething of his faculty, and to ſee and admire his works. This muſician, after ſome diſcourſe had paſſed between them, conducted Bull to a veſtry or muſic-ſchool joining to the cathedral, and ſhowed him a ſong of 40 parts; and then made a vaunting challenge to any perſon in the world to add one part more to them, ſuppoſing it to be ſo complete and full, that it was impoſſible for any mortal man to correct or add to it. Bull thereupon, deſiring the uſe of pen, ink, and ruled paper, prayed the muſician to lock him up in the ſaid ſchool for 2 or 3 hours; which being done, not without great diſdain by the muſician, Bull, in that time or leſs, added 40 more parts to the ſaid leſſon or ſong. The muſician thereupon being called in, he viewed it, tried it, and re-tried it; at length he burſt out into an ecſtacy, and ſwore a great oath, that he who added theſe 40 parts muſt be either the devil or Dr Bull. Whereupon Bull made himſelf known. Afterwards, continuing in thoſe parts for a time, he became ſo much admired, that he was courted to accept of any place of preferment ſuitable to his profeſſion, either within the dominions of the emperor, the king of France, or Spain; but Q. Elizabeth, hearing of theſe tranſactions commanded him home." Dr Ward, in his lives of the Greſham profeſſors, relates, that upon the death of Elizabeth he became chief organiſt to king James, and entertained him and prince Henry with his performance on the organ. He alſo relates, that, in 1613, Bull quitted England and went to reſide in the Netherlands, where he was admitted into the ſervice of the archduke, Wood ſays, that Dr Bull died at Hamburgh; others ſay at Lubeck. The only works of Bull in print are leſſons in the "Parthenia, or the maiden head of the firſt muſic that ever was printed for the virginals." An anthem of his, is to be found in Bernard's collection of church-muſic. Dr Ward has given a long liſt of compoſitions of Dr Bull in M. S. in the collection of the late Dr Pepuſch, by which it appears that he was equally excellent in vocal and inſtrumental harmony. He was poſſeſſed of a power of execution on the harpſichord far beyond what is generally conceived of the maſters of that time. His leſſons, in the eſtimation of Dr Pepuſch, were ſuperior not only for harmony and contrivance, but for air and modulation, to thoſe of Couperin, Scarlatti, and other modern compoſers for the harpſichord.

(IV.) * Bull. *n. ſ.* [*bulle*, Dutch.] 1. The male of black cattle; the male to a cow.—A gentlewoman, Sir, and a kinſwoman of my maſter's.—Even ſuch kin to the pariſh heifers are to the town *bull*. *Shakeſpeare.*—*Bulls* are more criſp upon the forehead than cows. *Bacon.*—

Beſt age to go to *bull*, or calve, we hold,
Begins at four, and ends at ten years old. *May.*

2. In the ſcriptural ſenſe, an enemy powerful, fierce, and violent.—Many *bulls* have compaſſed me: ſtrong *bulls* of Baſhan have beſet me round. *Pſalms.* 3. One of the twelve ſigns of the zodiack.—

At laſt from Aries rolls the bounteous ſun,
And the bright *Bull* receives him. *Thomſon.*

4. A letter publiſhed by the pope.—A *bull* is letters called apoſtolick by the canoniſts, ſtrengthened with a leaden ſeal, and containing in them the decrees and commandments of the pope or biſhop of Rome. *Ayliffe.*—There was another ſort of ornament wore by the young nobility, called *bullæ*; round, or of the figure of a heart, hung about their necks like diamond croſſes. Thoſe *bullæ* came afterwards to be hung to the diplomas of

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the emperors and popes, from whence they had the name of *bulls*. *Arbuthnot*.—It was not till after a freſh *bull* of Leo's had declared how inflexible the court of Rome was in the point of abuſes. *Atterbury*. 5. A blunder; a contradiction.—I confeſs it is what the Engliſh call a *bull*, in the expreſſion, though the ſenſe be manifeſt enough. *Pope's Letters*.

(V.) BULL, in aſtronomy. See ASTRONOMY, § 548

(VI.) * BULL, in compoſition, generally notes the large ſize of any thing, as, *bull-head*, *bullruſh*, *bull-trout*; and is therefore only an augmentative ſyllable, without much reference to its original ſignification.

(VII. 1.) BULL, in zoology. See § IV. *def.* 1. and Bos, N° IV. § i—xi.

2. BULL AND BOAR. By the cuſtom of ſome places, the parſon is obliged to keep a bull and a boar for the uſe of his pariſhioners, in conſideration of his having tithes of calves and pigs, &c.

3. BULLS, WILD. See Bos, N° IV. § i, v, vi, vii, 2. ix. xi, 4, 5. The wild bulls, now ſo numerous on the continent of America, are ſaid to have ſprung from one bull and ſeven cows, which were carried thither by ſome of the firſt diſcoverers.

4. BULLS, WILD, HUNTING OF. See Bos, N° IV. § i, vi. BUCCANIERS, § 3. and HUNTING.

(VIII.) BULL, ſignifying a letter, (§ IV. *Def.* 4.) is applied to the letters of princes as well as of the popes. The Bull, however, properly ſpeaking, ſignifies the ſeal, appended to the letter, and which has been made of gold, ſilver, and lead, as well as of wax. Thus,

1. BULL, GOLDEN, an edict, or imperial conſtitution, made by the emperor Charles IV. reputed to be the magna charta, or the fundamental law of the German empire. It is called *golden* becauſe it has a golden ſeal, tied with yellow and red cords of ſilk: upon one ſide is the emperor repreſented ſitting on his throne, and on the other the capitol of Rome. It is alſo called CAROLINE, from Charles IV. Till the publication of the golden bull, the form and ceremony of the election of an emperor were dubious and undetermined, and the number of electors not fixed. This ſolemn edict regulated the functions, rights, privileges, and pre-eminences, of the electors. The original, which is in Latin, on vellum, is preſerved at Frankfort: This ordonnance, containing 30 articles, was approved of by all the princes of the empire, and remains ſtill in force.

2. BULLS, LEADEN, were ſent by the emperors of Conſtantinople to deſpots, patriarchs, and princes; and were alſo uſed by the grandees of the Imperial court, as well as by the kings of France, Sicily, &c. and by biſhops, patriarchs, and popes. It is to be obſerved, that the leaden bulls of theſe laſt had, on one ſide, the name of the pope or biſhop inſcribed. Polydore Virgil makes pope Stephen III. the firſt who uſed leaden bulls, about 772. But others find inſtances of them as early as Silveſter, Leo. I. and Gregory the Great. The latter popes, beſides their own names, ſtrike the figures of St Peter and St Paul on their bulls; a practice firſt introduced by pope Paſchal II. But why, in theſe bulls, the figure of St Paul is on the right, and that of St Peter on the left ſide, is a queſtion which has occaſioned many different conjectures. Perhaps the engraver of the ſeal had not adverted, that by placing St Peter on the right ſide in the ſeal, he would be thrown upon the left in the impreſſion.

3. BULLS OF THE POPE are diſpatched by order of his holineſs, from the Roman chancery, and ſealed with lead, being written on parchment, by which they are partly diſtinguiſhed from briefs. See BRIEF, § 5. The pope's bull is a kind of apoſtolical reſcript, or edict; and is chiefly uſed in matters of juſtice or grace. If the former be the intention of the bull, the lead is hung by a hempen cord; if the latter, by a ſilken thread. This lead is impreſſed on one ſide with the heads of St Peter and St Paul, and on the other with the name of the pope and the year of his pontificate. The bull is written in an old, round, Gothic letter, and is divided into 5 parts, the narrative of the fact, the conception, the clauſe, the date, and the ſalutation, in which the pope ſtyles himſelf *ſervus ſervorum*, i. e. the ſervant of ſervants. Theſe inſtruments, beſides the lead hanging to them, have a croſs, with ſome text of ſcripture, or religious motto, about it. Bulls are granted for the conſecration of biſhops, the promotion to benefices, and the celebration of jubilees, &c. *Bull in cœna Domini*, is a particular bull read every year, on the day of the Lord's ſupper, or Maunday Thurſday, in the pope's preſence, containing excommunications and anathemas againſt heretics, and all who diſturb or oppoſe the juriſdiction of the holy ſee. After the reading of the bull, the pope throws down a burning torch, to denote the thunder of this anathema.

4. BULLS, SILVER, were not in ſo frequent uſe, though inſtances of them might be produced.

5. BULLS, WAXEN, are ſaid to have been firſt brought into England by the Normans. They were in frequent uſe among the Greek emperors, who thus ſealed letters to their wives, mothers, and ſons. Of theſe there were two ſorts, viz. red, and green.

(1.) BULLA, in antiquity, a kind of ornament much in uſe among the ancient Romans. Mr Whittaker is of opinion, that the Bullæ were originally formed of leather among all ranks of people; and it is certain that they continued ſo to the laſt among the commonality. He alſo imagines, that at firſt the bulla was intended as an amulet, rather than an ornament; as a proof of which, he tells us, that the bullæ were frequently impreſſed with the figure of the ſexual parts. It is univerſally aſſerted by the critics, that the bullæ were made hollow for the reception of an amulet; but this, Mr Whittaker contradicts, from the figure of a golden one lately found at Manchester, which had no aperture whereby an amulet could have been introduced. Pliny refers the original of the bulla to the elder Tarquin, who gave one with the prætexta to his ſon, becauſe, at the age of 14, he had, with his own hand, killed an enemy; and in imitation of him it was afterwards aſſumed by other patricians. Others affirm, that the bulla was given by that king to the ſons of all the patricians who had born civil offices. Laſtly, others allege, that Romulus firſt introduced the bulla, and gave it to Tullus Hoſtilius, the

firſt

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firſt child born of the rape of the Sabines. As to the form of the bullæ, Mr Whittaker informs us, they were originally made in the ſhape of hearts, though they did not always retain that form. As the wealth of the ſtate and the riches of individuals increaſed, the young patrician diſtinguiſhed himſelf by a bulla of gold, while the plebeians wore the amulets of their anceſtors. The figure of the heart then became ſo generally round, ſome even have the impreſſion of an heart upon them, that there are not many of the original form to be found in the cabinets of the curious. The form is naturally varied from a complete circle to that of a ſegment; and this was the ſhape of the above-mentioned bulla found at Manchester. When the youths arrived at 15 years of age, they hung up their bullæ about the necks of their gods lares. The bullæ were alſo not only hung about the necks of young men, but even of horſes. They were likewiſe ſometimes hung upon ſtatues; whence the phraſe *ſtatuæ bullatæ*. Bulla was alſo the denomination given to divers other metalline ornaments made after the ſame form; and in this ſenſe *bullæ* ſeems to include all gold and ſilver ornaments of a roundiſh form, whether worn on the habits of men, the trappings of horſes, or the like. Such were thoſe decorations uſed by the ancients on their doors and belts. The bullæ of doors were a kind of large headed nails faſtened on the doors of the rich, and kept bright with great care. The doors of temples were ſometimes adorned with golden bullæ. Mr Bandelot takes the bullæ worn by ſoldiers on their belts to be ſomething more than mere ornaments. They ſeem to have been conſidered as preſervatives from dangers and diſeaſes, and even means of acquiring glory, and other advantages. The like may perhaps be extended to the bullæ on doors, which were probably placed there as a ſecurity to them from being broken or violated.

(2.) BULLA denoted alſo a table hung up in the public courts, to diſtinguiſh which days were faſti, and which nefaſti; anſwering in ſome meaſure to our kalendar.

(3.) BULLA, or DIPPER, in zoology, a genus belonging to the order of vermes teſtaceæ. It is an animal of the ſnail kind: the ſhell conſiſts of one valve, convoluted, and without any prickles; the aperture is narrowiſh, oblong, longitudinal, and entire at the baſe; the columella is ſmooth and oblique. There are 23 ſpecies; 4 of which are found in the Britiſh ſeas; the reſt are chiefly natives of the Aſiatic and Atlantic oceans.

(1.) * BULLACE. *n. ſ.* A wild ſour plum.—In October and the beginning of November, come ſervices, medlars, *bullaces*; roſes cut or removed, to come late; holyoaks and ſuch like. *Bacon.*

(2.) BULLACE TREE, in botany. See CHRYSOPHYLLUM and PRUNUS.

BULLARII, in the court of Rome, the makers or drawers of BULLS or conſtitutions.

BULLARY, *bullarium*, a collection of papal bulls. A general *bullary* of all the papal conſtitutions, from Gregory VII. to Sixtus V. was compiled by order of pope Sixtus V. in 1586; ſince which has been publiſhed a great *bullary*, by Laert. Cherubin, containing the bulls of all the popes from Leo in 440, to Paul V. in 1559; ſince continued by Ang. Cherubin to 1644, and by Ang. a Lantuſca and Jo. Paulus to 1676; and laſtly, by an anonymous editor to the time of Benedict XIII. under the title of *Bullarium magnum Romanum*. We have the ſame digeſted in a new method by Bouchardus: a commentary on it begun by Vinc. Petra, and a ſummary of it by Novarius.

BULLATED, *adj. obſ.* Bubbling; boiling.

* BULL BAITING. *n. ſ.* [from *bull* and *bait*.] The ſport of beating bulls with dogs.—What am I the wiſer for knowing that Trajan was in the 5th year of his tribuneſhip, when he entertained the people with a horſe-race or *bull-baiting*? *Addiſ.*

* BULL-BEE. See BULL-FLY.

* BULL-BEEF. *n. ſ.* [from *bull* and *beef*.] Coarſe beef; the fleſh of bulls.—They want their porridge and their fat *bull-beeves*. *Shakeſpeare.*

* BULL-BEGGAR. *n. ſ.* [This word probably came from the inſolence of thoſe who begged, or raiſed money by the pope's bull.] Something terrible; ſomething to frighten children with.—Theſe Fulminations from the Vatican were turned into ridicule; and, as they were called *bull-beggars*, they were uſed as words of ſcorn and contempt. *Ayliffe.*

* BULL-CALF. *n. ſ.* [from *bull* and *calf*.] A he-calf; uſed for a ſtupid fellow: a term of reproach.—And Falſtaff, you carried your guts away as nimbly, and roared for mercy, and ſtill ran and roared, as ever I heard a *bull-calf*. *Shakeſpeare.*

* BULL-DOG. *n. ſ.* [from *bull* and *dog*.] A dog of a particular form, remarkable for his courage. He is uſed in baiting the bull; and this ſpecies is ſo pecuiiar to Britain, that they are ſaid to degenerate when they are carried to other countries.—All the harmleſs part of him is that of a *bull-dog*; they are tame no longer than they are not offended. *Addiſon.*

BULLEN, Anne. See BOLEYN.

BULLENGER, in old ſtatutes, a boat or a ſmall ſhip.

(1.) BULLERS BUCHAN, a village of Buchan on the coaſt of Aberdeenſhire, in the pariſh of Cruden, between Buchan-Neſs and Peterhead, chiefly inhabited by fiſhermen.

(2.) BULLERS BUCHAN, THE POT OF, or the BOILERS OF BUCHAN, a large oval cavity in the rocks 150 feet deep, round which there is a foot-path. Boats ſail into it from the ſea, under a natural arch, reſembling a large Gothic window. Near this, there is a vaſt inſulated rock, divided by a narrow and very deep chaſm from the land. About the middle of this rock, many feet above the level of the water, there is a large triangular aperture, through which the waves, when agitated, ruſh with tremendous noiſe.

* BULLET. *n. ſ.* [*boulet*, French.] A round ball of metal, uſually ſhot out of guns.—

As when the deviliſh iron engine wrought
In deepeſt hell, and fram'd by furies ſkill,
With windy nitre and quick ſulphur fraught,
And rammed with *bullet* round, ordain'd to kill.
Spenſer.

—Giaffer, their leader, deſperately fighting amongſt the foremoſt of the janizaries, was at once ſhot with two *bullets*, and ſlain. *Knolles.*—

And as they built, ſo different is the fight;
Their mounting ſhot is on our ſails deſign'd:

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Deep in their hulls our deadly *bullets* light,
And through the yielding planks a passage find.
Dryden.

BULLET-BORE is a steel shank, having a globe at one end, wherewith to bore the inside of a bullet-mould clean, of the size intended.

BULLET IRON, a denomination given by some to Spanish or Swedish bars of iron.

BULLET-MOULDS, iron moulds for casting bullets. They consist of two concave hemispheres, with a handle whereby to hold them; and between them is a hole, called *the gate*, to pour in the melted metal. The chaps or hemispheres of bullet-moulds are first punched, being blood-red hot, with a round ended punch, of the shape and nearly of the size of the intended bullets. To cleanse the insides, a BULLET-BORE is used.

BULL-EYED, *adj.* having large eyes. *Ash.*

BULLEYN, William, a learned physician and botanist, born in the isle of Ely, in the former part of the reign of Henry VIII. and educated at Cambridge. Botany being his favourite study, he travelled through various parts of England, Scotland, and Germany, chiefly with an intention to improve his knowledge in that science. In the reign of Edward VI. or Q. Mary, Mr Bulleyn appears, from his remarks on the natural productions of that country, to have resided at Norwich, or near it, and to have spent some time at Bloxhall in Suffolk: but he afterwards removed into the north, and settled at Durham, where he practised physic with reputation. His great patron at this time was Sir Thomas Hilton, knight baron of Hilton, who was governor of Tinmouth castle in the reign of Philip and Mary. In 1560, he came to London, and, soon after his arrival, was accused by William Hilton of Bidick, of having murdered his brother Sir Thomas, our author's friend and patron. He was arraigned before the duke of Norfolk, and honourably acquitted. This Hilton afterwards hired some villains to assassinate the doctor; but this attempt proving ineffectual, he had him arrested on an action for debt, and he remained for a long time in prison. During this confinement, Dr Bulleyn composed several of those works which raised his reputation as a medical writer. He died in January 1576, and was buried in St Giles's, Cripplegate, in the same grave with his brother the divine, who died 13 years before, and in which John Fox the martyrologist was interred 11 years after. Dr Bulleyn appears from his writings to have been well acquainted with the works of the ancient Greek, Roman, and Arabian physicians. He was a man of genius and fertile imagination, and his works are by no means barren of entertainment, though his practice is obsolete. He wrote 1, The government of health, 1559, 8vo. 2. A regimen against the pleurisy, 8vo. London, 1562. 3. Bulleyn's bulwark of defence against all sicknes, sorenes and wounds that dooe daily assault mankinde, London, 1562, folio. 4. A dialogue both pleasant and pietifull, wherein is a goodlie regimen against the fever pestilence, with a consolation and comfort against death. Lond. 1564-9. 8vo.

BULL-FEAST. See BULL-FIGHTING, § 2.

BULL-FIGHT. *n. s.* See next article.

(1.) BULL-FIGHTING, a sport or exercise much in vogue among the Spaniards and Portuguese, consisting in a kind of combat of a cavalier or torreadore against a wild bull, either on foot or on horseback, by riding at him with a lance. The Spaniards have bull-fights, i. e. feasts attended with shows, in honour of St John, the Virgin Mary, &c. This sport the Spaniards received from the Moors, among whom it was celebrated with great eclat. Some think that the Moors might have received the custom from the Romans, and they from the Greeks. Dr Plot is of opinion, that the ταυροκαθαψιων αγωνες among the Thessalians, who first instituted this game, and of whom Julius Cæsar learned and brought it to Rome, were the origin both of the Spanish and Portuguese bull-fighting, and of the English bull-running. This practice was prohibited by Pope Pius V. under pain of excommunication incurred *ipso facto*. But succeeding popes have granted several mitigations in behalf of the torreadores.

(2.) BULL-FIGHTING, ROMAN. The following account of a bull-feast, in the Coliseum at Rome, in 1332, extracted from Muratori by Mr Gibbon, may give some idea of the pomp, the ceremonies, and the danger which attended these exhibitions. "A general proclamation as far as Rimini and Ravenna invited the nobles to exercise their skill and courage in this perilous adventure. The Roman ladies were marshalled in 3 squadrons, and seated in 3 balconies, which on this day, (the 3d Sept.) were lined with scarlet cloth. The fair Jacova di Rovere led the matrons from beyond the Tiber, a pure and native race, who still represent the features and character of antiquity. The remainder of the city was divided between the Colonna and Ursini families: the two factions were proud of the number and beauty of their female bands: the charms of Savella Ursini are mentioned with praise; and the Colonna regretted the absence of the youngest of their house, who had sprained her ancle in the garden of Nero's tower. The lots of the champions were drawn by a respectable citizen; and they descended into the *arena*, or pit, to encounter the wild bulls, on foot as it should seem, with a single spear. Amidst the crowd, our annalist has selected the names, colours, and devices of twenty of the most conspicuous knights. Several of the names are the most illustrious of Rome and the ecclesiastical state; Malatesta, Polenta, della Valle, Cafarello, Savelli, Cappoccio, Conti, Annibaldi, Altieri, Corsi. The colours were adapted to their taste and situation; and the devices, expressive of hope or despair, breathed the spirit of gallantry and arms. "I am alone, like the youngest of the Horatii," the confidence of an intrepid stranger: "I live disconsolate," a weeping widower: "I burn under the ashes," a discreet lover: "I adore Lavinia or Lucretia," the ambiguous declaration of a modern passion: "My faith is as pure," the motto of a white livery: "Who is stronger than myself?" of a lion's hide: "If I am drowned in blood, what a pleasant death!" the wish of ferocious courage. The pride or prudence of the Ursini restrained them from the field, which was occupied by 3 of their hereditary rivals, whose inscriptions denoted the lofty greatness of the Colonna name: "Though sad,

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ſad, I am ſtrong:" "Strong as I am great:" "If I fall (addreſſing himſelf to the ſpectators) you fall with me:"—intimating (ſays the writer), that while the other families were the ſubjects of the Vatican, they alone were the ſupporters of the Capitol. The combats of the amphitheatre were very dangerous and bloody. Every champion ſucceſſively encountered a wild bull; and the victory may be aſcribed to the quadrupeds, ſince no more than 11 were left on the field, with the loſs of 9 wounded and 18 killed on the ſide of their adverſaries. Some of the nobleſt families might mourn; but the pomp of the funerals, in the churches of St John Lateran and St Maria Maggiore, afforded a ſecond holiday to the people." It was not in ſuch conflicts that the blood of the Romans ſhould have been ſhed; yet in blaming their raſhneſs, we are compelled to applaud their gallantry; and the volunteers, who diſplay their magnificence and riſk their lives under the balconies of the fair, excite a more generous ſympathy than the thouſands of captives and malefactors who were reluctantly dragged to the ſcene of ſlaughter."

(3.) BULL-FIGHTING, SPANISH. A ſtriking relic of barbarity in the Spaniſh manners is the exceſſive attachment of that nation to bull fights, a ſpectacle which ſhocks the delicacy of every other people in Europe. Many Spaniards conſider this practice as the ſure means of preſerving that energy by which they are characteriſed, and of habituating them to violent emotions, which are terrible only to timid minds. But it ſeems difficult to comprehend what relation there is between bravery, and a ſpectacle where the aſſiſtants *now* run no danger; where the actors prove, by the few accidents which befal them, that their has nothing in it very intereſting; and where the unhappy victims meet only with certain death, as the reward of their vigour and courage. The bull-fights are very expenſive; but they bring great gain to the undertakers. The worſt places coſt 2 or 4 rials, according as they are in the ſun or in the ſhade. The price of the higheſt is a dollar. When the price of the horſes and bulls, and the wages of the TORREADORES, have been paid out of this money, the reſt is generally appropriated to pious foundations: at Madrid it forms one of the principal funds of the hoſpital. It is only during ſummer that theſe combats are exhibited, becauſe the ſeaſon then permits the ſpectators to ſit in the open air, and becauſe the bulls are then moſt vigorous. Thoſe which are of the beſt breed are condemned to this kind of ſacrifice; and connoiſſeurs are ſo well acquainted with their diſtinguiſhing marks, that as ſoon as a bull appears upon the arena, they can mention the place where he was reared. This arena is a kind of circus ſurrounded by about a dozen of ſeats, riſing one above another; the higheſt of which only is covered. The boxes occupy the lower part of the edifice. In cities which have no place particularly ſet apart for theſe combats, the principal ſquare is converted into a theatre. The balconies of the houſes are widened, ſo as to project over the ſtreets which end there. The ſpectacle commences by a kind of proceſſion around the ſquare, in which appear, on horſeback and on foot, the combatants who are to attack the fierce animal; after which two alguazils, dreſſed in perukes and black robes, advance with great gravity on horſeback; who aſk from the preſident of the entertainment an order for it to commence. A ſignal is immediately given; and the animal, which was before ſhut up in a kind of hovel with a door opening into the ſquare, ſoon makes his appearance. The alguaziles haſten to retire, and their fright is a prelude to the cruel pleaſure which the ſpectators are about to enjoy. The bull is received with loud ſhouts, and almoſt ſtunned by the noiſy expreſſions of their joy. He has to contend firſt againſt the picadores, combatants on horſeback, who, dreſſed according to the ancient Spaniſh manner, and as it were fixed to their ſaddles, wait for him, each being armed with a long lance. This exerciſe, which requires ſtrength, courage, and dexterity, is not conſidered as diſgraceful. Formerly the greateſt lords did not diſdain to practiſe it; even at preſent ſome of the hidalgos ſolicit the honour of fighting the bull on horſeback. The picadores open the ſcene. It often happens that the bull, without being provoked, darts upon them, and every body entertains a favourable opinion of his courage. If, notwithſtanding the ſharp pointed weapon which defends his attack, he returns immediately to the charge, their ſhouts are redoubled, as their joy is converted into enthuſiaſm; but if the bull, ſtruck with terror, appears pacific, and avoids his perſecutors, by walking round the ſquare in a timid manner, he is hooted at and hiſſed by the whole ſpectators, and all thoſe near whom he paſſes load him with blows and reproaches. If nothing can awaken his courage, he is judged unworthy of being tormented by *men*; the cry of *perros, perros*, brings forth new enemies againſt him, and large dogs are let looſe upon him, which ſeize him by the neck and ears in a furious manner. The animal then finds the uſe of thoſe weapons with which nature has furniſhed him; he toſſes the dogs into the air, who fall down ſtunned, and ſometimes mangled; they often recover, renew the combat, and generally finiſh by overcoming their adverſary, who thus periſhes ignobly. If, on the other hand, he preſents himſelf with a good grace, he runs a longer and nobler, but much more painful career. The firſt act of the tragedy belongs to the combatants on horſeback; this is the moſt bloody of all the ſcenes, and the moſt diſguſting. The irritated animal braves the pointed ſteel which makes deep wounds in his neck, attacks with fury the innocent horſe who carries his enemy, rips up his ſides and overturns him together with his rider. The latter, then diſmounted and diſarmed, would be expoſed to imminent danger, did not combatants on foot, called CHULOS, come to divert the bull's attention, and to provoke him, by ſhaking before him different pieces of cloth of various colours. It is, however, at their own riſk that they thus ſave the diſmounted horſeman; for the bull ſometimes purſues them, and they have then need for all their agility. They often eſcape from him by letting fall the piece of ſtuff which was their only arms, and againſt which the deceived animal expends all his fury. Sometimes the combatant has no other reſource but to throw himſelf ſpeedily over a barrier, ſix feet high, which incloſes the interior.

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interior part of the arena. In ſome places this barrier is double, and the intermediate ſpace forms a kind of circular gallery, behind which the purſued torreador is in ſafety. But when the barrier is ſingle, the bull attempts to jump over it, and often ſucceeds. The neareſt of the ſpectators are then in the greateſt conſternation; their haſte to get out of the way, and to crowd to the upper benches, becomes often more fatal to them than even the fury of the bull, who, ſtumbling at every ſtep, thinks rather of his own ſaftey than of revenge, and beſides ſoon falls under the blows which are given him from all quarters. Except in ſuch caſes, which are very rare, he immediately returns. His adverſary recovered has had time to get up; he immediately remounts his horſe, provided he is not killed or rendered unfit for ſervice, and the attack commences; but he is often obliged to change his horſe ſeveral times. Expreſſions cannot then be found to celebrate theſe acts of proweſs, which for ſeveral days, become the favourite topic of converſation. The horſes, very affecting models of patience, courage, and docility, may be ſeen trading under their feet their own bloody entrails, which drop from their ſides half torn open, and yet obeying, for ſome time after, the hand which conducts them to new tortures. Spectators of delicacy are then filled with diſguſt, which converts their pleaſure into pain. A new act is however preparing which reconciles them to the entertainment. As ſoon as the bull has been ſufficiently tormented by the combatants on horſeback, they retire and leave him to be irritated by thoſe on foot. The latter, who are called *banderilleros*, go before the animal; and the moment he darts upon them they plunge into his neck, two by two, a kind of dart called *banderillas*, the points of which are hooked, and which are ornamented with ſmall ſtreamers made of coloured paper. The fury of the bull is now redoubled; he roars and toſſes his head, while his vain efforts ſerve only to increaſe the pain of his wounds. This laſt ſcene calls forth all the agility of his adverſaries. The ſpectators at firſt tremble for them when they behold them braving ſo near the horns of this formidable animal; but their hands well exerciſed, aim their blows ſo ſkilfully, and they avoid the danger ſo nimbly, that after having ſeen them a few times, one neither pities nor admires them, and their addreſs and dexterity ſeem only to be a ſmall epiſode of the tragedy. When the vigour of the bull appears to be almoſt exhauſted; when his blood, iſſuing from 20 wounds, ſtreams along his neck and ſides; and when the people, tired of one object, demand another victim; the preſident of the entertainment gives the ſignal of death, which is anounced by the ſound of trumpets. The matador then advances, and all the reſt quite the arena; with one hand he holds a long dagger, and with the other a kind of flag, which he waves backwards and forwards before his adverſary. They both ſtop and gaze at one another; and while the agility of the matador deceives the impetuoſity of the bull, the pleaſure of the ſpectators, which was for ſome time ſuſpended, is again awakened into life.—Sometimes the bull remains motionleſs, throws up the earth with his foot, and appears as if meditating revenge. The bull in this condition, and the matador who calculates his motions and divines his projects, form a group which an able pencil might not diſdain to delineate. The matador at length gives the mortal blow; and if the animal immediately falls, a thouſand voices proclaim with loud ſhouts the triumph of the conqueror; but if the blow is not deciſive, if the bull ſurvives and ſeeks ſtill to brave the fatal ſteel, murmurs ſucceed to applauſe, and the matador, whoſe glory was about to be raiſed to the ſkies, is conſidered only as an unſkilful butcher. He endeavours to be ſoon revenged, and to diſarm his judges of their ſeverity. His zeal ſometimes degenerates into blind fury, and his partizans tremble for the conſequences of his imprudence. He at length directs his blow better. The animal ſtaggers and falls, while his conqueror is intoxicated with the applauſes of the people. Three mules, ornamented with bells and ſtreamers, come to terminate the tragedy. A rope is tied around the bull's horns, which have betrayed his valour, and the brave animal is dragged ignominiouſly from the arena which he has honoured, and leaves only the traces of his blood and the remembrance of his exploits, which are ſoon effaced on the appearance of his ſucceſſor. On each of the days ſet apart for theſe entertainments, ſix are thus ſacrificed in the morning, and 12 in the afternoon, at leaſt in Madrid. The 3 laſt are given excluſively to the matador, who, without the aſſiſtance of the picadores, exerts his ingenuity to vary the pleaſure of the ſpectators. Sometimes he cauſes them to be combated by ſome intrepid ſtranger, who attacks them mounted on the back of another, bull, and ſometimes he matches them with a bear: this laſt method is generally deſtined for the pleaſure of the populace. The points of the bull's horns are concealed by ſomething wrapped round them, which breaks their force. The animal, which in this ſtate is called EMBOLADO, has power neither to pearce nor to tear his antagoniſt. The amateurs then deſcend in great numbers to torment him, each after his own manner, and often expiate this cruel pleaſure by violent contuſions; but the bull always falls at length under the ſtroke of the matador. The few ſpectators who are not infected by the general madneſs for this ſport, regret that thoſe wretched animals do not, at leaſt, purchaſe their lives at the expence of ſo many torments and ſo many efforts of courage; they would willingly aſſiſt them to eſcape from their perſecutors. In the minds of ſuch ſpectators diſguſt ſucceeds compaſſion, and ſatiety ſucceeds diſguſt. Such a ſeries of uniform ſcenes makes that intereſt become languid, which this ſpectacle, on its commencement, ſeemed to promiſe. The Spaniſh government are ſenſible of the moral and political inconveniences ariſing from this ſpecies of barbarity. They have long ſince perceived, that among a people whom they wiſh to encourage to labour, it is the cauſe of much diſorder and diſſipation; and that it hurts agriculture, by deſtroying a great number of robuſt animals; which might be uſefully employed: but they are obliged to manage with caution a taſte which it might be dangerous to attempt to aboliſh precipitately. They are, however, far from encouraging

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couraging it. The court itself formerly reckoned bull-fights among the number of its festivals, which were given at certain periods. The *Plaza-Mayor* was the theatre of them, and the king and the royal family honoured them with their presence. His guards prefided there in good order. His halberdiers formed the interior circle of the scene: and their long weapons, held out in a defensive posture, were the only barrier which they opposed against the dangerous caprices of the bull. These entertainments, which, by way of excellence, were called *Fiestas Reales*, are become very rare. Charles III. who endeavoured to polish the nation, and to direct their attention to useful objects, was very desirous of destroying a taste in which he saw nothing but inconveniences; but he was too wise to employ violent means for that purpose. He, however, confined the number of bull-fights to those, the profits of which were applied to the support of some charitable institution, with an intention of substituting for these other funds afterwards. Bull-fights, by these means being rendered less frequent, will, perhaps, gradually lose their attractions, until more favourable circumstances permit the entire abolition of them. Nay, if we can credit news-paper report, they were actually abolished in the year 1796.

* BULL-FINCH. *n. f.* [*rubicilla.*] A small bird, that has neither song nor whistle of its own, yet is very apt to learn, if taught by the mouth. *Philip's World of Words.*—

The blackbird whistles from the thorny brake,
The mellow *bull-finch* answers from the groves.
Thomson.

* BULL-FLY. BULL-BEE. *n. f.* An insect.
Philip's World of Words.

BULL-FROG, in zoology. See RANA. N° 3.

(1.) * BULL-HEAD. *n. f.* [from *bull* and *head.*] 1. A stupid fellow; a blockhead. 2. The name of a fish.—The miller's thumb, or *bull-head*, is a fish of no pleasing shape; it has a head big and flat, much greater than suitable to its body; a mouth very wide, and usually gaping; he is without teeth, but his lips are very rough, much like a file; he hath two fins near to his gills, which are roundish or crested; two fins under his belly, two on the back, one below the vent, and the fin of his tail is round. Nature hath painted the body of this fish with whitish, blackish, brownish spots. They are usually full of spawn all the summer, which swells their vents in the form of a dug. The *bull-head* begins to spawn in April; in winter we know no more what becomes of them than of eels or swallows. *Walton.* 3. A little black water vermin. *Philip's World of Words.*

(2.) BULL-HEAD, in ichthyology. See COTTUS.

BULLIALDUS, Ismael, an eminent astronomer, born at Laon, in the isle of France, in 1605. He travelled in his youth for improvement; and afterwards published several works, among which are, 1. *De natura lucis.* 2. *Philolaus.* 3. *Astronomia philolaica, opus novum, in quo motus planetarum per novam et veram hypothesin demonstrantur.* 4. *Astronomiæ philolaicæ fundamenta clarius explicata et asserta, adversus Sethi Wardi impugnationem.* He also wrote a piece or two upon Geometry and Arithmetic. In 1661, he paid Hevelius a visit at Dantzic, for the sake of seeing his optical and astronomical apparatus. Afterwards he became a presbyter at Paris, and died there in 1694.

BULLIMENTA is used by some chemists for the washings and scourings of gold and silver vessels, in proper liquors, to render them brighter.

BULLIMONG, or } a mixture of several sorts
BULLIMONY, } of grain, as oats, pease, and vetches, called also *maslin* or *mong corn.*

BULLINGBROKE. See BOLINGBROKE, N° 2.

BULLINGBROOK, a village in Lincolnshire, 4 miles SE. of Horncastle.

BULLINGER, Henry, born at Bremgarten, in Switzerland, in 1504, was an eminent Zuinglian minister, a great supporter of the reformation, and employed in many ecclesiastical negociations. He composed many books, one against Luther in particular. He died in 1575.

BULLINGHAM, LOWER, } 2 English villages
BULLINGHAM, UPPER, } SE. of Hereford.

BULLINGS, 6 miles E. of Lincoln.

BULLINGTON, 3 villages; 1. in Berkshire, between Wallingford and Oxford: 2. in Herefordshire, 2 miles W. of Kinnersley: and, 3. in Lincolnshire, 2 miles W. of Wragby.

(1.) * BULLION. *n. f.* [*billon*, Fr.] Gold or silver in the lump, unwrought, uncoined.—The balance of trade must of necessity be returned in coin or *bullion. Bacon.*—

A second multitude,
With wond'rous art, found out the massy ore,
Severing each kind, and scumm'd the *bullion* dross. *Milton.*

—*Bullion* is silver whose workmanship has no value. And thus foreign coin hath no value here for its stamp, and our coin is *bullion* in foreign dominions. *Locke.*—In every vessel there is stowage for immense treasures, when the cargo is pure *bullion. Addison.*

(2.) BULLION is so called, either when smelted from the native ore, and not perfectly refined, but melted down in bars or ingots, or in any unwrought body, of any degree of fineness. Goldsmiths apply the term to old gold and silver in general. These metals, when pure, are so soft and flexible, that they cannot well be brought into any fashion for use, without being first reduced and hardened with an alloy of some other baser metal. To prevent those abuses which some might commit, by such alloys, the legislators of civilized countries have ordained, that there shall be no more than a certain proportion of a baser metal to a particular quantity of pure gold or silver, in order to make them of the fineness of what is called the standard gold or silver of such a country. According to the laws of England, all sorts of wrought plate in general ought to be made to the legal standard; and the price of our standard gold and silver is the common rule whereby to set a value on their bullion, whether it be in ingots, bars, dust, or foreign specie. Hence the value of bullion, cannot be exactly known, without being first essayed, that the exact quantity of pure metal therein contained may be determined, and consequently whether it be above or below the standard. Silver and gold, whether coined or uncoined, (though used for a common measure of other things,) are no less a commodity than wine, tobacco,

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tobacco, or cloth; and may, in many cafes, be exported as much to the national advantage as any other commodity.

(1.) * BULLITION. *n. f.* [from *bullio*, Lat.] The act or ftate of boiling.—There is to be obferved in thefe diffolutions, which will not eafily incorporate, what the effects are, as the *bullition*, the precipitation to the bottom, the ejaculation towards the top, the fufpenfion in the midft, and the like. *Bacon.*

(2.) BULLITION is alfo ufed for the effect arifing upon the mixture of different liquors, which often is a quantity of bubbles, or froth.

(1.) * BULLOCK. *n. f.* [from *bull*] A young bull.—Why, that's fpoken like an honeft drover: fo they fell *bullocks*. *Shakefpeare.*—

Some drive the herds; here the fierce *bullock* fcorns
Th' appointed way, and runs with threat'ning horns. *Cowley.*

—Until the tranfportation of cattle into England was prohibited, the quickeft trade of ready money here was driven by the fale of young *bullocks*. *Temple.*

(2.) BULLOCK. See HOS, N° IV. § xi. 1. CALF, and OX.

(3.) BULLOCK, in geography, a town of Ireland, 6 miles from Dublin.

BULLOCK'S EYE, in architecture, a fmall circular fky light.

BULLOGNE. See BOLOGNE.

BULL-RUNNING, denotes a feudal cuftom obtaining in the honour of Tutbury in Staffordfhire; where, anciently, on the day of the aflumption of our Lady, a bull is turned loofe by the lord to the minftrels; who, if they can catch him before he paffes the river Dove, are to have him for their own, or, in lieu thereof, to receive each 40 pence; in confideration of which cuftom they pay 20 pence yearly to the faid lord.

(1.) BULL'S EYE, in aftronomy. See ALDEBARAN.

(2.) BULL'S EYE, in meteorology, a little dark cloud, reddifh in the middle, chiefly appearing about the Cape of Good Hope; thus denominated by the Portugueſe, who, on the appearance of it, inftantly take down their fails, knowing that a terrible ftorm of thunder, lightning, and a whirlwind, is at hand.

(3.) BULL'S EYE, in fea language, a fmall pulley in the form of a ring, having a rope fpliced round the outer edge of it, and a large hole in the middle for another rope to ſlide in. It is more commonly ufed by Dutch than by Engliſh ſeamen.

* BULL-TROUT. *n. f.* A large kind of trout.—There is, in Northumberland, a trout called a *bull-trout*, of a much greater length and bigneſs than any in theſe ſouthern parts. *Walton.*

(1.) * BULL-WEED. *n. f.* The ſame with *knapweed*.

(2.) BULL-WEED, in botany. See CENTAUREA.

BULL-WELL, a village, 7 miles from Nottingham.

(1.) * BULL-WORT, or BISHOP'S-WEED. *n. f.* [*ammi*, Lat.] A plant.

(2.) BULL-WORT. See AMMI.

(1.) * BULLY. *n. f.* [*Skinner* derives this word from *burly*, as a corruption in the pronuciation; which is very probably right: or from *bulky*, or *bull-eyed*; which are leſs probable. May it not come from *bull*, the pope's letter, implying the inſolence of thoſe who came inveſted with authority from the papal court?] A noiſy, bluſtering, quarrelling fellow: it is generally taken for a man that has only the appearance of courage.—Mine hoſt of the garter!—What ſays my *bully* rock? Speak ſcholarly and wiſely. *Shak.*—All on a ſudden the doors flew open, and in comes a crew of roaring *bullies*, with their wenches, their dogs, and their bottles. *L'Eſtrange.*—

'Tis ſo ridic'lous, but ſo true withal,
A *bully* cannot ſleep without a brawl. *Dryden.*

—A ſcolding hero is, at the worſt, a more tolerable character than a *bully* in petticoats. *Addiſon.*—The little man is *bully* in his nature, but, when he grows cholerick, I confine him till his wrath is over. *Addiſon.*

(2.) BULLY, in geography, a village in Glouceſterſhire, 2 miles W. of the iſle of Alderney.

(1.) * *To* BULLY. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To overbear with noiſe or menaces.—

Prentices, pariſh clerks, and hectors meet,
He that is drunk, or *bully'd*, pays the treat. *King.*

(2.) * *To* BULLY. *v. n.* To be noiſy and quarrelſome.

BULMARSH-COURT, a village in Berkſhire, near Sunning.

BULMARSH-HEATH, near Reading, Berkſhire.

BULMER, two villages, viz. 1. in Eſſex, near Suffolk: 2. in Yorkſhire, 5 miles SW. of Malton.

BULNESS. See BOULNESS.

BULPHAM, a town NW. of Horndon, Eſſex.

(1.) * BULRUSH. *n. f.* [from *bull* and *ruſh*.] A large ruſh, ſuch as grows in rivers, without knots; though *Dryden* has given it the epithet *knotty*, confounding it, probably, with the reed.—

To make fine cages for the nightingale,
And baſkets of *bulruſhes*, was my wont. *Spenſ.*

—All my praiſes are but at a *bulruſh* caſt upon a ſtream; they are born by the ſtrength of the current. *Dryden.*—

The edges were with bending oſiers crown'd;
The *knotty bulruſh* next in order ſtood,
And all within of reeds and trembling wood. *Dryden.*

(2.) BULRUSH BRIDGE. See BRIDGES, § I. 14.

BULSTRODE, a village near Gerard's Croſs, in Buckinghamſhire.

(1.) BULTEL, a bag wherein meal is dreſſed.

(2.) BULTEL, or BULTER, the bran or refuſe of meal after dreſſing.

BULTELLUM, } in writers of the middle age,
BULTELLUS, } a fcarce, or BOULTER.

(1.) BULTER. See BULTEL, N° 2.

(2.) BULTERS, in fiſhing, ſtrong lines, 500 feet long, with 60 hooks, 8 feet aſunder, uſed on the coaſt of Cornwall in the fiſhery of congers. They are baited with pilchards or mackarel, and ſunk by a ſtone faſtened to them. Sometimes ſuch a number of theſe are tied together as to reach a mile.

BULTER-CLOTH, a linen or hair cloth for ſifting or ſearcing of meal or flour.

BULT-POINT, a village in Devonſhire, near Salcomb.

(1.) * BULWARK. *n. f.* [*bolwercke*, Dutch; probably only from its ſtrength and largeneſs.]

1. What

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1. What is now called a baſtion.—

But him the ſquire made quickly to retreat,
Encountering fierce with ſingle ſword in hand,
And 'twixt him and his lord did like a *bulwark* ſtand. *Spenſer.*

They oft repair
Their earthen *bulwarks* 'gainſt the ocean flood. *Fairfax.*

We have *bulwarks* round us;
Within our walls are troops enur'd to toil. *Addiſon.*

2. A fortification.—Taking away needleſs *bulwarks*, divers were demoliſhed upon the ſea coaſts *Hayward.*—Our naval ſtrength is a *bulwark* to the nation. *Addiſon.* 3. A ſecurity; a ſcreen; a ſhelter.—Some making the wars their *bulwark*, that have before gored the gentle boſom of peace with pillage and robbery. *Shakeſp.*

(2.) BULWARK, in the ancient fortification. See RAMPART.

* *To* BULWARK. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To fortify; to ſtrengthen with bulwarks.—

And yet no *bulwark'd* town, or diſtant coaſt,
Preſerves the beauteous youth from being ſeen. *Addiſon.*

BULWICK, a village in Northamptonſhire, 5 miles NW. of Oundle.

* BUM. *n. ſ.* [*bomme*, Dutch.] The buttocks; the part on which we ſit.—

The wiſeſt aunt telling the ſaddeſt tale,
Sometime for threefoot ſtool miſtaketh me,
Then ſlip I from her *bum*, down topples ſhe. *Shakeſpeare.*

This ſaid, he gently rais'd the knight,
And ſet him on his *bum* upright. *Hudibras.*

From duſty ſhops neglected authors come,
Martyrs of pies, and relicks of the *bum*. *Dryd.*

The learned Sydenham does not doubt,
But profound thought will bring the gout;
And that with *bum* on couch we lie,
Becauſe our reaſon's ſoar'd too high. *W——n.*

BUMALDA, in botany, a genus of the digynia order, belonging to the pentandria claſs of plants. Of this genus we have found no particular deſcription.

* BUMBAILIFF. *n. ſ.* [This is a corruption of *bound* bailiff, pronounced by gradual corruption, *boun*, *bun*, *bum* bailiff.] A bailiff of the meaneſt kind; one that is employed in arreſts.—Go, Sir Andrew, ſcout me for him at the corner of the orchard, like a *bumbailiff*. *Shakeſpeare.*

* BUMBARD. *n. ſ.* [wrong written for BOMBARD; which ſee.] A great gun; a black jack; a leathern pitcher.—

Yond ſame black cloud, yond huge one looks
Like a foul *bumbard*, that would ſhed his liquour. *Shakeſpeare.*

* BUMBAST. *n. ſ.* [falſely written for *bombaſt*; *bombaſt* and *bombaſine* being mentioned, with great probability, by *Junius*, as coming from *boom*, a tree, and *ſein*, ſilk; the ſilk or cotton of a tree. Mr *Steevens*, with much more probability, deduces them all from *bombycinus*.] 1. A cloth made by ſewing one ſtuff upon another; patchwork.—The uſual *bumbaſt* of black bits ſewed into ermine, our Engliſh women are made to think very fine. *Grew.* 2. Linen ſtuffed with cotton; ſtuffing; wadding.—

We have receiv'd your letters full of love
And, in our maiden council, rated them
As courtſhip, pleaſant jeſt, and courteſy,
As *bumbaſt*, and as lining to the time. *Shakeſp.*

BUM-BOAT, in ſea language, a ſmall boat uſed to ſell vegetables, &c. to ſhips lying at a diſtance from the ſhore.

BUMBUNNY, in botany, a name given by the people of Guinea to a plant common in that place, which ſerves them as an emetic; they boil a few of the leaves in water, and drink this liquor, which works very eaſily. *Phil. Tranſ.* N° 232.

BUMBURY, a town in Cheſhire, E. of Beeſton Caſtle.

BUMEY, a provincial governor in the kingdom of Barſalli. See BARSALLI.

BUMFORD, a village in the Peak of Derby.

BUMICILLI, a ſect of Mahometans in Egypt and Barbary, who pretend to fight with devils, and commonly appear in a fright and covered with wounds and bruiſes. About the full moon they counterfeit a combat in the preſence of all the people, which laſts for 2 or 3 hours, and is performed with aſſagaias, or javelins, till they fall down quite ſpent; in a little time, however, they recover their ſpirits, get up, and walk away.

BUMKIN, or BOOMKIN, in ſea language, is a ſhort boom or bar of timber, projecting from each bow of a ſhip, to extend the lower edge of the fore-ſail to windward. It is ſecured by a ſtrong rope, which confines it to the ſhip's bow.

* BUMP. *n. ſ.* [perhaps from *bum*, as being prominent.] A ſwelling; a protuberance.—It had upon its brow a *bump* as big as a young cockrel's ſtone; a perilous knock, and it cried bitterly. *Shakeſpeare.*—

Not though his teeth are beaten out, his eyes
Hang by a ſtring, in *bumps* his forehead riſe. *Dryden.*

* *To* BUMP. *v. a.* [from *bombus*, Lat.] To make a loud noiſe, or bomb. [See BOMB.] It is applied, I think, only to the bittern.—

Then to the water's brink ſhe laid her head,
And as the bittour *bumps* within a reed,
To thee alone, O lake, ſhe ſaid—— *Dryden.*

* BUMPER. *n. ſ.* [from *bump*.] A cup filled till the liquour ſwells over the brim.—

Places his delight
All day in playing *bumpers*, and at night
Reels to the bawds. *Dryden's Juvenal.*

* BUMPKIN. *n. ſ.* [This word is of uncertain etymology; *Henſhaw* derives it from *pumkin*, a kind of worthleſs gourd, or melon. This ſeems harſh; yet we uſe the word *cabbage-head* in the ſame ſenſe. *Bump* is uſed amongſt us for a knob, or lump; may not *bumpkin* be much the ſame with *clodpate*, *loggerhead*, *block*, and *blockhead*.] An awkward heavy ruſtick; a country lout.—The poor *bumpkin*, that had never heard of ſuch delights before, bleſſed herſelf at the change of her condition. *L'Eſtrange.*—

A heavy *bumpkin*, taught with daily care,
Can never dance three ſteps with a becoming air. *Dryden.*

In his white cloak the magiſtrate appears,
The country *bumpkin* the ſame liv'ry wears. *Dryden.*

—It was a favour to admit them to breeding; they

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they might be ignorant *bumpkins* and clowns, if they pleaſed. *Locke.*

* BUMPKINLY. *adj.* [from *bumpkin.*] Having the appearance of a clown; clowniſh.—He is a ſimple, blundering, and yet conceited fellow, who, aiming at deſcription, and the ruſtick wonderful, gives an air of *bumpkinly* romance to all he tells. *Clariſſa.*

BUMSTEAD-HELION, a village in Eſſex, near Haveril.

(1.) BUN, the dry ſtalk of hemp, ſtripped of its rind.

(2.) BUN, in paſtry, a cake baked with currants, raiſins, &c.

BUNAW, a village in Argyllſhire, in the pariſh of Muckairn, where the Lorn Furnace Company have their manufactory.

BUNBROOK, a river in Derbyſhire.

* BUNCH. *n. ſ.* [*buncher*, Daniſh, the crags of the mountains.] 1. A hard lump; a knob.—They will carry their treaſures upon the *bunches* of camels, to a people that ſhall not profit them. *Iſa.* xxx. 6.—He felt the ground, which he had wont to find even and ſoft, to be grown hard with little round balls or *bunches*, like hard boiled eggs. *Boyle.* 2. A cluſter; many of the ſame kind growing together.—

Vines, with cluſt'ring *bunches* growing. *Shak.*

—Titian ſaid, that he knew no better rule for the diſtribution of the lights and ſhadows, than his obſervation drawn from a *bunch* of grapes. *Dryd.*—

For thee, large *bunches* load the bending vine,
And the laſt bleſſings of the year are thine. *Dryd.*

3. A number of things tied together.—

And on his arms a *buneh* of keys he bore.
Fairy Queen.

—All? I know not what you call all; but if I fought not with fifty of them, I am a *bunch* of raddiſh. *Shakeſpeare.*—

Ancient Janus, with his double face,
And *bunch* of keys, the porter of the place. *Dryd.*

—The mother's *bunch* of keys, or any thing they cannot hurt themſelves with, ſerves to divert the little children. *Locke.* 4. Any thing bound into a knot: as, a *bunch* of ribbon; a tuft:—

Upon the top of all his lofty creſt,
A *bunch* of hairs diſcover'd div rſly,
With ſprinkled pearl and gold full richly dreſt.
Spenſer.

* *To* BUNCH. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To ſwell, out in a bunch; to grow out in protuberances.—It has the reſemblance of a champignon before it is opened, *bunching* out into a large round knob at one end. *Woodward.*

* BUNCHBACKED. *adj.* [from *bunch* and *back.*] Having bunches on the back; crookbacked.—

The day ſhall come, that thou ſhalt wiſh for me,
To help thee curſe this pois'nous *bunchback'd* toad. *Shakeſpeare.*

* BUNCHINESS. *n. ſ.* [from *bunchy.*] The quality of being bunchy, or growing in bunches.

* BUNCHY. *adj.* [from *bunch.*] Growing in bunches; having tufts.—He is more eſpecially diſtinguiſhed from other birds, by his *bunchy* tail, and the ſhortneſs of his legs. *Grew.*

BUNCLODY, a town in Wexford, Ireland.

BUNCOMB, a county of the United States, in North Carolina, ſituated in Morgan diſtrict. It is the largeſt and moſt weſterly county in that ſtate; and is bounded on the E. by thoſe of Rutherford and Burke; on the S. by South Carolina, and on the N. and W. by the New State of Tennaſſee. This county having been formed from thoſe of Burke and Rutherford, ſince the general cenſus was taken, its preſent population is not known. It is hilly, the Blue Mountains paſſing through it to S. Carolina. Its principal rivers are the Catabaw, Pacolet, and Broad River.

BUNCRANA, a town in Donegall, Ireland.

BUNDELA, or } a territory of Indoſtan Pro-
BUNDELCUND, } per, SW. of the river Jumna, and ſeparated from it, by a narrow tract of low country. It is a mountainous diſtrict of more than 100 miles ſquare, and contains the celebrated diamonds of Purna. It was formerly ſubject to the Raja Hindooput, but is now divided among his ſons and grandſons. It is inhabited by a tribe of Raipoots, and ſurrounded by Oude, Benares and the Mahrattas. Chatterpour is the capital.

(1.) * BUNDLE. *n. ſ.* [*bündle*, Sax. from *bind*] 1. A number of things bound together.—As to the *bundles* of petitions in parliament, they were, for the moſt part, petitions of private perſons. *Hale.*—

Try, lads, can you this *bundle* break;—
Then bids the youngeſt of the ſix
Take up a well-bound heap of ſticks. *Swift.*

2. A roll; any thing rolled up.—She carried a great *bundle* of Flanders lace under her arm; but finding herſelf overloaden, ſhe dropped the good man and brought away the *bundle*. *Spectator.*

(2.) BUNDLE, in commerce. Of baſte-ropes, harneſs-plates, and glovers knives, ten make a bundle; of Hamburgh yarn, 20 ſkeans; of baſket rods, 3 feet the band.

* *To* BUNDLE. *v. a.* [from the nonn.] To tie in a bundle; to tie together: with *up.*—We ought to put things together, as well as we can, *doctrinæ cauſa*; but, after all, ſeveral things will not be *bundled up* together, under our terms and ways of ſpeaking. *Locke* —

See how the double nation lies,
Like a rich coat with ſkirts of frize;
As if a man, in making poſies,
Should *bundle* thiſtles up with roſes. *Swift.*

BUNDLEY, a village in Devonſhire, 4 miles E. of Hatherley.

BUNEL, Peter, a native of Toulouſe, was one of the moſt elegant Latin writers in the 16th century, but was ſtill more conſpicuous for the regularity of his manners. He did not ſeek for riches; but, contented with the bare neceſſaries of life, applied himſelf wholly to the improvement of his mind. He died at Turin in 1547, aged 47; and has left behind him ſome Latin epiſtles, which are written with the utmoſt purity. The magiſtrates of Toulouſe have a buſt of him in marble, placed in their town-houſe. The moſt correct edition of his Letters is that of Henry Stephens, 1581.

* BUNG. *n. ſ.* [*bing*, Welch.] A ſtopple for a barrel.—After three nights are expired, the next morning pull out the *bung* ſtick, or plug. *Mortim.*

* *To* BUNG. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To ſtop; to cloſe up.

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BUNGAY, a market town of Suffolk, ſituated on the river Wavenny, about 32 miles NE. of Bury. In 1689 it was almoſt deſtroyed by fire. It has a conſiderable trade, and the women are much employed in knitting ſtockings. It is 36 m. N. by E. of Ipſwich, and 107 NE. of London. Lon. 1. 30. E. Lat. 52. 35. N.

* BUNGHOLE. *n. ſ.* [from *bung* and *hole*.] The hole at which the barrel is filled, and which is afterwards ſtopped up.—Why may not imagination trace the nobleſt duſt of Alexander, till he find it ſtopping a *bung-hole*? *Shakeſpeare.*

* BUNGLE. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] A botch; an awkwardneſs; an inaccuracy; a clumſy performance.—Errours and *bungles* are committed, when the matter is inapt or contumacious. *Ray on the Creation.*

(1.) * *To* BUNGLE. *v. a.* To botch; to manage clumſily; to conduct awkwardly: with *up*.—

Other devils, that ſuggeſt by treaſons,
Do botch and *bungle up* damnation,
With patches, colours, and with forms being fetcht
From gliſt'ring ſemblances of piety. *Shakeſp.*

They make lame miſchief, though they mean it well:
Their int'reſt is not finely drawn, and hid,
But ſeems are coarſely *bungled up* and ſeen. *Dryd.*

(2.) * *To* BUNGLE. *v. n.* [See BUNGLER.] To perform clumſily.—

When men want light,
They make but *bungling* work. *Dryden.*

—Letters to me are not ſeldom opened, and then ſealed in a *bungling* manner before they come to my hands. *Swift.*

* BUNGLER. *n. ſ.* [*bungler*, Welch; *q. bôn y gler*, i. e. the laſt or loweſt of the profeſſion. *Davies.*] A bad workman; a clumſy performer; a man without ſkill.—Painters, at the firſt, were ſuch *bunglers*, and ſo rude, that, when they drew a cow or a hog, they were fain to write over the head what it was; otherwiſe the beholder knew not what to make of it. *Peacham on Drawing.*—

Hard features every *bungler* can command;
To draw true beauty ſhews a maſter's hand.
Dryden.

A *bungler* thus, who ſcarce the nail can hit,
With driving wrong will make the pannel ſplit.
Swift.

* BUNGLINGLY. *adv.* [from *bungling*.] Clumſily; awkwardly.—To denominate them monſters, they muſt have had ſome ſyſtem of parts, compounded of ſolids and fluids, that executed, though but *bunglingly*, their peculiar functions. *Bentley.*

BUNGO. See BONGO, N° 2.

BUNHILL, a village in Worceſterſhire.

BUNIAS, in botany, a genus of the order Siliquoſa, belonging to the tetradynamia claſs of plants; and ranking under the 39th natural order, *Siliquoſæ*. The ſiliqua is deciduous, four-ſided, muricated, or ſhagreened with unequal pointed angles. There are 8 ſpecies; all annual plants, but none of them poſſeſſed of any remarkable property.

BUNIVA, a mountain of Greece, between Theſſaly and Achaia.

BUNIUM, PIG-NUT, or EARTH-NUT, in botany, a genus of the digynia order, belonging to the pentandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 45th order, *Umbellatæ*. The corolla is uniform, the umbel thick, and the fruit ovate. There is but one known ſpecies, viz.

BUNIUM BULBOCASTANUM, with a globular root. It grows naturally in moiſt paſtures in many parts of Britain, and has a tuberous ſolid root, which lies dead on the ground. The leaves are finely cut, and lie near the ground. The ſtalk riſes a foot and a half high; is round, channelled, and ſolid; the lower part being naked; but above, where it branches out, there is one leaf placed below every branch. The flowers are white, and ſhaped like thoſe of other umbelliferous plants; the ſeeds are ſmall, oblong, and when ripe are channelled. The roots of this ſort are frequently dug up, and by ſome people eaten raw. They have much reſemblance in taſte to a cheſnut, whence the ſpecific name.

BUNK, or } a word frequently occurring in
BUNKER, } the writings of the Arabian phyſicians. We do not at this time certainly know what it was; but it was evidently an aromatic root uſed in cardiac, ſtomachic, and carminative compoſition. See LEUCACANTHA.

BUNKER'S HILL, a high ground in the State of Maſſachuſetts, which over-looks the whole city of Boſton; rendered memorable by the redoubt erected upon it by the Americans, and conſequent action fought, in the beginning of the American war. See AMERICA, § 14.

BUNKON. See ACANTHE, N° 2, and AMGAILAM.

* BUNN. *n. ſ.* [*bunelo*, Span.] A kind of ſweet bread.—

Thy ſongs are ſweeter to mine ear,
Than to the thirſty cattle rivers clear;
Or winter porridge to the lab'ring youth,
Or *bunns* and ſugar to the damſel's tooth.
Gay's Paſtorals.

BUNNIDANE, a town of Ireland, in Sligo.

BUNSINGLASS, a village in Mayo county.

(1.) * BUNT. *n. ſ.* [corrupted, as *Skinner* thinks, from *bent*.] A ſwelling part; an increaſing cavity.—The wear is a frith, reaching ſlopewiſe through the ooze, from the land to low water mark, and having in it a *bunt* or cod, with an eye-hook, where the fiſh entering, upon the coming back with the ebb, are ſtopped from iſſuing out again, forſaken by the water, and left dry on the ooze. *Carew.*

(2.) BUNT LINES, are ſmall lines made faſt to the bottom of the ſails, in the middle part of the bolt rope, to a cringle, and are ſo reeved through a ſmall block, ſeized to the yard. Their uſe is to trice up the bunt of the ſail for the better furling it up.

(3.) BUNT OF A SAIL, the middle part of it, formed deſignedly into a bag or cavity, that the ſail may gather more wind. It is uſed moſtly in top-ſails, becauſe courſers are generally cut ſquare, or with but ſmall allowance for bunt or compaſs. The bunt holds much to leeward wind; that is, it hangs much to leeward.

* *To* BUNT. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To ſwell out, as the ſail *bunts* out.

* BUNTER. *n. ſ.* A cant word for a woman who picks up rags about the ſtreet; and uſed by way of contempt, for any low vulgar woman.

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BUNTINE, a thin woollen ſtuff, of which the colours and ſignals of a ſhip are uſually made.

(1.) * BUNTING. *n. ſ.* [*emberiza alba.*] The name of a bird.—I took this lark for a *bunting*. *Shakeſpeare.*

(2.) BUNTING, in ornithology. See EMBERIZA.

(3.) * BUNTING. *n. ſ.* The ſtuff of which a ſhip's colours are made.

BUNTINGFORD, a town of Hertfordſhire, ſeated on the river Rib, on the road to Cambridge. It has a market on Monday, and two fairs on June 29, and Nov. 30. Lon. 0. 6. W. Lat. 51. 55. N.

BUNTINGSDALE, a village in Shropſhire, near Drayton.

BUNTZEL, a town of Sileſia, in the duchy of Jauer. The greateſt part of the houſes are built with ſtone, and there were formerly rich mines in the neighbourhood. It is in the road to Leipſic; and its chief trade is earthen ware. Lon. 15. 50. E. Lat. 51. 12. N.

BUNTSLAU. See BOLESLAW.

BUNTZLAW, a town of Bohemia, on the Elbe.

BUNWELL, a village in Norfolk, 4 miles from Wymundham.

BUNYAN, John, author of the Pilgrim's Progreſs, was born at Elſtow, near Bedford, in 1628. He was the ſon of a tinker; and, in the early part of his life, was a ſoldier in the parliament army, and a great reprobate; but being at length deeply ſtruck with a ſenſe of his guilt, he laid aſide his profligate courſes, became remarkable for his ſobriety, and applied himſelf to obtain ſome degree of learning. About 1655, he was admitted a member of a Baptiſt congregation at Bedford, and was ſoon after choſen their preacher: but, in 1660, being taken up, and tried for preſuming to preach, he was cruelly ſentenced to perpetual baniſhment; and in the mean time committed to jail, where neceſſity obliged him to learn to make long-tagged thread-laces for his ſupport: to add to his diſtreſs, he had a wife and ſeveral children, among whom was a daughter who was blind. In this unjuſt and cruel confinement, he was detained 12¼ years, and during that time wrote many of his tracts; but he was at length diſcharged, by the humane interpoſition of Dr Barlow. When king James's declaration for liberty of conſcience was publiſhed, he was choſen paſtor of a congregation at Bedford. He at length died of the fever at London, on the 31ſt of Aug. 1688, aged 60. He wrote an allegory, called *The Holy War*, and ſeveral other religious pieces. His *Pilgrim's Progreſs* (which may be juſtly ſtiled an *original work*,) has been tranſlated into moſt European languages; and his works have been collected together, and printed in two volumes folio.

BUONACCORDO, a ſmall ſtringed muſical inſtrument, reſembling a ſpinnet, uſed by children to learn to play on, becauſe of the ſhortneſs of their fingers.

BUONOCARSI. See PIERINO DEL VAGA.

(I.) * BUOY. *n. ſ.* [*bouë*, or *boye*, Fr. *boya*, Span.] A piece of cork or wood floating on the water, tied to a weight at the bottom.—

The fiſhermen that walk upon the beach,
Appear like mice; and yond tall anchoring bark
Diminiſh'd to her cock; her cock a *buoy*,
Almoſt too ſmall for ſight. *Shakeſp. King Lear.*

Like *buoys*, that never ſink into the flood,
On learning's ſurface we but lie and nod.
Pope's Dunciad.

(II.) BUOY, in ſea affairs, a ſort of cloſe cask, or block of wood, faſtened by a rope to the anchor, to determine the place where the anchor is ſituated, that the ſhip may not come too near it, to entangle her cable about the ſtock or the flukes of it. Buoys are of various kinds; as,

1. BUOYS, CABLE, are common caſks employed to buoy up the cables in different places from rocky ground. In the harbour of Alexandria in Egypt, every ſhip is moored with at leaſt three cables, and has three or four of theſe buoys on each cable for this purpoſe.

2. BUOYS, CAN, or CONE BUOYS, theſe are in the form of a cone; and of this conſtruction are all the buoys which are floated over dangerous banks and ſhallows, as a warning to paſſing ſhips, that they may avoid them. They are extremely large, that they may be ſeen at a diſtance; and are faſtened by long chains to the anchors which are ſunk for that purpoſe at ſuch places. See *Plate* XLIV. *fig.* 5.

3. BUOYS, NUN, are ſhaped like the middle fruſtrum of two cones, abutting upon one common baſe, being caſks, which are large in the middle, and tapering nearly to a point at each end. *Plate* XLIV. *fig.* 6.

4. BUOYS, WOODEN, are ſolid pieces of timber, ſometimes in the ſhape of a cylinder, and ſometimes in that of a nun-boy; they are furniſhed with one or two holes, in which to fix a ſhort piece of rope, whoſe two ends being ſpliced together, make a ſort of circle or ring called the ſtrop.

(III.) BUOY OF THE NORE, is a buoy placed at the mouth of the river Thames, to direct mariners how to avoid a dangerous ſand.

(1.) * *To* BUOY. *v. a.* [from the noun. The *u* is mute, in both.] To keep afloat; to bear up.—All art is uſed to ſink epiſcopacy, and launch preſbytery into England; which was lately *buoyed* up in Scotland, by the like artifice of a covenant. *K. Cha.*—The water which riſes out of the abyſs, for the ſupply of ſprings and rivers, would not have ſtopped at the ſurface of the earth, but marched directly up into the atmoſphere, wherever there was heat enough in the air to continue its aſcent, and *buoy* it up. *Woodward's Natural Hiſtory.*

(2.) * *To* BUOY. *v. n.* To float; to riſe by ſpecifick lightneſs.—Riſing merit will *buoy* up at laſt. *Pope's Eſſay on Crit.*

* BUOYANCY. *n. ſ.* [from *buoyant*.] The quality of floating.—All the winged tribes owe their flight and *buoyancy* to it. *Derham's Phyſico-Theology.*

* BUOYANT. *adj.* [from *buoy*.] Floating; light; that which will not ſink. *Dryden* uſes the word, perhaps improperly, for ſomething that has denſity enough to hinder a floating body from ſinking.—I ſwam with the tide, and the water under me was *buoyant*. *Dryden.*—

His once ſo vivid nerves,
So full of *buoyant* ſpirit, now no more
Inſpire the courſe. *Thomſon.*

BUOY-ROPE, the rop which faſtens the buoy to the anchor: it ſhould be little more than equal in length to the depth of the water where the anchor

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chor lies, as it is intended to float near, or immediately above, the bed of it, that the pilot may at all times know the ſituation thereof. See *Plate* XLVI. *fig.* 10, where *b* repreſents the anchor, *c* the buoy-rope, and *d* the buoy floating on the ſurface of the water. The buoy-rope is often extremely uſeful otherwiſe, in drawing up the anchor when the cable is broke. It ſhould always, therefore, be of ſufficient ſtrength for this purpoſe, or elſe the anchor may be loſt through negligence.

BOUY, SLINGS OF THE, the ropes which are faſtened about it, and by which it is hung: they are curiouſly ſpliced around it, ſomething reſembling the braces of a drum.

BUOY, TO STREAM THE, is to let it fall from the ſhip's ſide into the water; which is always done before they let go the anchor, that it may not be retarded by the buoy-rope as it ſinks to the bottom.

BUPALUS, a celebrated ſculptor, and native of the iſland of Chios, was the ſon, grandſon, and great-grandſon of ſculptors. He had a brother, named *Athenis*, of the ſame profeſſion. They flouriſhed about the 60th Olympiad: and were cotemporary with Hipponax, a poet of an ugly and deſpicable figure. Our ſculptors diverted themſelves in repreſenting him under a ridiculous form. But Hipponax wrote ſo ſharp a ſatire againſt them, that they hanged themſelves. Pliny, however, does not allow this, but ſays, that after Hipponax had taken his revenge, they made ſeveral fine ſtatues; particularly a Diana at Chios, which was placed very high, and appeared with a frowning countenance to thoſe that came in and with a pleaſant one to thoſe that went out. There were ſeveral ſtatues at Rome made by them; and they worked only in the white marble of the iſle of Paros. Pauſanias mentions Bupalus as a good architect as well as ſculptor; but ſays nothing of Athenis.

BUPHAGA, in ornithology, a genus belonging to the order of picæ. The beak is ſtraight and quadrangular; the mandibles are gibbous, entire, and the gibboſity is greater on the outſide. The feet are of the ambulatory kind. The body is greyiſh above, and of a dirty yellow below; the tail is ſhaped like a wedge. See *Plate* XLI. *fig.* 2. There is but one ſpecies, viz.

BUPHAGA AFRICANA, the *African Beef-Eater*, a native of Senegal. It frequently perches upon oxen, and picks out the worms from their backs.

BUPHONIA, [from βους ox, and φονη ſlaughter.] in antiquity, an Athenian feaſt, denominated from a bullock ſlain therein, with quaint formalities, For the origin of the buphonia, we are told it was forbidden by the laws of Attica to kill an ox: but it once happened, at the feaſt of the *dipolia*, that an ox eat the corn, others ſay the cakes, which had been dreſſed for the ſacrifice. Thaulon the prieſt, enraged at this, preſently killed him, and fled for it. On which the Athenians, fearing the reſentment of the gods, and feigning themſelves ignorant who had committed the fact, brought the bloody axe before the judges, where it was ſolemnly arraigned, tried, found guilty, and condemned! In memory of the event, this feaſt was inſtituted, in which it was ſtill cuſtomary for the prieſt to fly, and judgment to be given about the ſlaughter of the ox.

BUPHTHALMUM, OX-EYE: A genus of the polygamia ſuperflua order, belonging to the ſyngeneſia claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 49th order, Compoſitæ The receptacle is paleaceous: the pappus an indifferent rim; the ſeeds, eſpecially thoſe of the radius, emarginated on the ſides; the ſtigmata of the hermaphrodite florets undivided. There are ten ſpecies; all of which may be propagated by ſeeds; and thoſe which do not by parting their roots, or cutting off their branches. Some of the ſpecies are tender, and require to be raiſed on a hot-bed. The following are the moſt remarkable.

1. BUPHTHALMUM ARBORESCENS, riſes with ſeveral woody ſtems to the height of 8 or 10 feet, garniſhed with leaves very unequal in ſize; ſome are narrow and long, others are broad and obtuſe; theſe are intermixed at the ſame joint, and often at the intermediate one; they are green and placed oppoſite. The flowers are produced at the ends of the branches; they are of a pale yellow colour, and have ſcaly empalements.

2. BUPHTHALMUM HELIANTHOIDES, a native of North America. It has a perennial root, and an annual ſtalk, which riſes 6 or 8 feet high, garniſhed at each joint with two oblong heart-ſhaped leaves, which have three longitudinal veins, and the baſe on one ſide ſhorter than the other. The flowers come out at the extremities of the branches, and are of a bright yellow colour, reſembling a ſmall ſun flower.

BUPHTHALMUS, in botany, a name given by ſome of the ancients to the great houſe-leek, or SEDUM MAJUS, from the manner of its growing in cluſters reſembling the eyes of large animals.

BUPLEURUM, HARE'S EAR, or *Thorough-wax*: A genus of the digynia order, belonging to the pentandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 45th order, Umbellatæ. The involucra of the part ialumbels are large in proportion, and pentaphyllous; the petals involuted or rolled inwards; the fruit roundiſh, compreſſed, and ſtriated. The principal ſpecies is the

BUPLEURUM FRUTICOSUM, or ſhrubby Ethiopian hartwort. It riſes with a ſhrubby ſtem, dividing into numerous branches, forming a buſhy head 5 or 6 feet high, adorned with oblong, oval entire leaves of a pale green colour, placed alternate, with yellow flowers in umbels at the ends of the branches, which appear in July and Auguſt, and are ſometimes ſucceeded by ripe ſeeds. It may be propagated by cuttings.

BUPRESTIS, in entomology, a genus of inſects belonging to the order of coleoptera. The antennæ are ſetaceous, and as long as the thorax: The head is half drawn back within the thorax: to which may be added, that the antennæ are ſerrated: The mouth is armed with jaws, and furniſhed with palpi: The elytra are margined, and cover the abdomen; and the tarſi have 5 articulations: The feet are ſaltatorii. There are 27 ſpecies of this inſect, moſt of them natives of the Indies. The French have given the name of *Richard* to this genus, on account of the beauti-

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the rich colours with which moſt of the inſects belonging to it are adorned. Inſects of this genus are not common in England. They are of the richeſt ſplendour; and ſome appear when alive, to be adorned with the refulgent particles of emeralds, rubies, diamonds, and gold. Applied to the microſcope, the ſplendour is ſo great as to dazzle the eye. One of the moſt oblong ſpecies, is,

BUPRESTIS GUTTATA. The whole body is green and gold with a bluiſh caſt underneath; but what diſtinguiſhes it, are 4 white depreſſed ſpots upon the elytra, two upon each. One of theſe dots is on the outward rim of the elytrum, about the middle of it, near the abdomen, and is the larger one. The other is on the inner edge, cloſe to the ſuture, about ¼ of that ſuture downwards, and exactly oppoſite its fellow on the other elytrum. This latter one is the ſmaller. The whole upper part of the inſect, viewed through a glaſs, appears finely dotted. This ſpecies has been found in timber-yards. See *Plate* XLII. *fig.* 9.

BUPTON, a town, 4 m. N. of Calne, Wilts.

BUQUOI, a town of France, in the department of the Straits of Calis, and ci-devant province of Artois; 9 miles W. of Bapaume. Lon. 2. 40. E. Lat. 50. 12. N.

(1.) * BUR, BOUR, BOR, come from the Sax. *bur*, an inner-chamber, or place of ſhade and retirement. *Gibſon's Camd.n.*

(2.) * BUR. *n. ſ.* [*lappa*; *bourre*, Fr. is *down*; the *bur* being filled with a ſoft *tomentum*, or down.] A rough head of a plant, called a *burdock*, which ſticks to the hair or clothes.—

Nothing teems
But hateful docks, rough thiſtles, keckſies, *burs*,
Loſing both beauty and utility. *Shakeſ. Hen.* V.
Hang off, thou cat thou *bur*; vile thing, let
looſe;
Or I will ſhake thee from me like a ſerpent.
Shakeſpeare.

—Dependents and ſuitors are always the *burs*, and ſometimes the briers of favourites. *Wotton.*—

Whither betake her
From the chill dew, amongſt rude *burs* and
thiſtles. *Milton.*
And where the vales with violets once were
crown'd,
Now knotty *burs* and thorns diſgrace the ground.
Dryden.

—A fellow ſtuck like a *bur*, there was no ſhaking him off. *Arbuthnot's Hiſtory of John Bull.*

(3.) BUR, in chivalry, a broad ring of iron, behind the place made for the hand on the ſpears uſed formerly in tilting; which bur was brought to reſt when the tilter charged his ſpear.

BURACO DE VELTA, in ichthology, a fiſh caught on the ſhore of Braſil: better known by its Braſilian name, GUAIBI-COARA.

BURAGRAG, a river of Barbary, in the kingdom of Fez, which riſes in the confines of Chaus; runs along the borders of Fez and Temeſna, and falls into the Atlantic at Sallee.

BURBACH, a town near Hinkley, Leiceſter.

BURBARUS, in icyhthology, a name given by Paul Jovius, and others to the carp. See CYPRINUS.

BURBUS, in commerce, a ſmall coin at Algiers, with the arms of the dey ſtruck on both ſides. It is worth half an aſper.

(1.) BURBECK, a river in Weſtmoreland, which runs into the Lune.

(2.) BURBECK, a village, near APPLEBY, N° 1.

BURBER, an Egyptian piece of copper money; thick and as broad as a ſixpence; 12 of them make a MEDINE.

BURBICH, a town W. of Great Bedwin, Wilts.

(1.) * BURBOT. *n. ſ.* A fiſh full of prickles. *Dict.*

(2.) BURBOT is the Engliſh name of the MUSTELA FUVIATILIS; a fiſh common in the Trent, and other rivers in England. It is alſo called the eel-pout, and is the GADUS LOTA of Linnæus.

BURBROOK, a village in Eſſex, between Aſhden and Steeple-Bumſted.

BURCA, among the Turks, the name of the rich covering of the door of the houſe at Mecca; it is 10 feet long and 5 wide; and there are ſeveral figures and Arabic letters on it, very rich embroidered in gold, on a ground of red and green. It is carried about in their ſolemn proceſſions, and is often ſtopt, that the people may touch it.

BURCESTER. See BICESTER.

BURCHALK, a village in Wiltſhire.

BURCHAM, MAGNA, BURCHAM-NEWTON, BURCHAM-TOFTS; three large villages in Norfolk, 4 miles NE. of Caſtle-Riſing.

BURCHAUSEN, a town of Germany, in the Lower Bavaria, ſituated on the river Saltz. Lon. 13. 25. E. Lat. 48. 5. N.

BURCHILLS, a village in Staffordſhire, 1 mile NW. of Walſal.

BURCHOPE, between Hereford and Leominſter.

(1.) BURCOMB, a town in Dorſetſhire.
(2.) BURCOMB LODGE, NE. of Brutton.
(3.) BURCOMB, NORTH, (4.) BURCOMB, SOUTH, two villages, near Saliſbury, Wiltſh.

BURCOT, 4 villages: viz. 1. in Northamptonſh. near Towceſter: 2. in Oxfordſh. near Dorcheſter: 3. in Shropſhire, NW. of Great Wenlock: and, 4. in Somerſetſhire, SE. of Wrinton.

BURDA, in authors of the middle age, denotes a garment made of ruſhes.

BURDACK, an Egyptian veſſel, which ſheep uſually drink out of, at Cairo. They are made of a peculiar ſort of earth, which is ſuppoſed to cool the water, and are always ſet out to the north, to keep the cooler, and covered with a ſtrainer, to prevent any thing falling into the water; they are of ſo porous a ſtructure, that the water put into them will get through them in a few days.

BURDEGALA, or BURDIGALA, in ancient geography, a trading port town of Aquitania, ſituated on a lake of the ſea, formed by the mouth of the Garumna. It was a famous ſeat of the Muſes, (as appears by Auſonius's book, entitled *Profeſſores*,) and the birth place of Auſonius. It is now called BOURDEAUX.

* BURDELAIS. *n. ſ.* A ſort of grape.

(1.) * BURDEN. *n. ſ.* [*biirthen*, Sax. and therefore properly written *burthen*. It is ſuppoſed to come from *burdo*, Lat. a mule.] 1. A load; ſomething to be carried.—

Camels have their provender
Only for bearing *burdens*, and ſore blows
For finking under them. *Shakeſ. Coriolanus.*

—It

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—It is of use in lading ships, and may help to shew what *burden* in the several kinds they will bear. *Bacon's Phys. Rem.* 2. Something grievous or wearisome.—

Couldst thou support
That *burden*, heavier than the earth to bear?
Milton's Paradise Lost.

—None of the things that are to learn, should ever be made a *burden* to them, or imposed on them as a task. *Locke.*—

Deaf, giddy, helpless, left alone,
To all my friends a *burden* grown. *Swift.*

3. A birth: now obsolete.—

Thou hadst a wife once, called Æmilia,
That bore thee at a *burden* two fair sons. *Shak.*

4. The verse repeated in a song; the bob; the chorus.—

At ev'ry close she made, th' attending throng
Reply'd and bore the *burden* of the song. *Dryd.*

5. The quantity that a ship will carry; or the capacity of a ship: as, a ship of a hundred tons *burden*.

(2.) BURDEN also denotes a fixed quantity of certain commodities. A burden of gad-steel is two score, or 120 pounds.

(3.) BURDEN, or BURDON, [*Bourdon*, Fr] in music, the drone or base, and the pipe or string which plays it: hence the *burden of a song*. (See § 1. *def.* 4.) A chord which is to be divided, to perform the intervals of music, when open and undivided, is also called the *burden*.

(4.) BURDEN OF A SHIP, (§ 1. *def.* 5.) is its contents, or the number of tons it will carry. It may be determined thus: Multiply the length of the keel, taken within board, by the breadth of the ship, within board, taken from the midship-beam, from plank to plank; and multiply the product by the depth of the hold, taken from the plank below the keelson, to the under part of the upper deck plank; and divide the last product by 94; the quotient is the content of the tonnage required. See FREIGHT.

(5.) BURDEN, SHIPS OF, denote those of a larger and heavier sort, carrying 500 tons, or upwards.

(6.) BURDENS, THE BEARING OF, is recommended by Ringelberg as the best sort of exercise; especially to strengthen men of study. For this end he had a gown lined with plates of lead, which he could just lift with both his hands. This load he bore 6 or 7 days together, either increasing or diminishing it as he found occasion; by which means he could both write and exercise at the same time.

* *To* BURDEN. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To load; to incumber.—*Burden* not thyself above thy power. *Eccluf.* xiii. 2.—I mean not that other men be eased, and you *burdened*. *Corinthians*, viii. 13.—

What meats and drinks they had, suffic'd,
Not *burden'd* nature. *Milton.*

* BURDENER. *n. f.* [from *burden*.] A loader; an oppressor.

* BURDENOUS. *adj.* [from *burden*.] 1. Grievous; oppressive; wearisome.—Make no jest of that which hath so earnestly pierced me through, nor let that be light to thee, which to me is so *burdenous*. *Sidney* 2. Useless; cumbersome.—

To what can I be useful, wherein serve,
But to sit idle on the houshold hearth,
A *burd'nous* drone; to visitant. *Milton.*

* BURDENSOME. *adj.* [from *burden*.] Grievous; troublesome to be born.—

His leisure told him, that his time was come,
And lack of load made his life *burdensome*. *Milt.*

Could I but live till *burdensome* they prove,
My life would be immortal as my love.
Dryd. Ind. Emp.

—Assistances always attending us, upon the easy condition of our prayers, and by which the most *burdensome* duty will become light and easy. *Rogers.*

* BURDENSOMENESS. *n. f.* [from *burdensome*.] Weight; heaviness; uneasiness to be born.

BURDFORTH, a town, S. of Thirsk, Yorksh.

BURDHAM, 4 m. from Chichester, Sussex.

BURDIGALA. See BURDEGALA.

BURDINGBURY, N. of Itchington, Warwick.

(1.) BURDO, in physiology, a mongrel beast of burden, produced by a horse and she-ass, by which it is distinguished from the MULE, which is that produced of a male ass by a mare.

(2.) BURDO, or BURDON, in writers of the middle age, denotes a pilgrim's long staff, as doing the office on that occasion of a MULE.

(1.) * BURDOCK. *n. f.* [*personata*.] A peat.

(2.) BURDOCK. See ARCTIUM and XANTHIUM.

(1, 2.) BURDON, 2 towns in Durham, N. of Seton.

(3.) BURDON, GREAT, } two villages between
(4.) BURDON, LITTLE, } Darlington and Stockton.

(5.) BURDON, OLD, near Lumley C. Durham.

(6.) BURDON. See BURDEN, § 3, and BURDO, § 2.

BURDONARII, an appellation given to pilgrims, who travelled out of devotion to the Holy Land.

BURDOP-CRAIG, a village in Northumberland, NW. of Ellesdon.

BURDROP, two villages: 1. in Oxfordsh. 5 m. SW. of Banbury: 2. in Wilts, near Swindon.

BURDSWOLD, in Cumberland, E. of Askerton Castle.

BURDSYARDS, a district in Banff shire, on which there are very extensive plantations of firs. The mansion house commands such a fine view of Forres, Findhorn, the Moray Firth, &c. that it is reckoned "one of the best situations, which any country can afford." *Stat. Acc. Vol.* XVII. *p.* 455.

BURDUNCULUS, in botany, a name given by some to the plant known amongst botanical writers by the name of *bugloſſum echioides capitulis cardui benedicti*.

* BUREAU. *n. f.* [*bureau*, Fr.] A chest of drawers with a writing board. It is pronounced as if it were spelt *buro*.—

For not the desk with silver nails,
Nor *bureau* of expence,
Nor standish well japan'd, avails
To writing of good sense. *Swift.*

BURELL, or } a town of Naples, in Abruzzo,
BURELLA, } near the river Sangro. Lon. 14. 48. E. Lat. 41. 58. N.

(1.) BUREN, a town of Germany, in the circle of Westphalia, and bishopric of Paderborn; seated on the river Alme, 10 m. S. of Paderborn. Lon 8. 52. E. Lat. 53. 16. N.

(2.) BUREN, a town in Guelderland. Lon. 5. 22. E. Lat. 52. 0. N.

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BURESS, a town near Neyland, Suffolk.

BUREZLAND, a town of Tranſylvania.

BURFIELD, in Berkſh. SW. of Reading.

(1.) BURFORD, a town of Oxfordſhire, ſeated on an aſcent on the river Windruſh, chiefly noted for making ſaddles. The Downs near it, noted for horſe races, are of great advantage to it. It is 23 miles WNW. of Banbury, and 71 W. of London. Lon. 1. 37. W. Lat. 51. 46. N.

(2, 3.) BURFORD, 2 villages; 1. in Shropſh. near Tenburg: and, 2. near Warwick.

(1.) BURG, a town of Lincolnſhire, ſeated in a marſh, 12 m. SE. of Boſton, and 127 N. of London. Lon. 0. 5. E. Lat. 53. 12. N.

(2.) BURG, a town of the Dutch Netherlands, in Zutphen, ſeated on the Old Iſſel, 18 m. E. of Nimeguen. Lon. 6. 12. E. Lat. 52. 0. N.

(3.) BURG, BURGH, or DUN, in northern topography. See DUN.

(4.) BURG, a promontory, or head land, on the coaſt of Argyll-ſhire, ſeveral miles in circuit, and riſing to a conſiderable height in a conic form. There are many broken Baſaltic pillars in it.

(5.) * BURG. *n. ſ.* See BURROW.

(6.) BURG UPON SANDS, a town in Cumberland; by ſome ſuppoſed to be the ancient BRUNANBURGH.

(1.) * BURGAGE. *n. ſ.* [from *burg*, or *burrow*.] A tenure proper to cities and towns, whereby men of cities or burrows hold their lands or tenements of the king, or other lord, for a certain yearly rent. *Cowel.*—The groſs of the borough is ſurveyed together in the beginning of the county; and there are ſome other particular *burgages* thereof, mentioned under the titles of particular mens poſſeſſions. *Hale's Origin of Mankind.*

(2.) BURGAGE, or TENURE IN BURGAGE, is only a kind of town ſoccage; as common SOCCAGE, by which other lands are holden, is uſually of a rural nature. A borough is diſtinguiſhed from other towns by the right of ſending members to parliament; and where the right of election is by burgage tenure, that alone is a proof of the antiquity of the borough. Tenure in burgage, therefore, or burgage tenure, is where houſes or lands which were formerly the ſcite of houſes in an ancient borough, are held of ſome lord in common ſoccage, by a certain eſtabliſhed rent. And they ſeem to have withſtood the ſhock of the Norman encroachments, principally on account of their inſignificancy, which made it not worth while to compel them to an alteration of tenure, as 100 of them put together would ſcarce have amounted to a knight's fee. Beſides, the owners of them, being chiefly artificers, and perſons engaged in trade, could not with any tolerable propriety be put on ſuch a military eſtabliſhment as the tenure in chivalry was. The free ſoccage, therefore, in which theſe tenements are held, ſeems to be plainly a remnant of Saxon liberty; which may alſo account for the great variety of cuſtoms affecting many of theſe tenements ſo held in ancient burgage; the principal and moſt remarkable of which is that called *Borough Engliſh*. See BOROUGH ENGLISH, § 1, 2.

* BURGAMOT. *n. ſ.* [*bergamotte*, Fr.] 1. A ſpecies of pear. 2. A kind of perfume.

* BURGANET. BURGONET. *n. ſ.* [from *burginote*, Fr.] A kind of helmet.—

Upon his head his gliſtring *burganet*,
That which was wrought by wonderous device,
And curiouſly engraven, he did ſit. *Spenſer.*

This day I'll wear aloft my *burgonet*,
Ev'n to affright thee with the view thereof.
Shakeſpeare.

—I was page to a footman, carrying after him his pike and *burganet*. *Hakewill on Providence.*

BURGAT, two villages; 1. in Hampſhire, near Fordingbridge: 2. in Suffolk, near Buddeſdale.

BURGAT-DAMERAM, in Wilts, near Dorſetſh.

BURGATE, S. of Godalmin, Surry.

BURGAU, in natural hiſtory, the name of a large ſpecies of ſea-ſnail, of the lunar or round-mouthed kind. It is very beautifully lined with a coat, of the nature of mother-of-pearl; and the artificers take this out, to uſe under the name of mother-of-pearl, though ſome call it after the name of the ſhell they take it from, *burgaudine*.

BURGAUDINE, the name given by the French artificers to what we call mother-of-pearl. In their works, they do not uſe the common nacre ſhell for this, but the lining of the American burgau. Hence burgaudine and mother-of-pearl are uſed ſynonimouſly for both.

(1.) BURGAW, a margraviate of Suabia.

(2.) BURGAW, a town in the margraviate, N° 1.

BURGDORF, a pretty large town of Switzerland, in the canton of Bern, ſeated on an eminence; about a piſtol ſhot from the river Emma; which, as it often changes its bed, frequently does much miſchief. It runs at the foot of a rock of a prodigious height, and there is a ſtone bridge over it. Near the town there is a ſulphureous ſpring which ſupplies their baths with water, reckoned good againſt palſies and diſeaſes of the nerves. Lon. 7. 35. E. Lat. 47. 6. N.

* BURGEOIS. *n. ſ.* [*bourgeois*, Fr.] 1. A citizen; a burgeſs.—It is a republick itſelf, under the protection of the 8 ancient cantons. There are in it 100 *burgeois*, and about 1000 ſouls. *Addiſon on Italy.* 2. A type of a particular ſort, probably called ſo from him who firſt uſed it; as, †

Laugh where we muſt, be candid where we can,
But vindicate the ways of God to man. *Pope.*

BURGEON, [*bourgeon*, Fr. a bud,] in gardening, a knot or button put forth by the branch of a tree in ſpring; the ſame with EYE, BUD, or GERM.

(1.) * BURGESS. *n. ſ.* [*burgeois*, Fr.] 1. A citizen; a freeman of a city or corporate town. 2. A repreſentative of a town corporate.—The whole caſe was diſperſed by the knights of ſhires, and *burgeſſes* of towns, through all the veins of the land. *Wotton.*

(2.) BURGESS likewiſe ſignifies one who poſſeſſes a tenement in a borough. The word is alſo applied to the magiſtrates of ſome towns; as the bailiff and burgeſſes of Leominſter. Anciently, burgeſſes were held in great contempt; being reputed

† *The quotation from Pope was printed on* BURGEOIS, *as an example, in* Johnſon's folio Dictionary. *This work is all in that type.*

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puted ſervile, baſe, and unfit for war; ſo that the gentry were not allowed to intermarry in their families, or fight with them; but, in lieu thereof, were to appoint champions. A burgeſs's ſon was reputed of age, when he could diſtinctly count money, meaſure cloth, &c.

(3.) BURGESSES, in the 2d ſenſe above ſtated, (§ 1.) are ſuppoſed to repreſent the mercantile part, or trading intereſt of the nation. They were formerly allowed, by a rate eſtabliſhed in the reign of Edward III. 2s. a-day as wages. It is to be regretted, that the members for boroughs bear above a quadruple proportion to thoſe for countries. The right of election of burgeſſes depends on ſeveral local charters and cuſtoms: though, by 2 Geo. II. c. 24. the right for the future ſhall be allowed according to the laſt determination of the houſe of commons concerning it; and by 3 Geo. III. c. 15. no freeman, except ſuch as claim by birth, ſervitude, or marriage, ſhall be intitled to vote, unleſs he hath been admitted to his freedom 12 months before. No perſon is eligible as a burgeſs, who hath not a clear eſtate of L. 300 a-year.

BURG-GRAVE properly denotes the hereditary governor of a caſtle, or fortified town, chiefly in Germany. The word is compounded of *bourg, town*, and *graf*, or *grave, count*. The burg-graves were originally the ſame with what we otherwiſe call *caſtellans*, or *comites caſtellani*; but their dignity was conſiderably advanced under Rudolph of Hapſburgh; before his time they were ranked only as counts, and below the princes, but under him began to be eſteemed on a footing with princes. In ſome parts, the dignity is much degenerated, eſpecially in the palatinate. There were formerly, ſays Leti, 15 families who enjoyed the title of burg-graves, 13 of which are now extinct. But this is differently repreſented by others. In Bohemia the title of Burg-grave is given to the chief officer, or to him that commands in quality of viceroy. In Pruſſia, the burg-grave is one of the chief officers of the province. In Guelderland, the burg-grave of Nimeguen is preſident of the ſtates of the province.

(1.) * BURGH. *n. ſ.* [See BURROW.] A corporate town or borow.—Many towns in Cornwall, when they were firſt allowed to ſend burgeſſes to parliament, bore another proportion to London than now; for ſeveral of theſe *burghs* ſend two burgeſſes, whereas London itſelf ſends but four. *Graunt.*

(2.) BURGH, or BOROUGH. See BOROUGH.

(3.) BURGH, or DUN. See DUN.

(4.) BURGH, James, an ingenious moral and political writer, born at Maderty, in Perthſhire, in 1714. He ſtudied at St Andrews, with the intention of becoming a clergyman; but bad health obliged him to turn to the linen trade; which not proving ſucceſsful, he went to England and commenced corrector of the preſs, to an eminent printer, for whom he alſo made indexes. After this he removed to Great Marlow, as aſſiſtant at a ſchool; where he firſt commenced author, in 1746, by writing a pamphlet entitled *Britain's Remembrancer*; which went through 5 large editions in two years; was reprinted in England, Ireland, and America; was aſcribed to ſeveral biſhops, and quoted by churchmen and diſſenters from the pulpit. In 1747, he opened an academy at Stoke-Newington, in Middleſex; and his ſcholars increaſing rapidly, he removed, in 1750, to a large houſe in Newington Green, where he taught for 19 years, with high reputation, and trained up many to knowledge and virtue. In 1751, he married Mrs Harding, a widow lady, who concurred with him in his laudable undertakings. After a very uſeful and laborious life, he retired from buſineſs, in 1771, and ſettled in Iſlington, with the view of finiſhing a work he had long collected materials for, entitled *Political Diſquiſitions*, which came out in 1774 and 1775, in 3 vols, although he was then ſeverely afflicted with the ſtone; of which he died, 26 Aug. 1775, aged 61. His other works were, 1. Thoughts on Education, 1747: 2. An Hymn to the Creator; with an Idea of the Creator from his works, in proſe; 1750: 3. A Warning to Dram-Drinkers, 1751: 4. The Dignity of Human Nature, 1754. 4to, and 1767, 2 vols 8vo. 6. Youth's Friendly Monitor; 1756, 12mo. 6. Political Speculations, 1758: 7. The Rationale of Chriſtianity, 1760: 8. An Account of the Laws, Government, &c. of the Ceſſares, &c. a political romance, 8vo. 1760: 9. The Art of Speaking, 1762: (5th edit. in 1782:) 10. Crito, or Eſſays on Various Subjects;—with a humorous dedication, "*To the Rt. Rev. Father (of three years old.)* His R. H. Frederick, biſhop of Oſnaburgh:" 11. Propoſals for an Aſſociation againſt Engroſſers, Foreſtallers, &c. 1776: 12. Crito, vol. 2. (replete with political ſatire,) with a long dedication, "To the good people of Britain of the 20th century." Beſides theſe, he publiſhed ſeveral periodical pieces in the Newſpapers: particularly, 1. *The Free Enquirer*; in the Gen. Even. Poſt, 1753-4: 2. *The Conſtitutionaliſt*, in 1770: intended to recommend Annual Parliaments, Adequate Repreſentation, and a Place-bill: and, 3. *The Coloniſt's Advocate*, in favour of the Americans; about 1771. Both theſe laſt were in a ſeries of letters in the Gazetteer.

(5.) BURGH, in geography, a town of Lincolnſhire, between Saitfleet and Wainfleet; 12 miles NNE. of Boſton; and 133 N. of London. It has a market on Thurſ. and fairs, May 12. Aug. 16. and Oct. 2.

(6.) BURGH, or BOROUGH, a town in Cambridgeſhire, 6 miles S. of Newmarket.

(7.) BURGH, or BURGH-HEAD, a peninſula with an old fort, on the coaſt of Morayſhire, in the pariſh of Duffus, of which (ſays Buchanan) the Danes "made an iſland, by cutting through a narrow neck of land," and ſtrongly fortified it in the reign of Malcolm II; who ceded this part of Moray to them, after being defeated by them, though he headed his army in perſon. "All our hiſtorians are miſtaken in placing this fort, (as Buchanan alſo does) at *Nairn*, where there never was any ſuch building. But in this pariſh the peninſula is ſituated; and upon it there are large remains of a regular fortification. The cut made to inſulate the promontory is yet viſible, but now dry and nearly filled up. The place ſtill retains its Daniſh name, being generally called BURGH, and ſometimes BURGH-HEAD." *Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc.* VIII. 395.

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(8—14.) BURGH, the name of 7 ſmall towns or villages: viz. 1. in Derby, near Caſtleton, in the high peak: 2. in Dorſetſhire, 3 m. from Axminſter: 3. in Lancaſhire, S. of the Pele: 4. in Norfolkſhire, W. of Kirby: 5. in Shropſhire, 5 m. from Wem; 6. in Suffolk, near Clopton: and, 7. in Yorkſhire, near Ferriby.

BURGHAM-CASTLE, in Weſtmoreland, 5 miles SE. of Appleby.

BURGH-BOTE ſignifies contribution towards the building or repairing of caſtles, or walls, for the defence of a borough or city. By the law of king Athelſtan, the caſtles and walls of towns were to be repaired, and burgh-bote levied every year within a fortnight after rogation days. No perſon whatever was exempted; the king himſelf could not exempt a man from burgh-bote: yet, in after times, exemptions appear to have been frequently granted; inſomuch, that, according to Cowel, the word *burgh-bote* came to be chiefly uſed to denote not the ſervice but the liberty or exemption from it.

BURGH-BRECHE, a fine impoſed on the community of a town, or burgh, for the breach of peace among them.

BURGH-CASTLE, or BOROUGH-CASTLE, a fortreſs on the edge of the county of Suffolk, 3 m. W. of Yarmouth, where the rivers Yare and Waveny meet. It was formerly a delightful place; but now only the ruins of its walls remain, near which Roman coins are often dug up.

BURGH-CLERE, W. of King's Clere, Hampſh.

(1.) * BURGHER. *n. ſ.* [from *burgh.*] One who has a right to certain privileges in this or that place. *Locke.*—

It irks me, the poor drappled fools,
Being native *burghers* of this deſart city,
Should in their own confines, with forked heads,
Have their round haunches gor'd.
Shakeſ. As you like it.

—After the multitude of the common people was diſmiſſed, and the chief of the *burghers* ſent for, the imperious letter was read before the better ſort of citizens. *Knolles.*

(2.) BURGHER. See BURGESS, § 1, 2.

(3.) BURGHER SECEDERS, a numerous and reſpectable claſs of diſſenters from the church of Scotland, who were originally connected with the ASSOCIATE PRESBYTERY; but ſome difference of ſentiment ariſing about the lawfulneſs of taking the Burgeſs oath, a ſeparation enſued in 1739; in conſequence of which, thoſe who pled for the affirmative, obtained the appellation of BURGHER, and their opponents that of ANTIBURGHER SECEDERS. See SECEDERS.

BURGHER-MASTER. See BURGO-MASTER.

* BURGHERSHP. *n. ſ.* [from *burgher.*] The privilege of a burgher.

BURGH-GRAVE. See BURG-GRAVE.

BURGH-HALL, a town N. of Maſham, Yorkſh.

(1.) BURGH-HEAD, a village of Scotland, on the coaſt of Moray-ſhire, containing 400 inhabitants, of whom two thirds, are ſailors or fiſhers, and the reſt maſons and quarriers. The coaſt is naturally well adapted for a deep, capacious, and ſafe harbour; has a fine bottom; ſheltered from dangerous winds; and water of any neceſſary depth. As there is no river near it, it would be free from thoſe bars and ſhallows, which are conſtantly forming at the mouths of rivers. As ſuch a harbour could be erected at a moderate expence, and as there is not one good or ſafe one along the whole S. coaſt of the Moray Frith, from Buchan-Neſs to Inverneſs, (an extent of 100 miles,) it is ſurpriſing that one has not long ere now, been erected at this ſtation. *Stat. Acc.* VIII. 390, 391.

(2.) BURGH-HEAD, a promontory on the coaſt of Galloway, in the pariſh of Whithorn; where the rev. Dr Iſaac Davidſon obſerves, a light-houſe would be of great uſe. He alſo mentions a ſingular phænomenon, that takes place on this coaſt; viz. that "from Port Yarrock round Burgh-Head, the tide flows cloſe along the ſhore *three* hours, and ebbs *nine.*" *Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc.* XVI. 282.

BURGH-HILL; 1. N. of Hereford: 2. in Yorkſhire, near Bainbridge.

BURGH-HOUSE, 2 miles SE. of Epſom, Surry.

BURGH MAILS, were yearly payments to the crown of Scotland, introduced by Malcolm III. and reſembling the *fee-farm* rents of burghs in England. See MAIL.

BURGH-MASTER, an officer in the tin mines, who directs and lays out the meers for the workmen, &c. otherwiſe denominated bailiff and BARMASTER.

BURGHMOTE, the court of a borough. By the laws of king Edgar, the burghmote was to be held thrice in the year: by thoſe of Henry I. 12 times.

BURGH ST MARGARET. } Two villages in Nor-
BURGH ST MARY. } folk, near Yarmouth.

BURGH UPON BANE, a village in Lincolnſhire, E. of Market-Raiſin.

BURGH UPON SANDS. See BURG, N° 6.

BURGHWARE, in old ſtatutes, a burgeſs.

BURGIMOTUS. See BURGHMOTE.

(1.) * BURGLAR. *n. ſ.* One guilty of the crime of houſe breaking.

(2.) BURGLAR. See BURGLARY, § 2.

BURGLARIOUS, *adj.* belonging to burglary.

(1.) * BURGLARY. *n. ſ.* [from *burg*, a houſe, and *larron*, a thief.] In the natural ſignification, is nothing but the robbing of a houſe: but as it is a term of art, our common lawyers reſtrain it to robbing a houſe by night, or breaking it with an intent to rob, or to do ſome other felony. The like offence committed by day, they call houſe-robbing, by a peculiar name. *Cowel.*—What ſay you, father? *Burglarly* is but a venial ſin among ſoldiers. *Dryden's Spaniſh Fryar.*

(2.) BURGLARY, or NOCTURNAL HOUSE-BREAKING, *(burgo latrocinium,)* which by the ancient Engliſh law was called *hamefucken*, a word alſo uſed in the law of Scotland, but in a ſenſe ſomewhat different, has always been looked upon as a very heinous offence: not only becauſe of the abundant terror it carries with it, but alſo as it is a forcible invaſion and diſturbance of that right of habitation, which every individual might acquire even in a ſtate of nature; an invaſion which, in ſuch a ſtate, would be ſure to be puniſhed with death, unleſs the aſſailant were ſtronger. But, in civil ſociety, the laws come in to the aſſiſtance of the weaker party: and, beſides that they leave him this natural right of killing the aggreſſor, if he can, they alſo protect and avenge him

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him in case the assailant is too powerful. And the law has so particular and tender a regard to the immunity of a man's house, that it styles it his *castle*, and will never suffer it to be violated with impunity; agreeing herein with the sentiments of ancient Rome. For this reason no outward doors can in general be broken open to execute any civil process; though in criminal causes the public safety supersedes the private. See ARREST, N° I. § 2. Hence also in part arises the animadversion of the law upon eaves-droppers, nusancers, and incendiaries: and to this principle it must be assigned, that a man may assemble people together lawfully, (at least if they do not exceed 11,) without danger of raising a riot, rout, or unlawful assembly, in order to protect his house; which he is not permitted to do in any other case.

(3.) BURGLARY, DEFINITIONS AND DISTINCTIONS OF. Sir Edward Coke's definitions of a BURGLAR, is, "he that by night breaketh and entereth into a manion house, with intent to commit a felony." In this definition there are 4 things to be considered; the *time*, the *place*, the *manner*, and the *intent*. I. The TIME must be by night, and not by day; for in the day-time there is no burglary; *i. e.* if there be day-light or crepusculum enough, begun or left, to discern a man's face withal. But this does not extend to moonlight; for then many midnight burglaries would go unpunished: and besides, the malignity of the offence does not consist so much in its being done in the dark, as at the dead of night; when all the creation, except beasts of prey, are at rest; when sleep has disarmed the owner, and rendered his castle defenceless. II. As to the PLACE. It must be, according to Sir Edward Coke's definition, in a mansion-house: for no distant barn, warehouse, or the like, are under the same privileges, nor looked upon as a man's castle of defence; nor is a breaking open of houses wherein no man resides, and which for the time being are not mansion houses, attended with the same circumstances of midnight terror. A house, however, wherein a man sometimes resides, and which the owner hath left only for a short season, *animo revertendi*, is the object of burglary, though no one be in it at the time of the fact committed. And if the barn, stable, or warehouse, be parcel of the mansion house, though not under the same roof or contiguous, a burglary may be committed therein; for the capital house protects and privileges all its branches and appurtenants, if within the curtilage or homestall. A chamber in a college, or an inn of a court, where each inhabitant hath a distinct property, is to all other purposes as well as this, the manion house of the owner. So also is a room or lodging in any private house, the mansion for the time being of the lodger; if the owner doth not himself dwell in the house, or if he and the lodger enter by different outward doors. But if the owner himself lies in the house, and hath but one outward door at which he and his lodgers enter, such lodgers seem only to be inmates, and all their apartments to be parcel of the one dwelling-house of the owner. III. As to the MANNER of committing burglary: there must be both a breaking and an entry to complete it. But they need not be both done at once; for if a hole be broken one night, and the same breakers enter the next night through the same, they are burglars. There must be an actual breaking; as, at least, by breaking or taking out the glass of, or otherwise opening, a window; picking a lock, or opening it with a key; nay, by lifting up the latch of a door, or unloosing any other fastening which the owner has provided. But if a person leaves his doors or windows open, it is his own folly and negligence; and if a man enters therein, it is no burglary; yet, if he afterwards unlocks an inner or chamber door, it is so. But to come down a chimney is held a burglarious entry: for that is as much closed as the nature of things will permit. So also, to knock at a door, and upon opening it, to rush in with a felonious intent; or under pretence of taking lodgings, to fall upon the landlord and rob him; or to procure a constable to gain admittance in order to search for traitors, and then to bind the constable and rob the house; all these entries have been adjudged burglarious, though there was no actual breaking; for the law will not suffer itself to be trifled with by such evasions, especially under the cloak of legal process. As for the ENTRY, any the least degree of it, with any part of the body, or with an instrument held in the hand, is sufficient: as, to step over the threshold, to put a hand or hook in at a window to draw out goods, or a pistol to demand one's money, are all of them burglarious entries. The entry may be before the breaking, as well as after; for by statute 12 Anne c. 7. if a person enters into the dwelling house of another, without breaking in either by day or by night, with an intent to commit any felony, or, being in such house, shall commit felony; and shall in the night break out of the same; this is declared to be burglary. IV. As to the INTENT; it is clear that such breaking and entry must be with a felonious intent, otherwise it is only a trespass. And it is the same, whether intention be actually carried into execution, or only demonstrated by some attempt or overt act, of which the jury is to judge. Burglary is a felony at common law, but within the benefit of clergy. Burglary in any house belonging to the plate-glass company, with intent to steal the stock or utensils, is by statute 13 Geo. III. c. 38. declared to be single felony, and punished with transportation 7 years.

BURGLES, a town of Transylvania, subject to Austria; 30 miles N. of Clausenburg. Lon. 22. 40. E. Lat. 47. 40. N.

* BURGHMASTER. See BURGOMASTER.

BURGMOTE. See BURGHMOTE.

(1.) * BURGOMASTER. *n. s.* [from *burg*, and *master*.] One employed in the government of a city.—They chuse their councils and *burgomasters* out of the burgeois, as in the other governments of Switzerland. *Addison.*

(2.) BURGOMASTER, BURGHERMASTER, *Bourgermeister*, or *Burgmeister*, is the chief magistrate of the great towns in Flanders, Holland, and Germany. The power and jurisdiction of the burgomaster is not the same in all places, every town having its particular customs and regulations: at Amsterdam there are, (or at least *were* before the revolution,) 4 chosen by the voices of all those people in the senate who have either been burgo-

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masters or echevins. They dispose of all under offices that fall in their time, keep the key of the bank, and enjoy a salary of only 500 guildres; all feasts, public entertainments, &c. being defrayed out of the common treasury. The word is formed from the two Flemish words, *borger*, *burgess*, or *citizen*; and *mester*, *master*. Some express it in Latin by *consul*, others by *senator*.—Mr Brenau observes, that *burgermaster* in Holland answers to what is called *alderman* and *sheriff* in England, *attorney* at Compeigne, *capitoul* at Thoulouse, *consul* at Languedoc, &c.

BURGONET. See BURGANET.

BURGOO, or BURGOUT, a sea-faring dish, made of groats boiled in water till they burst, and then mixed with butter. It is cheap, and reckoned strengthening. Burgoo, otherwise called *loblolly*, is held by Cockburn very proper to correct that thickness of humours and costiveness to which the other diet of sailors much disposes them. Yet it is the least liked of all their provisions, because of the scanty allowance of butter to it. The same author thinks it might be worth the consideration of those to whom the care of the seamen is committed, to contrive to render this food more agreeable.

BURGOS, a city of Spain, the capital of Old Castile, with an archbishop's see, erected in 1574. It is surrounded with mountains, which render the air very cold 9 months in the year, and the other 3 excessive hot. It is seated on the declivity of a hill, on the top of which there is a strong castle, and the lower part of the town is watered by the river Alançon. The principal avenue to the city is by a handsome bridge over this river, which leads to a beautiful gate, adorned with the statues of several kings of Spain. The town is large and populous; but the houses are ill built, and the streets are narrow and dirty, except some few, especially that which leads to the cathedral. There are several squares, adorned with fountains and statues. The great square in the middle of the city is furrounded with fine houses, with piazzas to each. The cathedral church is a masterpiece of Gothic architecture, and one of the finest in all Spain. The church of the Augustines is remarkable for its beautiful and rich chapel of the holy crucifix. There are several fine convents and nunneries; one of which last contains 150 nuns, of noble extraction. They have likewise a royal hospital, very richly endowed; and at this place they speak the best Castilian, that is, the purest Spanish in the kingdom. It is 95 miles E. by S. of Leon, and 117 N. of Madrid. Lon. 3. 30. W. Lat. 42. 20. N.

BURGOW. See BURGAW.

BURGOYNE, John, lieut. general in the army, colonel of the 4th regiment of foot, a Privy counsellor, and M. P. for Preston, was author of a much celebrated comedy, entitled *The Heiress*. When only a subaltern, he married Lady Charlotte Stanley; which, (as most love marriages are, where money is not on both sides,) was highly resented by the late E. of Derby, her father, who vowed never to see them again. As time, however, unfolded the general's character, the earl became convinced, that his daughter had married an accomplished gentleman, an excellent scholar and a benevolent man; and he accordingly gave her the same annuity as her sisters, viz. L. 300 per annum; and L. 25,000 at his death. In June 1774, the general conducted the Fete Champetre given by Lord Derby at the oaks. In 1775, he was ordered on a more important enterprise in America; the unfortunate issue of which is well known. See AMERICA, § 28. In 1776 his lady died. In 1778, he returned home, and in 1779, he resigned all his emoluments, amounting to L. 3,500 a-year. He died at London, Aug. 4, 1792.

BURGUNDIANS. See BOURGUIGNONS.

BURGUNDIONES, a branch of the ancient VINDILI or Wandili. Cluverius places them about the Warta, a river of Poland: though the conjectures on the seat of these people are doubtful; and no wonder, because the Roman expeditions terminated at the Elbe. They afterwards moved to the Cisalpin, Germany, and at length to Celtic Gaul, and gave name to the ci-devant duchy of Burgundy.

BURGUNDY, a ci-devant province of France, which contained, besides the government of Burgundy, Bresse, Bugey, and the district of Gex. There are some noted mineral springs in it, with subterraneous lakes, and plenty of ochre. For ages it had dukes of its own, subordinate to the crown of France; but Lewis XI. upon the failure of the heirs male, seized upon it and annexed it to his crown. The principal places are Dijon, Auxerre, Autun, and Bourbon L'Ancy. It is now divided into 3 departments. See BOURGOGNE.

BURGUS, a village in Cornwall, near Padstow Haven.

BURGWARD, or } in writers of the middle
BURGWARDIUM, } age, the same with BULWARK. The word is also extended to the town, and even the country about such a fortress.

To BURGYN. *v. n. obs.* To bud. *Chaucer.*

* BURH, is a tower; and from that a defence or protection; so *Cwenburh* is a woman ready to assist; *Cuthbur*, eminent for assistance. *Gibson's Camden.*

BURHAM, 2 villages: 1. in Kent, near Aylesford: 2. in Lincolnshire, in Goswell parish.

BURHANPOUR, a flourishing city of Indostan, the capital of Candeish. It is pleasantly situated, 225 miles E. by N. of Surat. Lon. 76. 19. E. Lat. 21. 25. N.

(1.) * BURIAL. *n. s.* [from *To bury.*] 1. The act of burying; sepulture; interment.—

Nor would we deign him *burial* of his men.
Shakespeare.

See my wealthy Andrew dock'd in sand,
Vailing her high top lower than her ribs,
To kiss her *burial*. *Shak. Merch. of Venice.*

Your body I sought, and had I found,
Design'd for *burial* in your native ground.
Dryden's Æneid.

2. The act of placing any thing under earth or water.—We have great lakes, both salt and fresh; we use them for *burials* of some natural bodies: for we find a difference of things buried in earth, and things buried in water. *Bacon.* 3. The church service for funerals.—The office of the church is performed by the parish priest, at the time of interment, if not prohibited unto persons excommunicated, and laying violent hands on themselves,

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ſelves, by a rubrick of the *burial* ſervice. *Aylliffe's Parergon.*

(2.) BURIAL, ANCIENT CUSTOMS RESPECTING. The rites of burial are looked upon in all countries, and at all times, as a debt ſo ſacred, that ſuch as neglected to diſcharge it were thought accurſed: hence the Romans called them *juſta*, and the Greeks νομιμα δικαια, εσια, words implying the inviolable obligations laid upon the living to take care of the obſequies of the dead. Nor can we wonder, that the ancient Greeks and Romans were anxious about the interment of their deceaſed friends, ſince they were perſuaded, that their ſouls could not be admitted into the Elyſian fields till their bodies were committed to the earth; and if they never obtained burial, they were excluded from theſe happy manſions for 100 years. For this reaſon it was eſteemed a duty incumbent upon all travellers who ſhould meet with a dead body, to caſt 3 handfuls of earth upon it; and particulary one upon the head. The ancients likewiſe conſidered it as a great misfortune if they were not laid in the ſepulchres of their fathers; for which reaſon, ſuch as died in foreign countries had uſually their aſhes brought home, and interred with thoſe of their anceſtors. But there were ſome perſons whom they thought unworthy of burial; ſuch as, 1. Public or private enemies. 2. Such as betrayed or conſpired againſt their country. 3. Tyrants, who were always looked upon as enemies to their country. 4. Villains guilty of ſacrilege. 5. Such as died in debt, whoſe bodies belonged to their creditors. And 6. Some particular offenders, who ſuffered capital puniſhment. Of thoſe who were allowed the rites of burial, ſome were diſtinguiſhed by particular circumſtances of diſgrace attending their interment: thus perſons killed by lightning were buried by themſelves, being thought odious to the gods; thoſe who waſted their patrimony forfeited the right of being buried in the ſepulchres of their fathers; and thoſe who were guilty of ſelf-murder were privately depoſited in the ground, without the accuſtomed ſolemnities. Among the Jews, the privilege of burial was denied only to ſelf-murderers, who were thrown out to rot upon the ground. The place of burial among them was never particularly determined. They had graves in the town and country, upon the highways, in gardens, and upon mountains. Among the Greeks, the temples were made repoſitories for the dead in the primitive ages; yet the general cuſtom in latter ages, with them, as well as with the Romans and other heathen nations, was to bury their dead without their cities, and chiefly by the highways. The primitive Chriſtians were not, like the heathens, ſo concerned for their bodies, as to think it any detriment to them, if either the barbarity of an enemy, or ſome other accident, deprived them of this privilege. The primitive Chriſtian church denied the more ſolemn rites of burial only to unbaptized perſons, ſelf-murderers, and excommunicated perſons who continued obſtinate and impenitent, in contempt of the church's cenſures. Burying in cities was not allowed for the firſt 300 years, nor in churches for many ages after, the dead bodies being firſt depoſited in the atrium or churchyard, and porches and porticos of the church: hereditary burying-places were forbidden till the 12th century. See farther on this ſubject under FUNERAL RITES.

BURICK, a town of Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia, and the duchy of Cleves, ſubject to the king of Pruſſia. It was taken by the French in 1672, who demoliſhed the fortifications. It is agreeably ſeated on the Rhine, over againſt Weſel, 20 miles S. of Cleves. Lon. 6. 5. E. Lat. 51. 35. N.

BURICOURT, a village in Hampſhire, between Bentley and Dogmersfield.

BURIDAN, John, a native of Bethune, in Artois, was one of the moſt celebrated philoſophers of the 14th century. He taught in the univerſity of Paris, about A. D 1320, with great reputation; and wrote commentaries on logic, morality, and Ariſtotle's metaphyſics. Aventinus relates, that he was a diſciple of Ockam; and that, being expelled Paris by the power of the Realiſts, which was ſuperior to that of the Nominaliſts, he went into Germany, where he founded the univerſity of Vienna. From him came the proverb of the *aſs of Buridan*, ſo famous in the ſchools. Buridan ſuppoſed an hungry aſs fixed at an exactly equal diſtance between two buſhels of oats: or an aſs, as much preſſed by thirſt as hunger, between a buſhel of oats and a pail of water, each of them acting equally on his ſenſes. Having made this ſuppoſition, he deſired to know what the aſs would do? If he was anſwered, that he would remain immoveable, then he concluded he would die of hunger between two buſhels of oats, or of both hunger and thirſt, with both corn and water within his reach. This appeared abſurd, and brought the laughter on his ſide; but if it was replied, that the aſs would not be ſo ſtupid as to die of hunger or thirſt in ſuch a ſituation, Then, (ſaid he,) the aſs has free will, or is it poſſible that of two *equal* weights one ſhould *outweigh* the other? Theſe two conſequences appeared equally abſurd; and thus Buridan, by this ſophiſm, perplexed the philoſophers, and his aſs became famous in the ſchools.

BURIENS, ST., a village in Cornwall, 5 miles from Penzance.

* BURIER. *n. ſ.* [from *bury.*] He that buries; he that performs the act of interment.—

Let one ſpirit of the firſt born Cain
Reign in all boſoms, that, each heart being ſet
On bloody courſes, the rude ſcene may end,
And darkneſs be the *burier* of the dead.
Shakeſp. Henry IV.

* BURINE. *n. ſ.* [French.] A graving tool; a graver.—Wit is like the graver's *burine* upon copper, or the corrodings of aquafortis, which engrave and indent the characters, that can never be defaced. *Government of the Tongue.*

BURINGHAM, a village in Lincolnſhire, near the iſle of Axholm.

BURIS, a name given by Avicenna, and ſome other old authors, to a ſcirrhous hernia.

BURKE, a mountainous county of North Carolina, in the diſtrict of Morgan; bounded on the N. by Wilkes, on the E. by Iredell, on the S. by Rutherford, and on the W. by Buncomb, counties. It contains about 7000 free inhabitants, and 450 ſlaves. Morgantown is the chief town.

BURKET, a town near Shrivenham, Berks.

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BURKHAUSEN. See BURGHAUSEN.

BURKITT, William, a celebrated commentator on the New Teſtament, was born at Hitcham in Northamptonſhire, July 25, 1650, and educated at Cambridge. He entered young upon the miniſtry, at Milden in Suffolk, where he continued 21 years, firſt as curate, and afterwards as rector of that church. In 1692, he had a call to the vicarage of Dedham in Eſſex, where he continued till his death, Oct. 1703. He was pious and charitable. He made great collections for the French proteſtants in the years 1687, &c. and procured a worthy miniſter to go and ſettle in Carolina. Among other charities, by his laſt will he bequeathed the houſe wherein he lived, with the lands belonging to it, in perpetuity, to the lecturer at Dedham. Beſides his Commentary, he wrote a work entitled, *The poor man's help, and rich man's guide.*

* *To* BURL. *v. a.* To dreſs cloth as fullers do. *Dict.*

* BURLACE. *n. ſ.* [corruptly written for *burdelais.*] A ſort of grape.

BURLAMAQUI, John James, an illuſtrious civilian, born at Geneva, and profeſſor of civil law there. Prince Frederick of Heſſe-Caſſel, being his pupil, took him with him in 1734, and detained him ſeveral years. On his return to Geneva, he was named Counſellor of State, and died there in 1748. His *Principles of Natural Law*, firſt raiſed his fame; and are ſaid to contain the eſſence of Puffendorf, Grotius, and Barbeyrac. He wrote alſo *The Principles of Political Law.* Both are in French.

BURLAND, two villages; 1. in Cheſhire, SE. of Combermere: 2. in Somerſetſhire, between Taunton and Combe St Nicholas.

BURLATON, in Staffordſh. near Sheriff-Hales,

BURLAW. See BY-LAW.

BURLED, *adj. obſ.* Armed. *Aſh.*

(1.) BURLEIGH, a village in Northamptonſh. one mile SE. of Stamford.

(2.) BURLEIGH, Lord. See CECIL.

BURLESCOMB, a village in Devonſhire, near Holcomb.

(1.) * BURLESQUE. *adj.* [Fr. from *burlare*, Ital. to jeſt.] Jocular; tending to raiſe a laughter, by unnatural or unſuitable language or image.—Homer, in his character of Vulcan and Therſites, in his ſtory of Mars and Venus, in his behaviour of Irus, and in other paſſages, has been obſerved to have lapſed into the *burleſque* character, and to have departed from that ſerious air, eſſential to the magnificence of an epick poem. *Addiſon.*

(2.) * BURLESQUE. *n. ſ.* Ludicrous language, or idea; ridicule.—When a man lays out a twelvemonth on the ſpots in the ſun, however noble his ſpeculations may be, they are very apt to fall into *burleſque. Addiſon on Ancient Medals.*

(3.) BURLESQUE, in compoſition, is diſtinguiſhable into burleſque that excites laughter merely, and burleſque that excites deriſion or ridicule. A grave ſubject, in which there is no impropriety, may be brought down by a certain colouring to be riſible, as in *Virgil Traveſtie*; the author firſt laughs at every turn in order to make his readers laugh. *The Lutrin* is a burleſque poem of the other ſort, laying hold of a low and trifling incident to expoſe the luxury, indolence, and contentious ſpirit, of a ſet of monks. Boileau, the author, turns the ſubject into ridicule, by dreſſing it in the heroic ſtyle, and affecting to conſider it as of the utmoſt dignity and importance. Though ridicule is the poet's aim, he always carries a grave face, and never once betrays a ſmile. The oppoſition between the ſubject and the manner of handling it, is what produces the ridicule; and therefore, in a compoſition of this kind, no image profeſſedly ludicrous ought to be admitted, becauſe ſuch images deſtroy the contraſt. Though the burleſque that aims at ridicule produces its effects by elevating the ſtyle far above the ſubject; yet the poet ought to confine himſelf to ſuch images as are lively, and readily apprehended. A ſtrained elevation, ſoaring above the ordinary reach of fancy, makes not a pleaſant impreſſion. The mind is ſoon diſguſted by being kept long on the ſtretch. Machinery may be employed in a burleſque poem, ſuch as *the Lutrin*, *the Diſpenſary*, or *Hudibras*, with more ſucceſs and propriety than in any other ſpecies of poetry. For burleſque poems, though they aſſume the air of hiſtory, give entertainment chiefly by their pleaſant and ludicrous pictures: it is not the aim of ſuch a poem to raiſe ſympathy; and for that reaſon, a ſtrict imitation of nature is not neceſſary. And hence, the more extravagant the machinery in a ludicrous poem, the more entertainment it affords.

* *To* BURLESQUE. *v. a.* [from the adjective.] To turn to ridicule.—Would Homer apply the epithet divine to a modern ſwineherd? if not, it is an evidence, that Eumeus was a man of conſequence; otherwiſe Homer would *burleſque* his own poetry. *Broome's Notes on the Odyſſey.*

BURLESTON, a town in Dorſetſhire, near Athelhamſton.

BURLET, *n. ſ. obſ.* a hood; a coif. *Aſh.*

(1—3.) BURLEY, the name of 4 villages: viz. 1. in the New Foreſt, Hampſhire; 2. in Shropſhire, N. of Luldlow: 3. in Yorkſh. near Otley: and,

(4.) BURLEY ON THE HILL, in Rutlandſhire, near Oakham.

BURLEY-PARK, in Leiceſterſhire, near Loughborough.

* BURLINESS. *n. ſ.* [from *burly.*] Bulk; bluſter.

(1.) BURLINGTON, a town in Shropſhire, SW. of Wem.

(2.) BURLINGTON, a large maritime county of the United States in New-Jerſey, 55 miles in length from the mouth of Mullicus river to Trenton, and 28 in breadth. It is bounded on the N. E. by Middleſex and Monmouth counties, NW. by Hunterdon, and Delaware river, which ſeparates it from Pennſylvania, SE. by the Atlantic, S. and SW. by Glouceſter county. It is divided into 11 townſhips, viz. Cheſterfield, Nottingham, Little Egg-harbour, Eveſham, New-Hanover, Cheſter, Springfield, Northampton, Mansfield, Burlington, and Williamſborough. It contains 17,868 free inhabitants, and 227 ſlaves. The NE. boundary of this county was the old diviſional line of Eaſt and Weſt Jerſey. The interior part of the county is one extenſive foreſt of pine trees.

(3.) BURLINGTON, an iſland of New Jerſey. See N° 4.

(4.)

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(4.) BURLINGTON city, the capital of the preceding county. (N° 2.) It is ſituated partly on an iſland, and partly on the SE. ſide of the Delaware, and extends, according to its charter, one mile back and 3 miles along the river. The iſland, which is the moſt populous part of the town, is a mile and a quarter in length, and ¼ of a mile in breadth. It communicates with the main land by 4 bridges and cauſeways. On the iſland are about 160 houſes, 1,000 white, and 100 black inhabitants. Few of the blacks are ſlaves: the main ſtreets are regular and ſpacious, and generally ornamented with trees in the front of the houſes. The Delaware, oppoſite the town, is nearly a mile wide, and under ſhelter of Muttinicunck, and Burlington iſland, affords a ſafe and convenient harbour. It is advantageouſly ſituated for trade, but is too near Philadelphia to admit of an extenſive commerce. The public buildings are two market-houſes, a court-houſe, and jail, which is reckoned the ſtrongeſt in the ſtate; beſides two houſes for public worſhip, viz. one for Epiſcopalians, and one for Friends or Quakers, who are the moſt numerous. There are alſo an academy, a free ſchool, a nail manufactory, and a large diſtillery. The academy has been lately eſtabliſhed, and is under the direction of 7 truſtees, and the inſtruction of two preceptors. The iſland of Burlington was laid out, and the firſt ſettlement eſtabliſhed about the year 1677, five years after Mittinicunck or Free School iſland was given for the uſe of the iſland of Burlington; the yearly profits ariſing from it amount to L.180, and are appropriated for the education of poor children. The city was a free port under the ſtate government; but has been eſtabliſhed by Congreſs a port of entry, and a collector appointed for it. However it carries on no foreign trade, its principal intercourſe is with Philadelphia. In the charter granted by the ſtate legiſlature, the mayor, recorder and aldermen had the power of holding a commercial court, when the matter in controverſy was between foreigners and foreigners, or between citizens and foreigners. But theſe powers, are abrogated by the Federal Conſtitution. It is 20 miles NE. of Philadelphia by water, and 17 by land. Lon. 75. 10. W. Lat. 40. 17. N.

(5.) BURLINGTON, the capital of Chittendon county, Vermont. It is beautifully ſituated on Lake Champlain at the confluence of Onion river, and contains about 30 houſes compactly built. A law was paſſed by the legiſlature of Vermont, the 2d of November, 1791, for founding an univerſity in this town. Large ſubſcriptions and donations of land and other property, have been made by individuals, for the purpoſe of erecting convenient buildings, and eſtabliſhing a fund. From the agreeableneſs of the ſituation, and the ſalubrity of the climate, there is little doubt but it will become an inſtitution of much public utility. It is 130 miles N. of Bennington, 320 N. by E. of New-York, and 425 NNE. of Philadelphia. Lon. 1. 53. E. Lat. 44. 30. N. from Philadelphia.

(6.) BURLINGTON. See BRIDLINGTON.

* BURLY. *adj.* [*Junius* has no etymology; *Skinner* imagines it to come from *boorlike*, clownish.] Great of ſtature; great of ſize; bulky; tumid.—Steel, if thou turn thine edge, or cut not out the *burly* boned clown in chines of beef, ere thou ſleep in thy ſheath, I beſeech love, that thou may'ſt be turned into hobnails. *Shakeſpeare.*—It was the orator's own *burly* way of nonſenſe. *Cowley.*—

Away with all your Carthaginian ſtate,
Let vanquiſh'd Hannibal without doors wait,
Too *burly* and too big to paſs my narrow gate.
Dryden.

—Her huſband, being a very *burly* man, ſhe thought it would be leſs trouble for her to bring away little Cupid. *Addiſon.*

BURMAH, an extenſive kingdom of Aſia, E. of the Ganges, ſometimes called AVA, from the name of its capital. It is bounded by Aracan on the W. Upper Siam on the E. and Pegu on the S. and occupies both ſides of the Ava, as far as the frontiers of China. This country produces ſome of the beſt *teek* timber in India. Ships built of teek upwards of 40 years old are common in the Indian ſeas; while a European ſhip is ruined there in 5 years. Burmah has ſeveral valuable mines, and abounds in elephants, horſes, and other animals. The country is fertile, but little known to Europeans.

(1, 2.) BURMAN, Francis, a Proteſtant miniſter, and learned profeſſor of divinity at Utrecht, was born at Leyden in 1628; and died on the 10th of November 1679, after having publiſhed a courſe of divinity, and ſeveral other works. His ſon Francis was alſo an author.

(3.) BURMAN, Peter, profeſſor of hiſtory and eloquence, in the univerſity of Leyden, and rector magnificus of that univerſity. Upon quitting the rectorſhip, in 1720, he delivered an ironical oration "*againſt* the learned languages, hiſtory, eloquence, and criticiſm, as not only *uſeleſs* but *dangerous* to the ſtudies of law, phyſic, philoſophy and divinity, &c. Dr Bentley ſtiles this "a fine oration, all wrote in Lucian's manner." Burman tranſlated Petronius Arbiter and wrote commentaries on that and Phædrus, Lucan, Virgil, Ovid, Juſtin, and other claſſics. He wrote alſo ſeveral other works, which involved him in diſputes with the literati; particularly the learned Le Clerc, whom Burman attacked with great virulence, in his preface to Petronius. Le Clerc in his reply ſaid, "One may ſee that Mr Burman has profited exceedingly from the ſtudy of Petronius; and that he is perfectly free from the hypocriſy of the monks. His delicacy is obſervable in the promiſe he has made the public in the ſame preface; where he ſays, that 'he has a deſign, if God ſhall grant life and ſtrength, not only to publiſh another vol. of the verſes aſcribed to Petronius, but alſo to enrich it with the Catalecta Scaligeri,' &c. that is, (adds Le Clerc,) Mr Burman intends with *God's bleſſing*, not only to publiſh a collection of moſt *bawdy poems*, among which are the *Priapeia*, but alſo to enrich them with a commentary. Theſe things are very unbecoming a profeſſor of a Chriſtian Univerſity,—not to mention his imprudence, at a time when an action was commenced againſt him by a young girl for debauching her." Burman died in 1740.

BURMANNIA, in botany, a genus of the monogynia order, in the hexandria claſs of plants; ranked,

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ranked, in the natural method, under the 10th order, Coronariæ. The flower is small, and consists of three minute, ovated, oblong petals, situated at the mouth of the cup; the fruit is an involuted capsule, of a cylindraceo-trigonal figure, formed of 3 valves, with 3 cells, containing many small seeds. There are two species.

BURMASH, a village in Rumney-marsh, Kent.

BURMINGTON, SE. of Shipton, Warwickshire.

(1.) * BURN. *n. s.* [from the verb.] A hurt caused by fire.—We see the phlegm of vitriol is a very effectual remedy against *burns*. *Boyle*.

(2.) BURN, in surgery. See SURGERY.

(3.) BURN, in the Gaelic language, signifies a rivulet, in which sense it is still used in most parts of Scotland.

(1.) * *To* BURN. *v. a.* preterite and participle *burned*, or *burnt*. [*bernan*, Sax.] 1. To consume with fire.—They *burnt* Jericho with fire. *Joshua*. —The fire *burneth* the wood. *Psalms*.—

Altar of Syrian mode, whereon to *burn*
His odious offerings. *Milton*.

That where she fed his amorous desires
With soft complaints, and felt his hottest fires,
There other flames might waste his earthly part,
And *burn* his limbs where love had burn'd his heart. *Dryden*.

—A fleshy excrescence, becoming exceeding hard, is supposed to demand extirpation, by *burning* away the induration, or amputating. *Sharp's Surgery*. 2. To wound or hurt with fire or heat.—Hand for hand, foot for foot, *burning* for *burning*, wound for wound, stripe for stripe. *Exodus*, xxi. 25. 3. To exert the qualities of heat, as by drying or scorching.—

O that I could but weep, to vent my passion!
But this dry sorrow *burns* up all my tears. *Dryd*.

(2.) * *To* BURN. *v. n.* 1. To be on fire; to be kindled.—A fire devoureth before them, and behind them a flame *burneth*: the land is as the garden of Eden before them, and behind them a desolate wilderness. *Joel*.—The mount *burned* with fire. *Exodus*.—

O coward conscience! how dost thou afflict me?
The light *burns* blue—Is it not dead midnight?
Cold trembling drops stand on my trembling flesh. *Shakespeare*.

2. To shine; to sparkle.—

The barge she sat in, like a burnish'd throne,
Burnt on the water. *Shakes*.
Oh! prince, oh! wherefore *burn* your eyes? and why
Is your sweet temper turn'd to fury? *Rowe*.

3. To be inflamed with passion, or desire.—When I *burnt* in desire to question them farther, they made themselves air, into which they vanished. *Shakespeare*.—

Tranio, I *burn*, I pine, I perish, Tranio,
If I atchieve not this young modest girl. *Shakes*.
In Raleigh mark their every glory mix'd;
Raleigh, the scourge of Spain; whose breast with all
The sage, the patriot, and the hero *burn'd*. *Thomson*.

4. To act with destructive violence, used of the passions.—Shall thy wrath *burn* like fire? *Psalms*.

5. To be in a state of destructive commotion.—

The nations bleed where'er her steps she turns,
The groan still deepens and the combat *burns*. *Pope*.

6. It is used particularly of love.—

She *burns*, she raves, she dies, 'tis true,
But *burns*, and raves, and dies for you. *Addison*.

BURN-ANNE, a rivulet in Ayrshire, which runs into the Irvine.

BURN-BREA. See BELL, N° II.

BURNBY, two villages; 1. in Suffolk, E. of Beccles: 2. in Yorkshire, near Pocklington.

BURNCHURCH, in Kilkenny, Ireland.

BURNEP, in Durham, near Cumberland.

* BURNER. *n. s.* [from *burn*.] A person that burns any thing.

BURNERE, a village in the county of Cornwall, near Padstow Haven.

BURNES, in Cumberland, N. of Keswick.

BURNESS, a parish of Scotland in the isle of Sanday, in Orkney, United to those of Cross and N. Ronaldshay. Its population, as stated by the rev. Mr Clouston in his report to Sir J. Sinclair was 390, in 1791, when there were 211 horses, 236 black cattle, 1100 sheep, and 36 swine in it. See CROSS, N° 5.

(1.) BURNET, Gilbert, bishop of Salisbury in the latter end of the 17th century, was born at Edinburgh, in 1643, of an ancient family in Aberdeenshire. His father being bred to the law, was, at the restoration, appointed one of the lords of session, with the title of *lord Cramond*, in reward for his constant attachment to the royal party during the republic. Our author, the youngest son of his father, was instructed by him in the Latin tongue: at ten years of age he was sent to the university of Aberdeen, and was admitted M. A. before he was 14. His own inclination led him to the study of the civil and feudal law; and he used to say, that from this study he had received more just notions concerning civil society and government, than those which some divines maintain. About a year after, he changed his mind, and began to apply to divinity, to the great satisfaction of his father. He was admitted preacher before he was 18; and Sir Alexander Burnet, his cousin-german, offered him a benefice; which he refused to accept of. In 1663, about two years after the death of his father, he went into England; and after six months stay at Oxford and Cambridge, returned to Scotland; which he left in 1664, to make a tour in Holland and France. At Amsterdam, by the help of a Jewish rabbi, he perfected himself in the Hebrew language; and likewise became acquainted with the leading men of the different persuasions tolerated in that country; as Calvinists, Arminians, Lutherans, Anabaptists, Brownists, Papists, and Unitarians; amongst each of which sects, he used to declare, he met with men of such unfeigned piety and virtue, that he became fixed in a strong principle of universal charity, and an invincible abhorrence of all severities on account of religious opinions. Upon his return from his travels, he was admitted minister of Salton; in which station he served 5 years in the most exemplary manner. He drew up a memorial, in which he took notice of the principal errors in the conduct of the Scots bishops, which he observed not to be conformable

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to

in the primitive inſtitution; and ſent a copy of it to ſeveral of them. This expoſed him to their reſentments: but, to ſhow he was not actuated with a ſpirit of ambition, he led a retired courſe of life for two years; which ſo endangered his health, that he was obliged to abate his exceſſive application to ſtudy. In 1669, he publiſhed his *Modeſt and free conference between a conformiſt and non-conformiſt*. He became acquainted with the ducheſs of Hamilton, who communicated to him all the papers belonging to her father and her uncle; upon which he drew up the *Memoirs of the dukes of Hamilton*. The duke of Lauderdale, hearing he was about this work, invited him to London, and introduced him to king Charles II. He returned to Scotland, and married the lady Margaret Kennedy, daughter of the earl of Caſſillis; a lady of great piety and knowledge, highly eſteemed by the preſbyterins, to whoſe ſentiments ſhe was ſtrongly inclined. As there was ſome diſparity in their ages, that it might remain paſt diſpute that this match was wholly owing to inclination, and not to avarice or ambition, the day before their marriage our author delivered the lady a deed, whereby he renounced all pretenſions to her fortune, which was very conſiderable, and muſt otherwiſe have fallen into his hands, ſhe herſelf having no intention to ſecure it. The ſame year he publiſhed his *Vindication of the authority, conſtitution, and laws of the church and ſtate of Scotland*; which at that juncture was looked upon as ſo great a ſervice, that he was again offered a biſhopric, and a promiſe of the next vacant archbiſhopric; but did not accept of it, becauſe he could not approve of the meaſures of the court, the grand view of which he ſaw to be the advancement of popery. His intimacy with the dukes of Hamilton and Lauderdale occaſioned him to be frequently ſent for by the king and the duke of York, who had converſations with him in private. But Lauderdale conceiving a reſentment againſt him on account of the freedom with which he ſpoke to him, repreſented at laſt to the king, that Dr Burnet was engaged in an oppoſition to his meaſures. Upon his return to London, he perceived that theſe ſuggeſtions had entirely thrown him out of the king's favour, though the duke of York treated him with greater civility than ever, and diſſuaded him from going to Scotland. Upon this, he reſigned his profeſſorſhip at Glaſgow, and ſtaid at London. About this time the living at Cripple-gate being vacant, the dean and chapter of St Paul's (in whoſe gift it was,) hearing of his circumſtances, and the hardſhips he had undergone, ſent him an offer of the benefice; but as he had been informed of their firſt intention of conferring it on Dr Fowler, he generouſly declined it. In 1675, at the recommendation of lord Hollis, whom he had known in France, ambaſſador at that court, he was, by Sir Herbottle Grimſtone, maſter of the rolls, appointed preacher of the chapel there, notwithſtanding the oppoſition of the court. He was ſoon after choſen a lecturer of St Clement's, and became one of the preachers that were moſt followed in town. In 1679, he publiſhed his *Hiſtory of the Reformation*, for which he had the thanks of both houſes of parliament. The firſt part of it was publiſhed in 1679, and the 2d in 1681. Next year he publiſhed an abridgement of theſe two parts. Dr Burnet about this time happened to be ſent for to a woman in ſickneſs, who had been engaged in an amour with the earl of Rocheſter. The manner in which he treated her during her illneſs, gave that lord a great curioſity for being acquainted with him. Whereupon for a whole winter, he ſpent one evening in a week with Dr Burnet, who diſcourſed with him upon all thoſe topics upon which ſceptics and men of looſe morals attack the Chriſtian religion. The happy effect of theſe conferences occaſioned the publication of his account of the life and death of that earl. In 1682, when the adminiſtration was changed in favour of the duke of York, being much reſorted to by perſons of all ranks and parties, in order to avoid returning viſits, he built a laboratory, and went for a year through a courſe of chemical experiments. Not long, after he refuſed a living of 300l. a-year offered him by the earl of Eſſex, on the terms of his not reſiding there, but in London. When the inquiry concerning the popiſh plot was on foot, he was frequently ſent for and conſulted by king Charles, on the ſtate of the nation. The king offered him the biſhopric of Chicheſter, if he would engage in his intereſts; but he refuſed to accept it on theſe terms. He preached at the Rolls till 1684, when he was diſmiſſed by order of the court. About this time he publiſhed ſeveral pieces. On King James's acceſſion, having obtained leave to go out of the kingdom, he firſt went to Paris, and lived in great retirement; till contracting an acquaintance with brigadier Stouppe, a Proteſtant gentleman in the French ſervice, he made a tour with him into Italy. He met with an agreeable reception at Rome. Pope Innocent XI. hearing of our author's arrival, ſent the captain of the Swiſs guards to acquaint him he would give him a private audience in bed, to avoid the ceremony of kiſſing his holineſs's ſlipper. But Dr Burnet excuſed himſelf as well as he could. Some diſputes which our author had here concerning religion, beginning to be taken notice of, made it proper for him to quit the city; which, upon an intimation given him by prince Borgheſe, he accordingly did. He purſued his travels through Switzerland and Germany. In 1688, he came to Utrecht, with an intention to ſettle in one of the ſeven provinces. There he received an invitation from the prince and princeſs of Orange, (to whom their party in England had recommended him,) to come to the Hague, which he accepted. He was ſoon made acquainted with the ſecret of their counſels, and adviſed the fitting out of a fleet in Holland ſufficient to ſupport their deſigns and encourage their friends. This, and the *Account of his Travels*, in which he blends Popery and tyranny together, and repreſents them as inſeparable, with ſome papers reflecting on the proceedings of England, that came out in ſingle ſheets, and were diſperſed in ſeveral parts of England, moſt of which Mr Burnet owned himſelf the author of, alarmed king James; and were the occaſion of his writing twice againſt him to the princeſs of Orange, and inſiſting, by his ambaſſador, on his being forbid the court; which, after much importunity, was done, though he continued to be

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be truſted and employed as before, the Dutch miniſter conſulting him daily. To put an end to theſe frequent conferences with the miniſters, a proſecution for high treaſon was ſet on foot againſt him both in England and Scotland. But Burnet receiving the news thereof before it arrived at the States, he avoided the ſtorm, by petitioning for, and obtaining without any difficulty, a bill of naturalization, in order to his intended marriage with Mary Scot, a Dutch lady of conſiderable fortune, who, with the advantage of birth, had thoſe of a fine perſon and underſtanding. After his marriage with this lady, being legally under the protection of Holland, when Mr Burnet found king James plainly ſubverting the conſtitution, he omitted no method to promote the deſign the prince of Orange had formed of delivering Great Britain, and came over with him in quality of chaplain. He was ſoon advanced to the ſee of Saliſbury. He declared for moderate meaſures with regard to the clergy, who ſcrupled to take the oaths, and many were diſpleaſed with him for declaring for the toleration of non-conformiſts. His *paſtoral letter*, concerning the oaths of allegiance and ſupremacy to king William and queen Mary, 1689, happening to touch upon the right of conqueſt, gave ſuch offence to both houſes of parliament, that it was ordered to be burnt by the hands of the common executioner. In 1698 he loſt his wife by the ſmall-pox; and, as he was almoſt immediately after appointed preceptor to the duke of Glouceſter, of whoſe education he took great care, this employment, and the tender age of his children, induced him the ſame year to ſupply her loſs by a marriage with Mrs Berkley, eldeſt daughter of Sir Richard Blake, knight. In 1699, he publiſhed his Expoſition of the 39 articles; which occaſioned a repreſentation againſt him in the lower houſe of convocation 1701; but he was vindicated in the upper houſe. His ſpeech in the houſe of lords in 1704, againſt the bill to prevent occaſional conformity, was ſeverely attacked. He died in 1715, and was interred in the church of St James, Clerkenwell, where he has a monument erected to him. He formed a ſcheme for augmenting the poor livings; which he preſſed forward with ſuch ſucceſs, that it ended in an act of parliament paſſed in the 2d year of queen Anne, "for the augmentation of the livings of the poor clergy." See AUGMENTATION, § 4.

(2.) BURNET, Thomas, a learned writer in the end of the 17th century, was born in Scotland, but educated in Cambridge under the tuition of Mr Tillotſon, afterwards Abp. of Canterbury. In the beginning of 1685, he was made maſter of Sutton's hoſpital in London, after which he entered into holy orders. During the reign of king James, he made a noble ſtand as maſter of the charter-houſe, againſt the encroachments of that monarch, who would have impoſed one Andrew Popham, a papiſt, as a penſioner upon the foundation of that houſe. In 1680 he publiſhed his *Telluris theoria ſacra*, ſo univerſally admired for the purity of the ſtyle and beauty of the ſentiments, that king Charles gave encouragement to a tranſlation of it into Engliſh. This *Theory* was however attacked by ſeveral writers. In 1692, he publiſhed his *Archæologia philoſophica*, dedicated to king William, to whom he was clerk of the cloſet. He died in 1715. Since his death have been publiſhed, his books *De ſtatu mortuorum et reſurgentium*, and *De fide et officiis Chriſtianorum*.

(3.) BURNET, Thomas, a phyſician of Scotland, of whom nothing is recorded, except what his works ſet forth; viz. that he was "M. D. *Medicus Regius et Collegii Regii Medicorum Edinb. Socius*." Theſe works, however, ſhow his merit and induſtry. They are entitled, *Theſaurus Medicinæ Practicæ*, 4to. Lond. 1673; and *Hippocratis Contractus, in quo Hippocratis omnia in brevem Epitomen redacta habentur*; 8vo. Edin. 1685.

(4.) * BURNET. *n. ſ.* [*pimpinella*, Lat.] The name of a plant.—

The even mead that erſt brought ſweetly forth,
The freckled cowſlip, *burnet* and green clover.
Shakeſpeare.

(5.) BURNET, in botany. See POTERIUM and SANGUISORCA.

(6.) BURNET, in geography, a town in Somerſetſhire, 4 miles W. of Bath.

BURNETA, or BURNETUS, in middle age writers, denotes brown cloth made of dyed wool.

BURNETON-BATTAIL, a village in Northumberland, near Bamburgh Caſtle.

BURNGATE, in Dorſetſhire, 1 m. E. of Lulworth.

BURNHALL, SW. of Durham.

(1.) BURNHAM, a fiſhing town of Eſſex, at the mouth of the river Crouch, which is here called BURNHAM WATER. It is 40 m. E. by N. of London; and has fairs April 25, and Sept. 4.

(2.) BURNHAM, a town in Buckinghamſhire, on the Bath road, near the Thames, 3 miles E. of Maidenhead. It has fairs, Feb. 25, May 1, and Sept. 25.

(3.) BURNHAM, a town on the coaſt of Norfolk, with a harbour. It has a market on Saturday, and fairs March 15, and Aug. 1. On the ſhore, there are many little eminences, ſuppoſed to be the tombs of the Danes and Saxons killed here. It lies 29 miles NW. of Norwich, and 126 NE. of London. Lon. 0. 48 E. Lat. 53. 4. N.

(4.) BURNHAM, a village in Somerſetſhire, near the Star Point in the Channel.

(5.) BURNHAM BOVENEY, and EAST BURNHAM, two villages, near BURNHAM, N° 3.

(6.) BURNHAM-DEEPDALE, in the NW. of Norfolkſhire. It is famous for its ſalt marſhes, on which ſheep thrive well.

(7.) BURNHAM, EAST. See N° 5.

(8.) BURNHAM, NETHER. } Two villages in Axholm iſle, Lincolnſhire.

(9.) BURNHAM, UPPER. }

(10.) BURNHAM WATER. See N° 1. and CROUCH.

BURNHOLM, NORTH, } Two villages in
BURNHOLM, SOUTH, } Yorſh. E. of Pocklington.

(1.) * BURNING. *adj.* [from the participle.] Vehement; powerful.—

Theſe things ſting him
So venemouſly, that *burning* ſhame detains him
From his Cordelia. *Shakeſpeare.*

I had a glimpſe of him; but he ſhot by me
Like a young hound upon a *burning* ſcent.
Dryden.

(2.) * BURNING. *n. ſ.* [from *burn*.] Fire; flame; ſtate

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ſtate of inflammation.—The mind ſurely, of itſelf, can feel none of the *burnings* of a fever. *South.*—

In liquid *burnings*, or on dry to dwell,
Is all the ſaid variety of hell.

(3.) BURNING, conſidered philoſophically, is the action of fire on ſome pabulum or fuel, by which the minute parts thereof are put into a violent motion, and ſome of them aſſuming the nature of fire themſelves, fly off *in orbem*, while the reſt are diſſipated in form of vapour or reduced to aſhes. See IGNITION.

(4.) BURNING, is alſo applied to the action of many ſubſtances, which appear to be cold, or not to contain fire; ſuch as aquafortis, vitriol, &c.

(5.) BURNING, in antiquity, was a method of diſpoſing of the dead much practiſed by the ancient Greeks and Romans, and ſtill retained by ſeveral nations in the Eaſt and Weſt Indies. The antiquity of this cuſtom riſes as high as the Theban war, where we are told of the great ſolemnity accompanying this ceremony at the pyre of Menæacus and Archemorus, who were cotemporary with Jair the 8th judge of Iſrael. Homer abounds with deſcriptions of ſuch funeral obſequies. In the inward regions of Aſia, the practice was of very ancient date, and the continuance long: for we are told, that, in the reign of Julian, the king of Chionia burnt his ſon's body, and depoſited the aſhes in a ſilver urn. Coeval almoſt with the firſt inſtances of this kind in the Eaſt, was the practice in the weſtern parts of the world. The Herulians, the Getes, and the Thracians, had all along obſerved it; and its antiquity was as great with the Celtæ, Sarmatians, and other neighbouring nations. The origin of this cuſtom ſeems to have been out of friendſhip to the deceaſed: their aſhes were preſerved, as we preſerve a lock of hair, a ring, or a ſeal, which had belonged to a deceaſed friend. Kings were burnt in cloth made of the aſbeſtos, that their aſhes might be preſerved pure from any mixture with the fuel and other matters thrown on the funeral pile. The ſame method is ſtill obſerved with the princes of Tartary. Among the Greeks, the body was placed on the top of a pile, on which were thrown divers animals, and even ſlaves and captives, beſides unguents and perfumes. In Homer's account of the funeral of Patroclus we find a number of ſheep and oxen thrown in; then horſes followed by two dogs, and laſtly by 12 Trojan priſoners. The like is mentioned by Virgil in the funeral of his Trojans; where, beſides oxen, ſwine, and all manner of cattle, we find 8 youths condemned to the flames. The body was covered with the fat of the beaſts, that it might conſume the ſooner; it being reckoned great felicity to be quickly reduced to aſhes. For the like reaſon, where numbers were to be burnt at the ſame time, care was taken to mix with the reſt ſome of humid conſtitutions, and therefore more eaſily to be inflamed. Thus we are aſſured by Plutarch and Macrobius, that with every ten men it was cuſtomary to put in one woman. Soldiers uſually had their arms burnt with them. The garments worn by the living were alſo thrown on the pile, with other ornaments and preſents; a piece of extravagance which the Athenians carried to ſo great a height, that ſome of the law-givers reſtrained them, by ſevere penalties, from defrauding the living by their liberality to the dead. In ſome caſes, burning was expreſsly forbid among the Romans, and even looked upon as the higheſt impiety. Thus infants, who died before the breeding of teeth, were intombed unburnt in the ground, in a particular place ſet apart for this purpoſe, called *ſuggrundarium*. The like was practiſed with regard to thoſe ſtruck dead by lightning. Some ſay that burning was denied to ſuicides. The manner of burning among the Romans was not unlike that of the Greeks; the corpſe, being brought out without the city, was carried directly to the place appointed for burning it; which, if it joined to the ſepulchre, was called *buſtum*; if ſeparate from it, *uſtrina*; and there laid on the *rogus* or *pyra*, a pile of wood prepared on which to burn it, built in ſhape of an altar, but of different height according to the quality of the deceaſed. The wood uſed was commonly from ſuch trees as contain moſt pitch or reſin; and if any other were uſed, they ſplit it for the more eaſy catching fire: round the pile they ſet cypreſs trees, probably to hinder the noiſome ſmell of the corpſe. The body was not placed on the bare pile, but on the couch or bed whereon it lay. This done, the next of blood performed the ceremony of lighting the pile; which they did with a torch, turning their faces all the while the other way, as if it were done with reluctance. During the ceremony, decurſions and games were celebrated; after which came the OSSILEGIUM, or gathering of the bones and aſhes; alſo waſhing and anointing them, and repoſiting them in urns.

(6.) BURNING, in medicine and ſurgery, denotes the application of an actual cautery, that is a red hot iron inſtrument, to the part affected: otherwiſe denominated *cauterization*.—The whole art of phyſic among the Japaneſe lies in the choice of places proper to be burnt; which are varied according to the diſeaſe. In the country of the Mogul, the colic is cured by an iron ring applied red-hot about the patient's navel. Certain it is that ſome very extraordinary cures have been performed accidentally by burning. See § 8.

(7.) BURNING, or BRENNING, in our old writings, denotes an infectious diſeaſe, got in the ſtews by converſing with lewd women, and ſuppoſed to be the ſame with what we now call the *venereal diſeaſe*. In a MS. of the vocation of John Bale to the biſhopric of Oſſory, written by himſelf, he ſpeaks of Dr Hugh Weſton, who was dean of Windſor in 1556, but deprived by cardinal Pole for adultery, thus: "At this day is leacherous Weſton, who is more practiſed in the arts of breech-burning, than all the whores of the ſtews. He not long ago brent a beggar of St Botolph's pariſh." See STEWS.

(8.) BURNING, ACCIDENTAL CURES BY. The following caſe is recorded in the Memoirs of the Academy of ſciences by M. Homberg. A woman of about 35 became ſubject to a headach, which at times was ſo violent, that it drove her out of her ſenſes, making her ſometimes ſtupid and fooliſh, at other times raving and furious. The ſeat of the pain was in the forehead, and over the eyes which were inflamed, and looked violently red and ſparkling; and the moſt violent fits of it were

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attended with nauſea and vomiting. In the time of the fits, ſhe could take no food; but, at all other times, had a very good ſtomach. M. Homberg had in vain attempted her cure for 3 years with all kind of medicines: only opium ſucceeded; and that but little, all its effect being only to take of the pain for a few hours. The redneſs of her eyes was always the ſign of an approaching fit. One night, feeling a fit coming on, ſhe went to lie down upon the bed; but firſt walked up to the glaſs with the candle in her hand, to ſee how her eyes looked: in obſerving this, the candle ſet fire to her cap: and as ſhe was alone, her head was terribly burnt before the fire could be extinguiſhed. M. Homberg was ſent for, and ordered bleeding and proper dreſſings: but the expected fit this night never came on; the pain of the burning wore off by degrees; and the patient found herſelf from that hour cured of the head-ach, which had never once returned in 4 years after, which was the time when the account was communicated.—Another caſe, not leſs remarkable was communicated to M. Homberg by a phyſician at Bruges. A woman, who for ſeveral years had her legs and thighs ſwelled in an extraordinary manner, found ſome relief from rubbing them before the fire with brandy every morning and evening. One evening the brandy ſhe had rubbed herſelf with, took fire and ſlightly burnt her. She applied ſome brandy to her burn; and in the night all the water, her legs and thighs were ſwelled with, was entirely diſcharged by urine, and the ſwelling did not again return.

(9.) BURNING ALIVE, among the Romans, a puniſhment inflicted on deſerters, betrayers of the public councils, incendiaries, comers, and even Chriſtians: It was called CREMATIO. The Jews had two ways of burning; the one called burning of the body, performed with wood and faggots; the other burning of the ſoul, *combuſtio animæ*, performed by pouring ſcalding hot lead down their throats. Inceſt in the aſcending and deſcending degrees was thus puniſhed by them. But philanthropy is ſhocked to reflect, for what trifling crimes this horrid puniſhment has been inflicted among other nations. Even in our own country, till within theſe 7 or 8 years, *burning alive* was the puniſhment of *women*, convicted of coining or counterfeiting *ſhillings!* Thus was the weaker ſex puniſhed in the moſt barbarous manner, for a trifling felony, which could hardly wrong any individual above the value of a few pence!

(10.) BURNING BUSH. See BUSH, N° 6.

(11.) BURNING, EXTRAORDINARY CASES OF INTERNAL. We have inſtances of perſons burnt by a fire kindled within their own bodies. A woman at Paris, who uſed to drink brandy to exceſs, was one night reduced to aſhes by a fire from within, all but her head and the ends of her fingers. Signora Cornelia Zangari, or, as others call her, *Corn. Bandi*, an aged lady, of an unblemiſhed life, near Ceſena in Romagna, underwent the ſame fate in March 1731. She had retired in the evening into her chamber ſomewhat indiſpoſed; and in the morning was found in the middle of the room reduced to aſhes, all except her face, legs, ſkull, and three fingers. The ſtockings and ſhoes ſhe had on were not burnt in the leaſt. The aſhes were light; and on preſſing between the fingers, vaniſhed, leaving behind a groſs ſtinking moiſture with which the floor was ſmeared; the walls and furniture of the room being covered with a moiſt cineritious ſoot, which had not only ſtained the linen in the cheſts, but had penetrated into the cloſet, as well as into the room overhead, the walls of which were moiſtened with the ſame viſcous humour. We have various other relations of perſons burnt to death in this unaccountable manner. Sig. Mondini, Bianchini, and Maſſei, have written treatiſes expreſs to account for the cauſe of ſo extraordinary an event: common fire it could not be, ſince this would likewiſe have burnt the bed and the room; beſides that it would have required many hours, and a vaſt quantity of fuel, to reduce a human body to aſhes; and, after all, a conſiderable part of the bones would have remained entire, as they were anciently found after the fierceſt funeral fires. Some attribute the effect to a mine of ſulphur under the houſe; others to a miracle; while others ſuſpect that art or villany had a hand in it. A philoſopher of Verona maintains, that ſuch a conflagration might have ariſen from the inflammable matters wherewith the human body naturally abounds. Sig. Bianchini accounts for the conflagration of the lady above mentioned, from her uſing a bath or lotion of camphorated ſpirit of wine when ſhe found herſelf out of order. Maſſei ſuppoſes it owing to lightning generated in her own body, agreeable to his own doctrine, which is, That lightning does not proceed from the clouds, but is always produced in the place where it is ſeen and its effects perceived. We have had a late attempt to eſtabliſh the opinion, that theſe deſtroying internal fires are cauſed in the entrails of the body by inflamed effluvia of the blood; by juices and fermentation in the ſtomach; by the many combuſtible matters which abound in living bodies for the purpoſes of life: and, finally, by the fiery evaporations which exhale from the ſettlings of ſpirit of wine, brandies, and other hot liquors, in the tunica villoſa of the ſtomach and other adipoſe or fat membranes; within which thoſe ſpirits engender a kind of camphor, which in the night-time, in ſleep, by a full reſpiration, are put in a ſtronger motion, and are more apt to be ſet on fire. Others aſcribe the cauſe of ſuch perſons being ſet on fire to lightning; and their burning ſo entirely, to the greater quantity of phoſphorus and other combuſtible matter they contained. We can by no means pretend to explain the cauſe of ſuch phenomena: but for the intereſts of humanity we wiſh it could be derived from ſomething external to the human body; for if, to the calamities of human life already known, we ſuperadd a ſuſpicion, that we may unexpectedly and without the leaſt warning be conſumed by an *internal* fire, the thought is too dreadful to be born.

(12.) * BURNING-GLASS. *n. ſ.* [from *burning* and *glaſs*.] A glaſs which collects the rays of the ſun into a narrow compaſs, and ſo increaſes their force. —The appetite of her eye did ſeem to ſcorch me up like a *burning-glaſs*. *Shakeſpeare.*—Love is of the nature of a *burning-glaſs*, which, kept ſtill in one place, fireth; changed often, it doth nothing. *Suckling.*—

O dia-

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O diadem, thou centre of ambition,
Where all its different climes are reconciled,
As if thou wert the *burning glaſs* of glory!
Dryden.

(13.) BURNING GLASSES are made convex and commonly ſpherical. The ſmall ſpace upon which the collected rays fall, is called the *focus*; where wood, or any other combuſtible matter being put, will be ſet on fire. The term *burning glaſs* is alſo applied to thoſe concave mirrors, whether compoſed of glaſs quick-ſilvered, or of metalline matters, which burn by reflection, condenſing the ſun's rays into a focus ſimilar to the former. See § 15, 16.

(14.) BURNING GLASSES, ANCIENT. The uſe of burning glaſſes appears to have been very ancient. Diodorus Siculus, Lucian, Dion, Zonaras, Galen, Anthemius, Euſtathius, Tzetzes, and others, atteſt, that by means of them Archimedes ſet fire to the Roman fleet at the ſiege of Syracuſe. Tzetzes is ſo particular in his account of this matter, that his deſcription ſuggeſted to Kercher the method by which it was probably accompliſhed. That author ſays, that "Archimedes ſet fire to Marcellus's navy, by means of a burning glaſs compoſed of ſmall ſquare mirrors, moving every way upon hinges; which, when placed in the ſun's rays, directed them upon the Roman fleet, ſo as to reduce it to aſhes at the diſtance of a bow-ſhot." A very particular teſtimony we have alſo from Anthemius of Lydia, who takes pains to prove the poſſibility of ſetting fire to a fleet, or any other combuſtible body, at ſuch a diſtance. That the ancients were alſo acquainted with the uſe of catoptric or refracting burning glaſſes, appears from a paſſage in Ariſtophanes's comedy of the clouds, which clearly treats of their effects. The author introduces Socrates as examining Strepſiades about the method he had diſcovered of getting clear of his debts. He replies, that "he thought of making uſe of a burning glaſs which he had hitherto uſed in kindling his fire; for" ſays he "ſhould they bring a writ againſt me, I'll immediately place my glaſs in the ſun at ſome little diſtance from it, and ſet it on fire." Pliny and Lactantius have alſo ſpoken of glaſſes that burn by refraction. The former calls them *balls* or *globes of glaſs* or *cryſtal*, which, expoſed to the ſun, tranſmit a heat ſufficient to ſet fire to cloth, or corrode the dead fleſh of thoſe patients who ſtand in need of cauſtics; and the latter, after Clemens Alexandrinus, takes notice that fire may be kindled by interpoſing glaſſes filled with water between the ſun and the object, ſo as to tranſmit the rays to it. It ſeems difficult to conceive how they ſhould know ſuch glaſſes would burn without knowing they would magnify, which it is granted they did not, till towards the cloſe of the 13th century, when ſpectacles were firſt thought on. For as to thoſe paſſages in Plautus which ſeem to intimate the knowledge of ſpectacles, M. de la Hire obſerves, they do not prove any ſuch thing; and he ſolves this, by obſerving, that their burning glaſſes being ſpheres, either ſolid or full of water, their foci would be one fourth of their diameter diſtant from them. If then their diameter were ſuppoſed half a foot, which is the moſt we can allow, an object muſt be only at an inch and a half diſtance to perceive it magnified; thoſe at greater diſtances do not appear greater, but only more confuſed through the glaſs than out of it. It is no wonder, therefore, the magnifying property of convex glaſſes was unknown, and the burning one known. It is more wonderful that there ſhould have been 300 years between the invention of ſpectacles and teleſcopes. Among the ancients, the burning mirrors of Archimedes (§ 16.) and Proclus are famous. By the latter the navy of Vitellius beſieging Byzantium, according to Zonaras, was burnt to aſhes.

(15.) BURNING GLASSES, MODERN. Among the moderns, the moſt remarkable burning mirrors are thoſe of Settala, Vilette, Tſchirnhauſen, Buffon, Trudaine, and Parker. Settala, canon of Padua, made a parabolic mirror, which, according to Schottus, burnt pieces of wood at the diſtance of 15 or 16 paces. The following things are noted of it in the *Acta Eruditorum*. 1. Green wood takes fire inſtantaneouſly, ſo as a ſtrong wind cannot extinguiſh it. 2. Water boils immediately; and eggs in it are preſently edible. 3. A mixture of tin and lead, three inches thick, drops preſently; and iron and ſteel plate becomes red-hot preſently, and a little after burns into holes. 4. Things not capable of melting, as ſtones, bricks, &c. become ſoon red-hot, like iron. 5. Slate becomes firſt white, then a black glaſs. 6. Tiles are converted into a yellow glaſs: and ſhells into a blackiſh yellow one. 7. A pumice ſtone, emitted from a volcano, melts into white glaſs. 8. A piece of crucible alſo vitrifies in 8 minutes. 9. Bones are ſoon turned into an opaque glaſs, and earth into a black one. The breadth of this mirror is near 3 Leipſic ells, its focus 2 ells from it; it is made of copper, and its ſubſtance is not above double the thickneſs of the back of a knife. Villette, a French artiſt of Lyons, made a large mirror, which was bought by Tavernier, and preſented to the king of Perſia; a 2d bought by the king of Denmark; a 3d preſented by the French king to the royal academy; a 4th has been in England, where it was publicly expoſed. The effects hereof, as found by Dr Harris and Dr Deſaguliers, are, that a ſilver ſix pence is melted in 7″ and ½, a halfpenny in 16″, and runs with a hole in 34″. Tin melts in 3″, caſt iron in 16″, ſlate in 3″; a foſſil ſhell calcines in 7″; a piece of Pompey's pillar at Alexandria vitrifies the black part in 50″ the white in 54″; copper ore in 8″; bone calcines in 4″, vitrifies in 33″. An emerald melts into a ſubſtance like a torquois ſtone; a diamond weighing 4 grains loſes ſeven 8ths of its weight: the aſbeſtos vitrifies; as all other bodies will do, if kept long enough in the focus; but when once vitrified, the mirror can go no farther with them. This mirror is 47 inches wide, and is ground to a ſphere of 76 inches radius; ſo that its focus is about 38 inches from the vertex. Its ſubſtance is a compoſition of tin, copper, and tin glaſs. Every lens, whether convex, plano-convex, or convexo-convex, collects the ſun's rays, diſperſed over its convexity, into a point by refraction: and is therefore a burning glaſs. The moſt conſiderable of this kind is that made by M. de Tchirnhauſen: the diameters of his lenſes are 3 and 4 feet, the focus

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focus at the distance of 12 feet, and its diameter an inch and a half. To make the focus the more vivid, it is collected a second time by a second lens parallel to the first, and placed in that point where the diameter of the cone of rays formed by the first lens is equal to the diameter of the second; so that it receives them all; and the focus, from an inch and a half, is contracted into the space of 8 lines, and its force increased proportionably. This glass vitrifies tiles, slates, pumice-stones, &c. in a moment. It melts sulphur, pitch, and all rosins, under water; the ashes of vegetables, woods, and other matters, are transmuted into glass; and every thing applied to its focus is either melted, turned into a calx, or into smoke. Tschirnhausen observes, that it succeeds best when the matter applied is laid on a hard charcoal well burnt. Sir Isaac Newton presented a burning-glass to the royal society, consisting of 7 concave glasses, so placed, as that all their foci join in one physical point. Each glass is about 11 inches and a half in diameter: six of them are placed round the seventh, to which they are all contiguous; and they form a kind of segment of a sphere, whose subtense is about 34 inches and a half, and the central glass lies about an inch farther in than the rest. The common focus is about 22 inches and a half distant, and about an inch in diameter. This glass vitrifies brick or tile in 1", and melts gold in 30". It appears that glass quicksilvered is a more proper material for burning glasses than metals; for the effects of that speculum wherewith Mr Macquer melted the platina, seem to have been superior to those above mentioned, though the mirror itself was much smaller. The diameter of this glass was only 22 inches, and its focal distance 28. Black flint, when exposed to the focus, being powdered to prevent its crackling and flying about, and secured in a large piece of charcoal, bubbled up and ran into transparent glass in less than half a minute. Hessian crucibles, and glass-house pots, vitrified completely in 3 or 4 seconds. Forged iron smoked, boiled, and changed into a vitrescent scoria as soon as it was exposed to the focus. The gypsum of Montmartre, when the flat sides of the plates or leaves, of which it is composed, were presented to the glass, did not show the least disposition to melt; but, on presenting a transverse section of it, or the edges of the plates, it melted in an instant, with a hissing noise, into a brownish yellow matter. Calcareous stones did not completely melt: but there was detached from them a circle more compact than the rest of the mass, and of the size of the focus; the separation of which seemed to be occasioned by the shrinking of the matter which had begun to enter into fusion. The white calx of antimony, commonly called *diaphoretic antimony*, melted better than the calcareous stones, and changed into an opaque pretty glossy substance like white enamel. It was observed, that the whiteness of the calcareous stones and the antimonial calx was of great disadvantage to their fusion, by reason of their reflecting great part of the sun's rays; so that the subject could not undergo the full activity of the heat thrown upon it by the burning glass. The case was the same with metallic bodies, which melted so much the more difficultly as they were more white and polished; and this difference was so remarkable, that in the focus of this mirror, so fusible a metal as silver, when its surface was polished, did not melt at all. M. Trudaine, a French gentlemen, constructed a burning lens on a new principle. It was composed of two circular segments of glass spears, each 4 feet in diameter, applied with their concave sides towards each other. The cavity was filled with spirit of wine, of which it contained 40 pints. It was presented by the maker to the royal academy of sciences, but was, not long after, broken by accident. The expence of constructing it amounted to about 1000l. sterling. After all, it does not appear that the effects of this lens were very great. Mr Magellan informs us, that it could only coagulate the particles of platina in 20 minutes, while Mr Parker's lens entirely melted them in less than two. See § 17.

(16.) BURNING GLASSES OF M. BUFFON. *Pl.* XLV. *Fig.* 5. represents M. BUFFON's burning mirror, which he with great reason supposes to be of the same nature with that of Archimedes. It consists of a number of small mirrors of glass quicksilvered, all of which are held together by an iron frame. Each of these small mirrors is also moveable by a contrivance on the back part of the frame, that so their reflections may all coincide in one point. By this means they are capable of being accommodated to various heights of the sun, and to different distances. The adjusting them in this manner takes up a considerable time; but after they are so adjusted, the focus will continue unaltered for an hour or more. In 1747 he constructed a machine of this kind, with 140 plain mirrors; each about 4 inches long, and 3 broad; these were fixed about a quarter of an inch distant from each other, upon a large wooden frame, of about 6 feet square. The experiment was first tried with 24 mirrors, which readily set on fire a combustible matter, prepared of pitch and tow, and laid on a deal board, at the distance of 66 French feet. He then put together a kind of polyhedron, consisting of 168 pieces of plain looking glass, each being 6 inches square; and by means of this some boards of beech were set on fire, at the distance of 150 feet, in the month of March, and a silver plate was melted at the distance of 60 feet. This machine, besides other advantages, may be easily moved, so as to burn downwards or horizontally; and it burns either in its distant focus, or in any nearer interval, which our common burning glasses cannot do, because their focus is wholly fixed. This machine, in the next stage of its improvement, contained 360 plain mirrors, each 8 inches long, and 6 broad, mounted on a frame 8 feet high, and 7 broad. With 12 of these mirrors, light combustible matters were kindled at the distance of 20 feet; at the same distance, a large tin vessel was melted with 45 of them, and a thin piece of silver with 117. When the whole machine was employed, all the metals and metallic minerals were melted at the distance of 25, and even of 40 feet. Wood was kindled in a clear sky, at the distance of 210 feet. The focus, at the distance of 50 feet, is about 7 inches broad; and at the distance of 240 feet, it becomes 2 feet in diameter. Buffon afterwards constructed a machine

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Fig. 1.
Elevation.

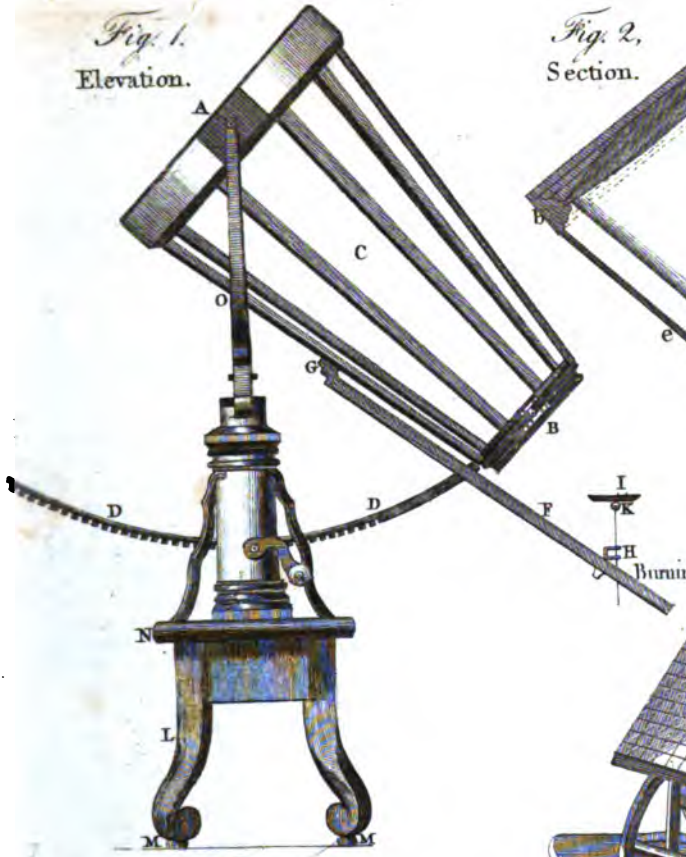

Fig. 2,
Section.

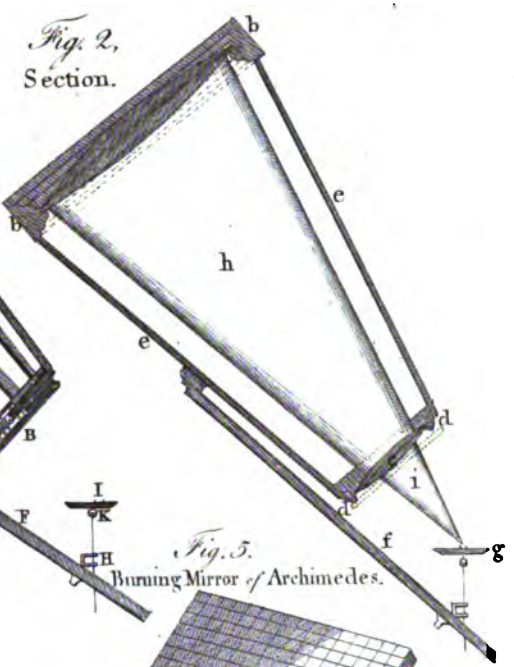

Fig. 5.
Burning Mirror of Archimedes.

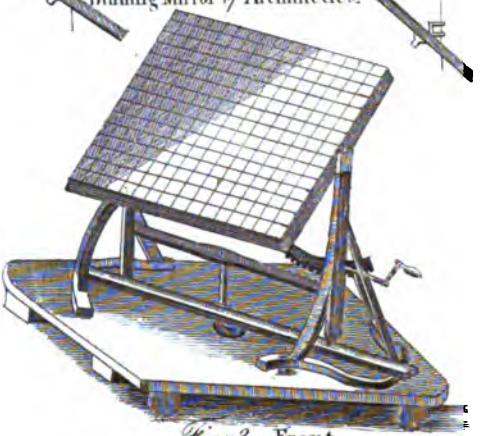

Fig. 4.
Burning Mirror.

Fig. 3, Front.

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a machine which contained 400 mirrors, each half a foot square, with which he could melt lead and tin at the distance of 140 feet. *Fig.* 4. represents a contrivance of M. Buffon's for diminishing the thickness of very large refracting lenses. He observes, that in large lenses of this kind, which are most convenient for many purposes, the thickness of the glass in the middle is so great, as very much to diminish their force. For this reason he proposes to form a burning glass of concentric or circular pieces of glass, each resting upon the other, as represented in the figure. His method is to divide the convex arch of the lens into 3 equal parts. Thus, suppose the diameter to be 26 inches, and the thickness in the middle to be 3 inches: By dividing the lens into 3 concentric circles, and laying the one over the other, the thickness of the middle piece needs be only one inch; at the same time that the lens will have the same convexity, and almost the same focal distance, as in the other cases; while the effects of it must be much greater, on account of the greater thinness of the glass.

(17.) BURNING GLASS OF MR PARKER. A large burning lens for the purpose of fusing and vitrifying such substances as resist the fires of ordinary furnaces, and especially for the application of heat in vacuo, and in other circumstances in which heat cannot be applied by any other means, has long been a desideratum among persons concerned in philosophical experiments: And it appears now to be in a great degree accomplished by Mr PARKER. His lens is 3 feet in diameter, made of flint glass, and, which, when fixed in its frame, exposes a surface 2 feet 8¼ inches in the clear. In the ELEVATION represented on *Plate* XLV, *fig.* 1. A is the lens of the diameter mentioned: thickness in the centre, 3¼ inches: weight 212 pounds: length of the focus, 6 feet 8 inches; diameter of ditto, 1 inch. B, a second lens, whose diameter in the frame is 16 inches, and shows in the clear 13 inches: thickness in the centre, 1⅛ inches; weight 21 pounds: length of focus 29 inches: diameter of ditto, ⅜ of an inch. When the two above lenses are compounded together, the length of the focus is 5 feet 3 inches: diameter of ditto, half an inch. C, a truncated cone, composed of 21 ribs of wood: at the larger end is fixed the great lens A, at the smaller extremity the lesser lens B: near the smaller end is also fixed a rack, D, passing through the pillar L, moveable by a pinion turning in the said pillar, by means of the handle E, and thus giving a vertical motion to the machine. F, a bar of wood, fixed between the two lower ribs of the cone at G; having, within a chaced mortice in which it moves, an apparatus H, with the iron plate, I, fixed thereto; and this part turning on a ball and socket, K, a method is thereby obtained of placing the matter under experiment, so as to be acted upon by the focal rays in the most direct and powerful manner. LL, a strong mahogany frame, moving on castors, MM. Immediately under the table N are three friction wheels, by which the machine moves horizontally. O, a strong iron bow, in which the lens and the cone hang. SECTION. *Fig.* 2. a, The great lens marked A in the elevation. b, The frame which contains the lens. c, The small lens marked B. d, The frame which contains the small lens. e, The truncated cone, marked C. f, the bar on which the apparatus marked F moves. g, The iron plate marked I. h, The cone of rays formed by the refraction of the great lens a, and falling on the lens c. i, The cone of rays formed by the refraction of the lens c. FRONT VIEW. *Fig.* 3. k, The great lens. l, The frame containing it. m, The strong iron bow in which it hangs. From a great number of experiments made with this lens, in the presence of many scientific persons, the following are selected as specimens of its powers.

Substances fused, with their weight and time of fusion.	*Weight in Grains.*	*Time in Seconds.*
Gold, pure,	20	4
Silver, do.	20	3
Copper, do.	33	20
Platina, do.	10	3
Nickell,	16	3
Bar iron, a cube,	10	12
Cast iron, a cube,	10	3
Steel, a cube,	10	12
Scoria of wrought iron,	12	2
Kearsh,	10	3
Cauk, or terra ponderosa,	10	7
A topaz, or chrysolite,	3	45
An oriental emerald,	2	25
Crystal pebble,	7	6
White agate,	10	30
Flint oriental,	10	30
Rough cornelian,	10	75
Jasper,	10	25
Onyx,	10	20
Garnet,	10	17
White Rhomboidal spar,	10	60
Zeolites,	10	23
Rotten stone,	10	80
Common slate,	10	2
Asbestos,	10	10
Common lime-stone,	10	55
Pumice stone,	10	24
Lava,	10	7
Volcanic clay,	10	60
Cornish moor-stone,	10	60

(18.) BURNING LENS. See § 15, 17.

(19.) BURNING MIRRORS. See § 13—16.

(20.) BURNING MOUNTAINS. See ÆTNA, ERNA, HECLA, VESUVIUS, and VOLCANO, with the plates accompanying them.

(21.) BURNING OF COLOURS, among painters. There are several colours that require burning; as, 1. Lamp-black, which is a colour of so greasy a nature, that, except it is burnt, it will require a long time to dry. The method of burning, or rather drying, lamp-black, is as follows; Put it into a crucible over a clear fire, letting it remain till it be red hot, or so near it that there is no manner of smoke arises from it. 2. Umber, which if it be intended for colour for a horse, or to be a shadow for gold, then burning fits it for both purposes. In order to burn umber, you must put it into the naked fire, in large lumps, and not take it out till it is thoroughly red hot; if you have a mind to be more curious, put it into a crucible, and keep it over the fire till it be red hot. 3. Ivory also must be burnt to make black, thus: Fill two crucibles with shavings of ivory, then clap their two mouths together, and bind them fast with an iron wire, and

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and lute the joints close with clay, salt, and horse dung, well beaten together; then set it over the fire, covering it all over with coals: let it remain in the fire till the matter inclosed is thoroughly red hot: then take it out, but do not open the crucibles till they are perfectly cold; for were they opened while hot, the matter would turn to ashes; as it will still do, if the joints are not luted close.

(22.) BURNING OF LAND, called also DENSHIRING, from Devonshire, a county in which it has been long practised, is a method of preparing and fertilizing barren, sour, heathy, or rushy lands, for corn or pasture; by paring off the turf, and burning it on the ground.

(23.) BURNING OF METALS is either performed by fire, or by corrosive salts; which last method is also denominated CÆMENTATION. The first preparation of most ores is by burning, to dispose them for fusion. This is usually performed by exposing them, without addition, to the naked fire; sometimes fixed alkalis and absorbents are added, to hinder the avolation of the metalline particles. The baser metals, tin and lead, may be burnt like plants to ashes.

(24.) BURNING PLANT. See EUPHORBIA.

(25.) BURNING SPRINGS. Of these there are many in different parts of the world; particularly one in France in the department of Isere, near Grenoble; another near Hermanstadt in Transylvania; a 3d at Chermay, a village near Switzerland; a 4th in the canton of Friburg; and a 5th not far from the city of Cracow in Poland. There also is, or was, a famous spring of this kind at Wigan in Lancashire, which, upon the approach of a lighted candle, would take fire and burn like spirit of wine for a whole day. But the most remarkable one, or at least that of which he have the minutest description, was discovered in 1711, at Brosely in Shropshire. The following account of this remarkable spring was given by the rev. Mr Mason Woodwardin, professor at Cambridge, dated Feb. 18th 1746. "The well for 4 or 5 feet deep is 6 or 7 feet wide; within that is another less hole of like depth dug in the clay, in the bottom whereof is placed a cylindric earthen vessel, of about 4 or 5 inches diameter at the mouth, having the bottom taken off, and the sides well fixed in the clay rammed close about it. Within the pot is a brown water, thick as puddle, continually forced up with a violent motion beyond that of boiling water, and a rumbling hollow noise, rising or falling by fits 5 or 6 inches; but there was no appearance of any vapour rising, which perhaps might have been visible, had not the sun shone so bright. Upon putting a candle down at the end of a stick, at about a quarter of a yard distance, it took fire, darting and flashing after a very violent manner for about half a hard high, much in the manner of spirits in a lamp, but with great agitation. It was said, that a tea-kettle had been made to boil in about 9 minutes, and that it had been left burning for 48 hours without any sensible diminution. It was extinguished by putting a wet mop upon it; which must be kept there for a little time, otherwise it would not go out. Upon the removal of the mop there arises a sulphureous smoke lasting about a minute, and yet the water is very cold to the touch." In 1755, this well totally disappeared by the sinking of a coal-pit in its neighbourhood. The cause of the inflammable property of such waters, is with great probability supposed to be their mixture with petroleum, which is one of the most inflammable substances in nature, and has the property of burning on the surface of water.

(26.) BURNING WELL. See ANCLIFF.

BURNINGHAM, a village in Suffolk, 4 miles NE. of Holt.

(1.) * *To* BURNISH. *v. a.* [*burner*, Fr.] To polish; to give a gloss to.—

Mislike me not for my complexion,
The shadow'd livery of the *burnish'd* sun,
To whom I am a neighbour, and near bred.
Shakespeare.

—Make a plate of them, and *burnish* it as they do iron. *Bacon.*

The frame of *burnish'd* steel, that cast a glare
From far, and seem'd to thaw the freezing air.
Dryden.

(2.) * *To* BURNISH. *v. n.* To grow bright or glossy.—

I've seen a snake in human form,
All stain'd with infamy and vice,
Leap from the dunghill in a trice,
Burnish, and make a gawdy show,
Become a gen'ral, peer, and beau. *Swift.*

(3.) * *To* BURNISH. *v. n.* [of uncertain etymology.] To grow; to spread out.—

This they could do, while Saturn fill'd the throne,
Ere Juno *burnish'd*, or young Jove was grown.
Dryden.

To shoot, and spread, and *burnish* into man.
Dryden.

—Mrs Primley's great belly she may lace down before, but it *burnishes* on her hips. *Congreve.*

(1.) * BURNISHER. *n. s.* [from *burnish.*] 1. The person that burnishes or polishes. 2. The tool with which bookbinders give a gloss to the leaves of books: it is commonly a dog's tooth set in a stick.

(2.) BURNISHERS, for gold and silver, were formerly made of the teeth of dogs or wolves, set in the end of iron or wooden handles; but for a long time past, agates have been introduced and are found preferable. In most cases polished steel answers equally well, as it gives a very good lustre. These are of different forms; straight, crooked, &c. The steel burnishers used by engravers in copper are formed to serve with one end to burnish, and with the other to scrape out errors or scratches.

BURNISHING, the art of smoothing or polishing a metalline body, by a brisk rubbing of it with a burnisher. Book-binders burnish the edges of their books, by rubbing them with a dog's tooth.

BURNISTON, 2 villages in Yorkshire, viz. 1. between Bedal and Thirsk: 2. N. of Scarsdale.

BURNLEY, a town of Lancashire, in a healthy situation, 35 m. SE. of Lancaster, and 208 NNW. of London. It has a market on Saturday and fairs March 6, Easter eve, May 13, July 10, and Oct. 11. Lon. 2. 15. W. Lat. 53. 46. N.

BURNS, Robert, the latest and one of the most eminent of our modern Scots poets, was born in Ayrshire. Of this extraordinary genius, we have not met with a better account than the following,

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drawn up by Mr Reid, bookſeller in Glaſgow, "Robert Burns was literally a ploughman, but neither in that ſtate of ſervile dependence nor degrading ignorance, which the ſituation might beſpeak in this country. He had the common education of a Scotch peaſant, perhaps ſomething more, and that ſpirit of independence, which is ſometimes to be found, in a high degree, in the humbleſt claſſes of ſociety. He had genius ſtarting beyond the obſtacles of poverty, and which would have diſtinguiſhed itſelf in any ſituation. His early days were occupied in procuring bread by the labour of his own hands, in the honourable taſk of cultivating the earth, but his nights were devoted to books and the Muſe, except when they were waſted in thoſe haunts of village feſtivity, and in the indulgences of the ſocial bowl, to which the poet was but too immoderately attached in every period of his life. He wrote not with a view to encounter the public eye, or in the hope to procure fame by his productions, but to give vent to the feelings of his own genius—to indulge the impulſe of an ardent and poetical mind. Burns, from ambition, or from that reſtleſs activity, which is the peculiar characteriſtic of his countrymen, propoſed to emigrate to Jamaica, in order to ſeek his fortune, by the exertion of thoſe talents of which he felt himſelf poſſeſſed. It was upon this occaſion, that one of his friends ſuggeſted to him the idea of publiſhing his poems, in order to raiſe a few pounds to defray the expence of his paſſage. This idea was eagerly embraced." A cheap edition of his poems was firſt publiſhed at Kilmarnock. They were ſoon noticed by the gentlemen in the neighbourhood. Proofs of ſuch uncommon genius, in a ſituation ſo humble, made the acquaintance of the author eagerly ſought after. His poems reaching Edinburgh, ſome extracts, and an account of the author, were inſerted in the periodical paper, *The Lounger*, which was at that time in the courſe of publication. The voyage of the author was delayed, in the hope that a ſuitable proviſion would be made for him by the generoſity of the public. A ſubſcription was ſet on foot for a new edition of his works, and was forwarded by the exertions of ſome of the firſt characters in Scotland. The ſubſcription liſt contains a greater number of reſpectable names than almoſt have ever appeared to any ſimilar production; but as the book was ſet at a low price, we have reaſon to know that the return to the author was not very conſiderable. Burns was brought to Edinburgh; for a few months every where invited and careſſed, and at laſt one of his patrons procured him the ſituation of an exciſeman, with an income ſomewhat leſs than L. 50 per annum. We believe, that no ſteps were taken to better this humble income, and he was ſoon diſguſted with his ſituation. His talents were often obſcured, and finally impaired by exceſs, and his private circumſtances were imbittered by pecuniary diſtreſs. With regard to his poems, it has been juſtly obſerved, without the apologies ariſing from his ſituation in life, that they are fully entitled to command our feelings, and to obtain our applauſe. Some of his productions, eſpecially thoſe of the grave ſtyle, poſſeſs a high tone of feeling, a power and energy of expreſſion, particularly and ſtrongly characteriſtic of the mind and the voice of a poet. Of the ſolemn and ſublime, the poems entitled *The Viſion*, *Deſpondency*, *The Lament*, *Winter* a Dirge, and the *Invocation to Ruin*, afford ſtriking examples. Of the tender and the moral, many advantageous ſpecimens may be found, in the Elegiac Verſes, entitled *Man was made to mourn*, in *The Cottar's Saturday night*, the Stanzas *to a Mouſe*, and thoſe to a *Mountain Daiſy*. There is ſcarcely an image more truly paſtoral than that of the *Lark*, in the ſecond ſtanza of the laſt mentioned poem. It is one of thoſe ſtrokes that mark the pencil of the poet, which delineates nature with the delicate colouring of beauty and of taſte. Againſt ſome paſſages of his poems it has been objected, that they breathe a ſpirit of libertiniſm and irreligion. But it ought to be conſidered, that he attacks only the ignorance and fanaticiſm of the lower claſs of people, a fanaticiſm of that pernicious ſort which ſets *faith* in oppoſition to *good works*. Of religion, he expreſſes, in ſeveral places, the juſteſt ſentiments, though he has been ſometimes ſufficiently open in his ridicule of hypocriſy. Such, we believe, is the faithful portrait of a man, who, in his compoſitions, has diſcovered the force of native humour, the warmth and tenderneſs of paſſion, the glowing touches of a deſcriptive pencil, and that honeſt pride and independence of ſoul, which are often the Muſe's only dower. A man who was the pupil of nature, the poet of inſpiration, and who poſſeſſed, in an extraordinary degree, the powers and the feelings of genius." It is proper to add, that Mr Burns was married, and had a family. The occaſion of his marriage is hinted at by an ingenious writer in the *Monthly Magazine*, publiſhed by J. Johnſon, Lond. for March, 1797. As the deſcription is characteriſtical of our bard's tender feelings, we ſhall quote the paſſage:—"When his heart was firſt ſtruck by the charms of village beauty, the love he felt was pure, tender, ſimple, and ſincere, as that of the youth and maiden in his *Cottar's Saturday Night*. If the ardour of his paſſion hurried him afterwards to triumph over the chaſtity of the maid he loved, the tenderneſs of his heart, the manly honeſty of his ſoul, ſoon made him offer with eager ſolicitude to repair by marriage the injury of love."—The ſame writer aſcribes Mr Burns's firſt attachment to poetry, to an early acquaintance not only with the works of *Ramſay*, *Milton*, *Beattie*, *Thomſon*, *Blair*, *Gray*, &c. but alſo to the poems of *Robert Ferguſon*, and other original writers in *Ruddiman's Weekly Magazine*; a periodical work then in univerſal circulation. The benefit which Mr Burns himſelf had derived from ſuch ſources, he wiſhed to communicate as much as poſſible to others. A ſtrong evidence of this is on record in *Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc.* vol. III. p. 598. where a letter from Burns, addreſſed to Sir John, is inſerted, giving an account of the eſtabliſhment of a reading ſociety, among a number of country people, under the patronage of Mr Riddell of Glenriddell. After mentioning ſome of their principal books, ſuch as Robertſon's and Hume's hiſtories, Blair's ſermons, the Spectator, Idler, Adventurer, Mirror, &c. he concludes thus; "A peaſant, who can read and enjoy ſuch books is certainly a much ſuperior being to his neigh-

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bour, who perhaps ſtalks behind his team, very little removed, except in ſhape, from the brutes he drives." Mr Burns died at Dumfries, and having been a member of the Royal Dumfries Volunteers, was interred with military honours, on Monday 25th July, 1796, in Dumfries church yard. We cannot conclude our account of this celebrated poet better than by ſubjoining his epitaph, long ago written by himſelf.

I.

Is there a whim-inſpired fool,
Owre faſt for thought, owre hot for rule,
Owre blate to ſeek, owre proud to ſnoul?
Let him draw near;
And owre this graſſy heap ſing dool,
And drap a tear.

II.

Is there a bard of ruſtic ſong,
Who, noteleſs, ſteals the crowds among,
That weekly to this area throng?
O paſs not by!
But with a frater-feeling ſtrong,
Here, heave a ſigh.

III.

Is there a man whoſe judgment clear,
Can others teach the courſe to ſteer,
Yet runs, himſelf, life's mad career,
Wild as the wave?
Here pauſe—and, through the ſtarting tear,
Survey this grave.

IV.

The poor Inhabitant below
Was quick to learn and wiſe to know,
And keenly felt the friendly glow,
And *ſoſter flame*;
But thoughtleſs follies laid him low,
And ſtain'd his name.

V.

Reader, attend.—Whether thy ſoul
Soars fancy's flight beyond the pole,
Or darkling grubs this earthly hole,
In low purſuit;
Know, prudent, cautious, *ſelf controul*,
Is Wiſdom's root.

BURNSAL, a village in Yorkſhire, on the Wherfe, between Settle and Paitley Bridge.

BURNSWARK, a hill of Dumfries-ſhire, in the pariſh of Hoddom, remarkable for its form, which, from its ſmoothneſs and regularity, has all the appearance of art; as well as for the extenſive view which it commands, and for the veſtiges of Roman works, which may be diſtinctly traced on its ſides and top. Mr Gordon, in his *Itinerary*, has given a particular deſcription of this hill, with a plan of the works on it.

* BURNT. *particip. paſſ.* of *burn:* applied to liquours, it means made hot.—

I find it very difficult to know,
Who, to refreſh th' attendant to a grave,
Burnt claret firſt, or Naples biſket gave. *King.*

BURNT-ELY, a village in Suffolk, between Sudbury and Bilſton.

(1.) BURNTISLAND, a pariſh of Scotland, on the coaſt of Fifeſhire, anciently called KINGHORN WESTER, about 9 m. N. by W. from Leith; extending about 3 miles every way. The climate is healthy and warm, owing to the ſurrounding hills; The ſoil is rich, and produces excellent crops of wheat, barley and beans. The coaſt abounds in ſhell-fiſh. The population, as ſtated by the rev. Mr Wemyſs, in his report to S. J. Sinclair, was about 1100, in 1791, and had decreaſed 290 ſince 1755.

(2.) BURNTISLAND, a royal burgh and ſea port town in the above pariſh, (N° 1.) ſeated on the frith of Forth, 9 m. N. by W. of Edinburgh. It has the beſt harbour on the coaſt, formed by a rocky iſle eked out with piers. It is very capacious and of great depth, although it is dry at low water. Docks might be eſtabliſhed in it for receiving the largeſt ſhips of war. The church is ſquare, with a ſteeple riſing in the centre, and was built by the inhabitants, in 1592, at their own expence, without the aid of the heritors. The old caſtle, built by the *Duries*, commanded both town and harbour. The place has a natural ſtrength, which, with the conveniency of a port oppoſite to the capital, made it, during the troubles of 1560, a moſt deſirable poſt. The French, allies to the queen regent, fortified it ſtrongly. Laſt century, it held out againſt Cromwell, till he was obliged to enter into conditions with the inhabitants; part of which were, that he ſhould repair the ſtreets and harbour; in conſequence of which the quays, as they now ſtand, were built by him; and the ſtreets have never been repaired ſince. In 1715, the town was ſurpriſed and poſſeſſed by the rebels, who formed the bold deſign of paſſing over a body of troops to the oppoſite ſhore; which was in part executed under the command of brigadier Macintoſh, notwithſtanding all the efforts of the men of war. The government of the burgh is veſted in 21 perſons, viz. 14 guild counſellors, out of whom are choſen 3 bailies; and 7 trades counſellors. A provoſt is alſo elected annually, ſometimes from among the counſellors, and ſometimes from the neighbouring nobility and gentry, in which caſe he is a ſupernumerary. This town had a great trade before the union, but it fell off totally after it. It has now, however, a ſugar houſe belonging to a Glaſgow company, and a vitriol work. Ship building is alſo carried on by a few hands; and about 12 or 15 tons of kelp are annually made. The advantages of Burntiſland for trade and manufactures are immenſe, if they were properly improved. Lon. 3. 5. W. Lat. 56. 8. N.

BURNTURK, a ſmall diſtrict of Fifeſhire, about 8 miles from the frith of Forth, abounding in coals.

BURNTWOOD, a town of Eſſex, ſituated on a hill. Lon. 0. 25. E. Lat. 51. 38. N.

BURPH, a town N. of Bridport, Dorſetſhire.

BURPHAM, in Suſſex, NE. of Arundel.

BURPHANTS, in Surrey, SE. of Woking.

(1.) * BURR. *s. ſ.* The lobe or lap of the ear. *Diſt.*

(2.) BURR, among huntſmen, the round knob of a horn next a deer's head.

(1.) BURRA, an iſland of Scotland, in the county of Shetland, joined to that of Houſe by a bridge, containing, along with the iſles of Havera and Papa, 379 inhabitants, in 1792. See N° 2.

(2.) BURRA,

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(2.) BURRA, a parish in the above island, (N° 1.) united with those of Bressay and Quarff. See BRESSAY, N° 2.

BURRAMPOOTER, the name of a river in India, the magnitude and course of which were scarcely explored till very lately; and of which the following account is given by J. Rennel, Esq; in the 71st volume of the Philosophical Transactions: "The Burrampooter, which has its source from the opposite side of the mountains that give rise to the Ganges, first takes its course eastwards through the country of Thibet, where it is named Sanpoo or Zancu, which bears the same interpretation as the Ganga of Hindooftan, namely the river. After winding with a rapid current through Thibet, it washes the border of the territory of Lassa, and then deviating from an E. to a SW. course, it approaches within 220 miles of Yunan, the most westerly province of China. Here it appears as if undetermined whether to attempt a passage to the sea by the Gulf of Siam, or by that of Bengal; but seemingly determining on the latter, it turns suddenly to the NW. through Assam, and enters Bengal on the NE. I have not been able to learn the exact place where it changes its course; but as the people of Assam call it *Burrampoot*, it would appear that it takes this name on entering that country. After its entry into Bengal it makes a circuit round the western point of the Garrow mountains, and then altering its course to S. it meets the Ganges about 40 miles from the sea. On tracing this river in 1765, I was no less surprised to find it rather larger than the Ganges, in its course previous to its entering Bengal. This I found to be from the E.; though all the former accounts represented it as from the N.; and this unexpected discovery soon led to inquiries, which furnished me with an account of its general course, to within 100 miles of the place where the geographer Du Halde left the Sanpoo. I could then no longer doubt, that the Burrampooter and Sanpoo were one and the same river; and to this were added the positive assurances of the Assamers, "That their river came from the northward through the Boutan mountains." The river, during a course of 400 miles through Bengal, bears so near a resemblance to the GANGES, except in one particular, that one description may serve for both. The exception I mean is, that during the last 60 miles before its junction with the Ganges, it forms a stream which is regularly from 4 to 5 miles wide, and but for its freshness might pass for an arm of the sea. I have endeavoured to account for the singular breadth of the Megna, (Burrampooter,) by supposing that the Ganges once joined it where the Issamurty now does; and that their joint waters there scooped out its present bed. The present junction of these two mighty rivers, below Lukipour produces a body of running fresh water, hardly to be equalled in the old hemisphere, and perhaps not to be excelled in the new. It now forms a gulf interspersed with islands some of which rival in size and fertility our Isle of Wight. The water at ordinary times is hardly brackish at the extremities of these islands; and in the rainy season, the sea, or at least the surface of it, is fresh to the distance of many leagues out. The quantity of water discharged by the Ganges, in one second of time during the dry season is 80,000 cubic feet; but in the place where the experiment was made, the river, when full, has thrice the quantity of water in it, and its motion is also accelerated in the proportion of 5 to 3; so that the quantity discharged in a second at that time is 401,000 cubic feet. If we take the medium the whole year through, it will be nearly 180,000 cubic feet in a second." Mr Rennel, however, does not inform us whether the experiment was made above or below the junction of the Ganges and Burrampooter. He informs us that in the mouths of the Ganges, particularly the Hugueley or Calcutta river, there is a remarkable bore, or sudden and abrupt influence of the tide into a narrow strait or river; so that boats which lie near the shore immediately quit the station, and make towards the stream of the river as fast as possible. At Calcutta it sometimes rises 5 feet almost instantaneously. In the channels between the islands in the mouth of the Burrampooter, it sometimes rises more than 12 feet, and is so terrible that no boat will venture to pass at spring tide.

BURANESS, a place in Orkney, where there is an ancient Pictish castle of a circular form without any entrance but from the top.

BURRANT, EAST, } two villages in the coun-
BURRANT, WEST, } ty of Hampshire.

* BURRAS PIPE. [With surgeons.] An instrument or vessel used to keep corroding powers in, as vitriol, precipitate. *Harris.*

BURRA-VOE, a good harbour on the coast of Shetland.

(1.) BURRAY, an island of Scotland on the S. coast of Orkney, 4 m. long and one broad. In 1792, it contained 218 inhabitants.

(2.) BURRAY, an ancient parish in the above island, now united to that of S. Ronaldsay. See RONALDSAY.

BURRE, BOURRE, or BORRE, a kind of dance composed of three steps joined together in two motions, begun with a crotchet rising. The first couplet contains twice 4 measures, the second twice 8. It consists of a balance and coupee.

(1.) BURREL, a village in Yorkshire, 3 miles N. of Snape, and W. of Bedal.

(2.) * BURREL. *n. s.* A sort of pear, otherwise called the red *butter pear*, from its smooth, delicious, and soft pulp. *Philips.*

(3.) * BURREL FLY. [from *bourreler*, Fr. to execute, to torture.] An insect, called also *oxfly*, *gadbee*, or *breeze*. *Dict.*

(4.) * BURREL SHOT. [from *bourreler*, to execute, and *shot*.] In gunnery, small bullets, nails, stones, pieces of old iron, &c. put into cases, to be discharged out of the ordnance; a sort of case-shot. *Harris.*

BURREL. See BURELL.

BURRELS, a village of Westmoreland, S. of Appleby.

BURRINGTON, two villages in Devonshire, 1. N. of Cumleigh: 2. N. of Plympton.

BURRIS. See BORRIS, N° 2.

BURRISALEIGH, a village of Ireland, in Tipperary, Munster, 78 miles from Dublin.

BURROBY, in Yorksh. 3 miles from Thirsk.

* BURDOCK, *n. s.* A small wear or dam,

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where wheels are laid in a river for catching of fish. *Philips.*

BURRODEN, a village in Northumberland, near the two Trewhets.

BURRON HILL, in Dumfries-shire. The vestiges of an ancient camp, with a strong double fosse, are still visible on it.

(1.) BURROUGH, a town in Norfolk, between Fakenham and Holt.

(3.) BURROUGH. See BOROUGH, § 2.

BURROUGHS's MACHINE, an invention by Mr Burroughs of Southwark, for which the society for the encouragement of arts gave him a premium of L. 70. See *Plate* XLIV. *fig.* 8 and 10. This machine consists of a cog-wheel, A, *fig.* 8; 12 feet in diameter, carrying 72 cogs; which turn a trundle-head B, one foot 4 inches in diameter and furnished with 8 rounds; and also an horizontal spur-wheel C, of 12 cogs, and one foot 8 inches in diameter. The trundle-head B turns a spur-wheel D of 10 cogs, and 2 feet 8 inches in diameter. This spur-wheel has two cranks, *a*, *b*, in its shaft; one of which, *a*, gives motion to a wooden frame, *c*, about 34 inches long and 19 broad. On the under side of this frame are fastened by screws 12 pieces of polished metal, 5¼ inches long, and 3 broad, covered with leather; and underneath these polishers, a glass plate cemented in another frame, is placed on the bench, *d*, and polished with tripoli by the motion given to the upper frame of the crank, *a*. The nuts of the screws, which fasten the polishers to the upper frame, are not screwed close to the wood, in order to give the frame room to play; by which contrivance the perpendicular rise of the crank is avoided, and the motion of the polishers always parallel and equal. The under frame may be moved by the hand in any direction without stopping the machine; by which means the plate, when larger than the polishing frame can cover in its motion, will be equally polished in every part. The other crank, *b*, gives motion to two other polishers, marked *n*, *o*, which have an alternate motion by the bending of the crank; they move upon the same plate, and have an equal number of polishers, as that already described. The same crank also gives motion to a contrivance represented at *e*, for polishing spectacle glasses. It consists of two segments of the same sphere; one concave and the other convex. On the latter the glasses are cemented; and polished by the former, which is moved by the crank *b*. The convex segment may be moved by the hand without stopping the machine, so that all the glasses on its superficies will be equally polished. The other spur-wheel C, by means of a crank in its shaft, gives motion to another frame, *g*, employed in grinding the glass plates. The rod *h*, extended from the crank *f*, to the frame *g*, is fastened to the latter by means of a pivot, in order to admit of a rotatory motion, as well as that given it by the crank in a longitudinal direction. This rotatory motion is effected by means of a rod of iron *i*, called a *trigger*, sharp at the extremity next the frame, where it touches the teeth of an horizontal spur-wheel, or circular piece of wood, fixed to the grinding plate, while the other end is extended 3 feet 2 inches, to the centre of the motion. But this contrivance, in which the merit of the machine principally consists, will be much better conceived from a small delineation of it by itself, *fig.* 9. where F is the crank marked *f* in *fig.* 8. and turned by the spur-wheel C in the same figure. G is the trigger, 3 feet 2 inches long. I, a roll fixed on the trigger for the rod to slide on. H, the horizontal spur-wheel, 11 inches in diameter, fixed on the grinding plate; the teeth of which is touched by the trigger; but with a very unequal force, as it will wholly depend upon the grinding plate being farther from, or nearer to the centre of motion of the trigger. By this simple contrivance, the grinding plate has a very compound motion, never moving exactly in the same tract, and therefore must grind the plates equally in every part. Several attempts have been made by others for producing the same effect; but without success; the grinding plate always follows the same tract, and consequently the plates are ground unequally.

(1.) * BURROW, BERG, BURG, BURGH. *s. f.* [derived from the Saxon *burg*, *biirg*, a city, tower, or castle. *Gibson's Camden.*] 1. A corporate town, that is not a city, but such as sends burgesses to the parliament. All places that in former days, were called *boroughs*, were such as were fenced or fortified. *Cowel.*—

King of England shalt thou be proclaim'd
In ev'ry *burrow*, as we pass along. *Shak.*

—Possession of land was the original right of election among the commons; and *burrows* were entitled to sit, as they were possessed of certain tracts. *Temple.* 2. The holes, made in the ground by conies.—When they shall see his creft up again, and the man in blood, they will out of their *burrows*, like conies after rain, and revel all with him. *Shakespeare.*

(2.) BURROW, Sir James, master of the crown office, was elected F. R. S. and F. A. S. 1751. On the death of Mr West, in 1772, he was prevailed on to fill the president's chair at the Royal Society till the anniversary election when he resigned it to Sir John Pringle; and Aug. 10, 1773, when the society presented an address to the king he was knighted. He published two volumes of Reports in 1766; two others in 1771 and 1776; and a volume of Decisions of the Court of King's Bench, upon settlement cases from 1732 to 1772, (to which was subjoined An Essay on Punctuation,) in 3 parts, 4to, 1768, 1772, 1776. The Essay was also printed separately in 4to, 1773. He published, without his name, "A few Anecdotes and Observations relating to Oliver Cromwell and his family, serving to rectify several errors concerning him;" published by Nicol. Comn. Papadopoli, in his *Historia Gymnasii Patavini*, 1763, 4to. He died in 1782.

(3—5.) BURROW; 3 villages; viz. 1. S. of Lancaster: 2. in Leicestershire, near Billesdon: and 3. in Norfolk, near Alesham.

* *To* BURROW. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To make holes in the ground to mine, as conies or rabbits. —Some strew sand among their corn, which they say, prevents mice and rats *burrowing* in it; because of its falling into their ears. *Mortimer.*—Little sinuses would form, and *burrow* underneath. *Sharp.*

BURROWAN,

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BURROWAN, a place in Dunfermline, in Culross parish, where there are the remains of an old Danish camp.

BURROWBRIDGE, a town in Yorkshire, seated on the river Ure. See BOROUGHBRIDGE.

BURROW-DUCK, an English name given the Anas Tadorna. See ANAS, N° 36.

BURROW-GREEN, 2 miles from Cambridge and 2 from Newmarket.

BURROW-HILL, near Daventry, Northamptonshire,

BURROWMUIR, a district in the county of Linlithgow, where Edward I. lay with his vast army, the night before the battle of Falkirk. Though now inclosed, it still retains its ancient name.

(1.) * BURRPUMP. [In a ship.] A pump by the side of a ship, into which a staff 7 or 8 feet long is put; having a burr or knob of wood at the end, which is drawn up by a rope fastened to the middle of it, called also a *bilge-pump*. *Harris*.

(2.) BURR-PUMP, or BILGE-PUMP, differs from the common pump, in having a staff 6, 7, or 8 feet long, with a bar of wood, whereto the leather is nailed, and this serves instead of a box. Two men, standing over the pump, thrust down this staff, to the middle whereof is fastened a rope, for 6, 8, or 10 men to hale by, thus pulling it up and down.

BURR REED. See SPARGANIUM.

(1.) BURSA, BURSE, originally signifies a purse. In writers of the middle age it is more particularly used for a little college, or hall in an university, for the residence of students, called *bursales* or *bursarii*. In some universities it still denotes a foundation for the maintenance of poor scholars in their studies. The nomination to burses is in the hands of the patrons and founders thereof. The burses of colleges are not benefices, but mere places assigned to certain countries and persons. A burse becomes vacant by the burser's being promoted to a cure.

(2.) BURSA, or PURSA, the capital of Bithynia in Asia Minor, situated in a fine fruitful plain, at the foot of mount Olympus, about 190 miles S. of Constantinople. It is one of the largest and finest cities of Asiatic Turkey, and contains about 40,000 Turks, besides 300 families of Greeks, 400 of Jews, and 500 of Armenians. It was the capital of the Turkish empire, before the taking of Constantinople. Part of it stands on several small hills at the foot of Olympus. The plain is covered with mulberry and various other fruit trees. The mosques and caravanseras are elegant; and so many springs proceed from Olympus that every house has its fountain. The besistan contains all the commodities of the East. See BAZAR and BESISTAN. It also abounds in their own manufactures; the best workmen in Turkey residing in this town, and being excellent imitators of the French and Italian artists; particularly in tapestry. Lon. 29. 5. E. Lat. 39. 22. N.

BURSÆ MUCOSÆ. See ANATOMY, *Index*.

BURSALES. See BURSA, N° 1.

(1.) BURSA PASTORIS, in botany. See THLASPI.

(2.) BURSA PASTORIS MINOR. See DRABA.

(1.) * BURSAR. *n.f.* [*bursarius*, Lat.] 1. The treasurer of a college. 2. Students sent as exhibitioners to the universities in Scotland by each presbytery, from whom they have a small yearly allowance for four years.

(2.) BURSARS or BURSERS also denote those to whom stipends are paid out of a burse or fund appointed for that purpose.

BURSARIA, the bursary, or exchequer of collegiate and conventual bodies; or the place of receiving, paying, and accounting by the bursers.

BURSARII, 1. Butlers of a college: 2. Privileged students. See BURSA, N° 1. and BURSAR.

BURSARY. See BURSERY.

BURSCOMB, a village in Lancashire, near Latham and Ormskirk.

(1.) * BURSE. *n.f.* [*bourse*, Fr. *bursa*, Lat. a purse; or from *byrsa*, Lat. the exchange of Carthage.] An exchange where merchants meet, and shops are kept; so called, because the sign of the purse was anciently set over such a place; the Exchange in the Strand was termed Britain's Burse by James I. *Philips*.

(2.) BURSE, Guicchardin assures us, was first applied to a commercial edifice at Bruges, and took its rise from an hotel, built by a lord of the family de la Bourse, whose arms, which are 3 purses, are still found on the crowning over the portal of the house. Catel's account is somewhat different, *viz.* that the merchants of Bruges bought a house to meet in, at which was the sign of the purse. From this city the name was afterwards transferred to similar places in Antwerp, Amsterdam, Bergen in Norway, London, &c. This last, anciently known by the name of the *common bursa of merchants*, had the denomination since given it by queen Elizabeth, of the *royal exchange*. The most considerable burse is that of Amsterdam, which is a large building, 230 feet long and 130 broad, round which runs a peristyle 20 feet wide. The columns of the peristyle, which are 46, are numbered, for the conveniency of finding people. It will hold 4500 persons. The ancient Romans had public places for the meetings of merchants in most of their trading cities; that built at Rome, A. U. C. 259. under the consulate of Appius Claudius and Publius Servilius, was denominated the *college of merchants*; some remains of it are still to be seen, and are known by the modern Romans under the name *loggia*. The Hans towns, after the example of the Romans, gave the name of *colleges* to their burses.

BURSELEY, a village in Worcestershire, 4 m. SE. of Broomsgrove.

BURSER. See BURSAR.

BURSERA, in botany; a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the hexandria class of plants. The calyx is triphyllous; the corolla tripetalous; the capsule carnous, trivalved, and monospermous. There is but one species; viz.

BURSERA GUMMIFERA, or gum elemi. It is frequent in woods in most of the Bahama islands, and grows speedily to a great height and thickness. The bark is brown, and very like the birch of Britain. The wood is soft and useless, except when pieces of the limbs are put into the ground as fences, when it grows readily, and becomes a durable barrier. The leaves are pinnate; the middle rib 3 or 6 inches long, with the pinnæ set opposite, on footstalks half an inch long. It has yellow

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yellow flowers, male and female on different trees. These are succeeded by purple-coloured berries bigger than large peas, hanging in clusters on a stalk of about 5 inches long, to which each berry is joined by a footstalk half an inch long. The seed is hard, white, and of a triangular figure, inclosed within a thin capsule, which divides in 3 parts, and discharges the seed. The fruit, when cut discharges a clear balsam, esteemed a good vulnerary, particularly for horses. On wounding the bark, a thick milky liquor is obtained, which soon concretes into a resin no way different from the *gum elemi* of the shops. See AMYRIS, § 5. Dr Browne, and after him Linnæus, have, according to Dr Wright, mistaken the bark of the root for the SIMAROUBA, which is a species of QUASSIA. See *Plate* XLII. *fig.* 18.

BURSERY, 1. A privilege to attend a college in Scotland, without paying fees: 2. A salary bestowed for that purpose at the disposal of some patron: 3. The treasury of a college or monastery.

BURS-HOLDER. See BOROUGH-HEAD.

BURSLEM, a village in Staffordshire, 3 miles from Newcastle under Line.

(1.) * BURST. BURSTEN. *particip. adj.* [from *burst*.] Diseased with a hernia, or rupture.

(2.) * BURST. *n. s.* [from the verb.] A sudden disruption; a sudden and violent action of any kind.—

Since I was man,
Such sheets of fire, such *burst* of horrid thunder,
Such groans of roaring wind and rain, I never
Remember to have heard. *Shak.*

Down they came, and drew
The whole roof after them, with *burst* of thunder,
Upon the heads of all. *Milton.*

Imprison'd fires, in the close dungeons pent,
Roar to get loose, and struggle for a vent,
Eating their way, and undermining all,
Till with a mighty *burst* whole mountains fall.
Addison.

(1.) * *To* BURST. *v. n.* I *burst*; I have *burst*, or *bursten*. [*burstan*, Saxon.] 1. To break, or fly open; to suffer a violent disruption.—So shall thy barns be filled with plenty, and thy presses shall *burst* out with new wine. *Prov.* iii. 10.—It is ready to *burst* like new bottles. *Job.*—

Th' egg that soon
Bursting with kindly rupture, forth disclos'd
The callow young. *Milton.*

2. To fly asunder.—

Yet am I thankful; if my heart were great,
'Twould *burst* at this. *Shakes.*

3. To break away; to spring.—

You *burst*, ah cruel! from my arms,
And swiftly shoot along the Mall,
Or softly glide by the Canal. *Pope.*

4. To come suddenly.—

A resolved villain,
Whose bowels suddenly *burst* out: the king
Yet speaks, and peradventure, may recover.
Shakespeare.

If the worlds
In worlds inclos'd should on his senses *burst*,
He would abhorrent turn. *Thomson.*

5. To come with violence.—

Well didst thou, Richard, to suppress thy voice;
For had the passions of thy heart *burst* out,
I fear, we should have seen decypher'd there
More rancorous spight. *Shakes.*

—Where is the notable passage over the river Euphrates, *bursting* out by the vallies of the mountain Antitaurus; from whence the plains of Mesopotamia, then part of the Persian kingdom, begin to open themselves? *Knolles.*—

Young spring protrudes the *bursting* gems.
Thomson.

6. To begin an action violently or suddenly.—She *burst* into tears, and wrung her hands. *Arbuthnot.*

(2.) * *To* BURST. *v. a.* To break suddenly; to make a quick and violent disruption.—

My breast I'll *burst* with straining of my courage,
And from my shoulders crack my arms asunder,
But I will chastise this high-minded strumpet.
Shakespeare.

He fasten'd on my neck, and bellow'd out,
As if he would *burst* hear'n. *Shakes.*

—I will break his yoke from off thy neck, and will *burst* thy bonds. *Jer.* xxx. 8.—Moses saith also, the fountains of the great abyss were *burst* asunder, to make the deluge; and what means this abyss, and the *bursting* of it, if restrained to Judea? what appearance is there of this disruption there? *Burnet's Theory.*—If the juices of an animal body were, so as by the mixture of the opposites, to cause an ebullition, they would *burst* the vessels. *Arbuthnot.*

BURSTALL, 3 villages; 1. NE. of Leicester, on the Stour: 2. in Suffolk, W. of Ipswich; 3. in Yorkshire, between Huddersfield and Leeds.

BURSTALL-GARTH, in Holderness, Yorkshire.

BURSTED, GREAT, } two villages in Essex,
BURSTED LITTLE, } near Billericay.

BURSTEN. See BURST, N° 2, and RUPTURE.

* BURSTENNESS. *n. s.* [from *burst*.] A rupture, or hernia.

BURSTOCK, a village in Dorsetshire, W. of Beminster.

BURSTON, 5 villages; viz. 1. in Bucks, NE. of Ailesbury: 2. in Dorsetsh. 4 miles W. of Bere-Regis: 3. in Norfolk, 1 m. from Diss: 4. in ditto, 4 miles S. of Holt: and, 5. in Staffordsh. NE. of Newcastle under Line.

BURSTOW, in Surry, near E. Grinsted.

BURSTWICK, in Holderness, Yorkshire.

(1.) * BURSTWORT. *n. s.* [from *burst* and *wort*, *herniaria*, Latin.] An herb good against ruptures. *Dict.*

(2.) BURST-WORT. See HERNIARIA.

* BURT. *n. s.* A flat fish of the turbot kind.

BURTFORD, a town near Salisbury, Wilts.

(1.) * BURTHEN. *n. s.* See BURDEN.—

Sacred to ridicule his whole life long,
And the sad *burthen* of some merry song. *Pope.*

(2.) BURTHEN OF A SHIP. See BURDEN, § 4.

* *To* BURTHEN. *v. a.* See *To* BURDEN.

BURTHORP, a village in Gloucestershire, near Lechlade.

BURTICK, a fort in Livonia.

BURTLE HOUSE, near Bridgewater.

(1.) BURTON, a town of Lincolnshire, seated on a hill near the Trent; 30 m. N. of Lincoln, and 164 N. by W. of London; also called BURTON-STATHER. Lon. 0. 30. W. Lat. 53. 40. N.

(2.) BURTON, a town of Westmoreland, seated in a valley near a large hill, called *Farleton knot-hill*,

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hill. It is pretty well built, and lies on the great road from Lancaſter to Carliſle. Lon. 2. 35. W. Lat. 54. 10. N.

(3.) * BURTON. *n. ſ.* [In a ſhip.] A ſmall tackle to be faſtened any where at pleaſure, conſiſting of two ſingle pullies, for hoiſting ſmall things in or out. *Philips.*

(4.) BURTON, Henry, one of the ſufferers under the civil and eccleſiaſtical tyranny of laſt century, was born at Birſall, in Yorkſhire, in 1579; educated at Cambridge; and took his degrees of M. A. and B. D. there and at Oxford. He was firſt tutor to lord Carey's ſons;—afterwards clerk of the cloſet to prince Henry and prince Charles; and next appointed to attend the latter into Spain, in 1623: but, probably from ſpeaking too freely of the biſhops, was ſet aſide, after his goods were partly ſhipped. In 1625, he preſented a letter to king Charles remonſtrating againſt Dr Laud and Dr Neil, as being popiſhly affected; for which he was prohibited the court. About this time, however, he obtained the rectory of St Matthews, London, where he preached with ſo much freedom, that, in 1636, he was ſummoned before commiſſioner Duck, to anſwer for what he had ſaid in two ſermons on the 5 Nov. preceding. He appealed to the king, but was ſuſpended by the high commiſſion court; whereupon he abſconded, but publiſhed his ſermons, with reaſons for his appeal. He was ſoon after apprehended by warrant from that ſtate inquiſition, the ſtar-chamber; incarcerated in Fleet priſon along with the celebrated Prynne and Baſtwick, and all his papers ſeized. They were charged with writing ſeditious, ſchiſmatical, and libellous books, againſt the church and government. They gave in anſwers, but the court expunged the greater part of them, and ſentenced them to pay a fine of L. 5000 each; and Burton beſides to be degraded from his office and degrees, deprived of his benefice, ſet on the pillory, there to have his ears cut off, and to be afterwards impriſoned for life, denied the uſe of paper, pens, and ink, and debarred the acceſs of all perſons except the keeper,—not even his wife being permitted to ſee him. After 12 weeks cloſe confinement in Lancaſter jail, he was removed in 1637, to' Cornet caſtle in Guernſey, where he was ſhut up for 3 years, till 1640, when the Houſe of Commons reverſed the ſentence as illegal, annulled the fine, reſtored him to his degrees and benefice, and voted him L. 6000 as a compenſation for his impriſonment and the loſs of his ears. From the confuſion of the times, however, he never received this ſum, though he was reſtored to his living. He died in Jan 1648.

(5.) BURTON, John, D. D. a worthy and learned divine, born in 1696, at Wembworth, in Devonſhire, and educated at Oxford. In 1725, being then pro-proctor, he ſpoke a Latin oration, entitled "*Heli*; or, An inſtance of a magiſtrate's erring through unſeaſonable lenity;" written and publiſhed with a view to encourage the ſalutary exerciſe of academical diſcipline; and afterwards treated the ſame ſubject ſtill more fully in 4 Latin ſermons before the univerſity, and publiſhed them with appendixes. He alſo introduced into the ſchools Locke, and other eminent modern philoſophers, as ſuitable companions to Ariſtotle; and printed a double ſeries of philoſophical queſtions, for the uſe of the younger ſtudents; from which Mr Johnſon of Magdalene college, Cambridge, took the hint of his larger work of the ſame kind, which has gone through ſeveral editions. When the ſetting of Georgia was in agitation, in 1732, Dr Burton preached before the ſociety, and publiſhed his ſermon, with an appendix on the ſtate of that colony; and he afterwards publiſhed an account of the deſigns of the aſſociates of the late Dr Bray, with an account of their proceedings in that buſineſs. About the ſame time, on the death of Dr Edward Littleton, he was preſented by Eton college to the vicarage of Maple-Derham, in Oxfordſhire. Here a melancholy ſcene, which too often appears in the manſions of the clergy, preſented itſelf to his view; a widow, with three infant daughters, without a home, without a fortune: from his compaſſion aroſe love, the conſequence of which was marriage; for Mrs Littleton was handſome, elegant, accompliſhed, ingenious, and had great ſweetneſs of temper. In 1760, he exchanged his vicarage of Maple-Derham for the rectory of Worpleſdon in Surrey. In his advanced age, finding his eyes begin to fail, he collected and publiſhed, in one volume, all his ſcattered pieces, under the title of *Opuſcula Miſcellanea*; and ſoon after died, Feb. 11th, 1771.

(6.) BURTON, Robert, known to the learned by the name of *Democritus junior*, was the ſon of Ralph Burton, Eſq. of Lindley in Leiceſterſhire, and born Feb. 8, 1576. He was educated at Sutton Colefield in Warwickſhire; in 1593 was ſent to Oxford; and in 1599, was elected ſtudent of Chriſt-church. In 1616, he had the vicarage of St Thomas, in Oxford, conferred upon him by the dean and canons of Chriſt-church, to the pariſhioners of which, it is ſaid, that he always gave the ſacrament in wafers; and this, with the rectory of Segrave in Leiceſterſhire, given him ſome time after by George lord Berkely, he held to his death, in January 1639. He was a man of general learning; a great philoſopher; an exact mathematician; and a very curious calculator of nativities. He was extremely ſtudious, and of a melancholy turn; yet an agreeable companion, and very humorous. *The anatomy of Melancholy*, by *Democritus junior*, ſhows, that theſe oppoſite qualities were mingled in his compoſition. This book was printed firſt in 4to, afterwards in folio, in 1624, 1632, 1638, and 1652, to the great emolument of the bookſeller, who, as Mr Wood tells us, got an eſtate by it. He died in his chamber at or very near the time which, it ſeems, he had ſome years before predicted from the calculation of his nativity; and this exactneſs made it whiſpered about, that for the glory of aſtrology, and rather than his calculation ſhould fail, he had become *felo de ſe*. This, however, was generally diſcredited; he was buried with due ſolemnity in the cathedral of Chriſt-church, and had a fair monument erected to his memory. He left behind him a very choice collection of books. He bequeathed many to the Bodleian library; and 100l. to Chriſt-church, the intereſt of which was to be laid out yearly in books for their library.

(7.) BURTON, William, elder brother of Robert, (N° 6.) was born 14th Aug. 1575; educated at

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at Sutton-Coldfield; admitted at Oxford in 1591; graduated B. A. in 1594, and afterwards admitted a barrifter in the court of common pleas. But his genius ſoon led him from the law, to the ſtudy of antiquities, genealogies, heraldry, &c. in which branches of ſcience he became eminent. In 1602, he corrected Saxton's map of Leiceſterſhire, and added 80 towns to it. In 1612, he drew up the corollary of Leland's life, prefixed to the *Collectanea*. In 1622, he publiſhed his great work, *The Deſcription of Leiceſterſhire*. In 1625, he compiled a folio vol. ſtill in M. S. entitled, *Antiquitates de Dadlington*. After ſuffering much in the civil war, he died at Falde in Staffordſhire, 6 April, 1645.

(8—30.) BURTON, the name of 23 ſmall towns and villages; viz. 1. in Berks, near Aſhbury: 2. in Buckinghamſh. 3. in Cheſhire, near the Dee: 4. five m. E. of Cheſter: 5. in Dorſetſh. near Bridport: 6. in ditto, W. of Wareham: 7. in Hampſhire, between Lymington and Chriſt-church: 8. in Herefordſhire, NE. of Pembridge: 9. in Kent, near Aſhbridge: 10. in ditto, near Tunbridge: 11. in Lincolnſhire, between Grantham and Market-Deeping: 12. NW. of Lincoln: 13. in Norfolkſhire, 3 m. SE. of Wurſtead: 14. in Northumberland, S. of Bamburgh caſtle: 15. four m. from Nottingham: 16. in Shropſh. S. of Wenlock: 17. in ditto, between Wenlock and Shrewſbury: 18. in Somerſetſh. W. of Bedminſter: 19. in ditto, near Somerton: 20. in ditto, near Wyncanton: 21. in Staffordſh. near Penkridge: 22. in the Iſle of Wight, near Cowes: and, 23. in Worceſterſh. near Lower Sapy. BURTON alſo makes part of the names of other 38 towns and villages: viz.

(31.) BURTON-AGNES, E. of Kilham, Yorkſh.

(32.) BURTON-BISHOPS, N. of Beverly, Yorkſh.

(33.) BURTON, BLACK, N. of Bradwell, Oxf.

(34.) BURTON-CHERRY, NW. of Beverley, Yorkſhire.

(35, 36.) BURTON-CONSTABLE, 1. NW. of Beverly: 2. between Midlam and Richmond: both in Yorkſhire. This laſt has a market on Frid. and St Mary Magdalen's eve and day.

(37.) BURTON-DORSET, in Warwickſhire, 3 miles from Kyneton.

(38—42.) BURTON, EAST: 5 villages; viz. 1. in Nottinghamſh. 3 m. from Gainſborough: 2. in Suſſex, between Petworth and Arundel: 3. in Weſtmoreland, E. of Appleby: 4. in Yorkſh. in Holderneſs: and, 5. in Yorkſhire, 4 miles NE. of Richmond.

(43.) BURTON-GRANGE, near Barnſley, York.

(44.) BURTON, GREAT, N. of Dorcheſter.

(45.) BURTON-HASTINGS, in Warwickſhire, between Coventry and Leiceſter.

(46.) BURTON-HILL, S. of Malmſbury, Wilts.

(47.) BURTON IN BISHOPSDALE, SW. of Midlam, Yorkſhire.

(48.) BURTON-LATIMER, in Northampton, SW. of Kettering.

(49.) BURTON-LAZERS, S. of Melton-Mowbray, in Leiceſterſhire.

(50.) BURTON-LEONARD, in Yorkſhire, W. of Boroughbridge.

(51.) BURTON, LITTLE, near Great B. (N° 44.)

(52.) BURTON, LONG, N. of the White Hart Vale in Dorſetſhire.

(53.) BURTON MAGNA, S. of Branbury, Oxford.

(54.) BURTON, NORTH, NW. of Bridlington.

(55.) BURTON ON THE WATER, in Glouceſt.

(56.) BURTON-OVERY, near Hallaton, Leiceſt.

(57.) BURTON PARVA, SE. of Magna, N° 53.

(58.) BURTON-PIDSEY, in Holderneſs.

(59.) BURTON-SALMON, N. of Pontefract, in the W. Riding of Yorkſhire.

(60.) BURTON-STATHER. See N° 1.

(61.) BURTON SUPER MONTEM, in Glouceſterſhire, W. of Morton in Marſh.

(62.) BURTON UPON OLDO, in Leiceſterſhire.

(63.) BURTON UPON TRENT, a town of Staffordſhire. It had formerly a large abbey; and over the Trent it has a famous bridge of free ſtone, about a quarter of a mile in length, ſupported by 37 arches. It conſiſts chiefly of one long ſtreet, reaching from the place where the abbey ſtood to the bridge; and has a good market for corn and proviſions. Burton ale is reckoned the beſt of any brought to London. It lies NE. of Litchfield, and 124 miles NNW. of London. Lon. 1. 40. W. Lat. 52. 48. N.

(64—68.) BURTON, WEST, 5 villages, near the 5 Eaſt Burtons. See N° 38—42.

(69.) BURTON-WOOD, in W. Derby.

BURWARTON, near Brownclee hill, Salop.

BURWASH, a town in the county of Suſſex, on the river Rother, N. of Rotherbridge, 8 m. from Battle-Abbey. Fairs, May 12, and Sept. 4.

(1.) BURWELL, a town in the county of Cambridge, 3 m. N. of Newmarket Heath. A melancholy event happened in this place, in 1727, at the exhibition of a puppet ſhow, in a barn; where 160 people being aſſembled, the barn and ſcenery took fire, and only 5 or 6 perſons eſcaped. The bodies of the dead were ſo mangled and diſfigured, by the fire, and the fall of the roof, that their friends could not recognize them; and they were promiſcuouſly buried in one large grave. *Walker's Gazetteer.*

(2, 3.) BURWELL, two villages; 1. in Hampſhire, near Hambledon: 2. in Lincolnſhire, near Althorp.

(4.) BURWELL'S GREEN, NW. of Ware Park, Hertfordſhire.

BURWOOD, in Surry, S. of Walton upon Thames.

(1.) * BURY. *n. ſ.* [from *burg*, Sax.] A dwelling-place; a termination ſtill added to the names of ſeveral places; as, *Aldermanbury*, St *Edmund's bury*; ſometimes writtten *bery*. *Phil.*

(2.) * BURY. *n. ſ.* [corrupted from *borough*.] It is his nature to dig himſelf *buries*, as the coney doth; which he doth with very great celerity. *Grew.*

(3.) BURY is applied to the holes or dens of ſuch animals as live under ground; ſuch as moles, tortoiſes, &c. The grillotalpa, or mole-cricket, digs itſelf a bury with its fore-feet, which are made broad and ſtrong for that purpoſe. Naturaliſts ſpeak of a kind of urchins in the iſland of Maraguan, which have two entries to their buries, one towards the N. the other to the S. which they open and ſhut alternately as the wind happens to lie.

(4.) BURY, in geography, a town of Lancaſhire, ſeated on the Irwell, famous for its manufactures

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factures of fuſtians, half-thicks, and kerſeys. In 1787, the theatre fell, whereby above 300 perſons were buried in the ruins. A few of theſe eſcaped unhurt, but the majority were either killed or much bruiſed. Bury is 36 m. SE. of Lancaſter, and 190 NNW. of London. Lon. 2. 24. W. Lat. 53. 36. N.

(5.) BURY, ST EDMUND'S, the county town of Suffolk, and the *Montpelier* of England, lies in a pleaſant ſituation, 14 miles E. of Newmarket, and 72 NNE. of London. It was ſo named from St Edmund, king of the E. Angles, who was crowned in it, and afterwards martyred by the Danes; and being buried in it, an abbey was erected in his honour. It ſends 2 members to parliament. It has a fair Oct. 17, which laſts a fortnight, and a large market for corn, fiſh, fowls, &c. Lon. 0. 45. E. Lat. 52. 20. N.

* *To* BURY. *v. a.* [*biirigean*, Saxon.] 1. To inter; to put into a grave.—

When he lies along,
After your way his tale pronounc'd, ſhall *bury*
His reaſons with his body. *Shakeſ.*

2. To inter, with the rites and ceremonies of ſepulture.—

Slave, thou haſt ſlain me!
If ever thou wilt thrive, *bury* my body. *Shakeſ.*

If you have kindleſs left, there ſee me laid;
To *bury* decently the injur'd maid,
Is all the favour. *Waller.*

3. To conceal; to hide.—

This is the way to make the city flat,
And *bury* all, which yet diſtinctly ranges,
In heaps and piles of ruin. *Shakeſ.*

4. To place one thing within another.—

A tearing groan did break
The name of Anthony; it was divided
Between her heart and lips; ſhe render'd life,
Thy name ſo *bury'd* in her. *Shakeſ.*

(1.) BURYING. See BURIAL, § 1, 2.

(2.) BURYING ALIVE was the puniſhment of a veſtal who had violated her vow of virginity. The unhappy prieſteſs was let down into a deep pit, with bread, water, milk, oil, a lamp burning, and a bed to lie on. But this was only for ſhew; for the moment ſhe was let down, they began to caſt in the earth upon her till the pit was filled up. See VESTALS. Some middle age writers ſeem to make burying alive, (*defoſſio*,) the puniſhment of a woman thief. This barbarous puniſhment has even been uſed in our own country under the feudal tyranny. Mr Matheſon, miniſter of Kilmuir Eaſter, in Roſs-ſhire, mentions, that, "in the year 1751, as labourers were digging a bank of earth near Milntown, they found a human ſkeleton fitting in an erect poſture, on a ſeat ſeemingly made for that purpoſe. Many credible perſons authenticate this as a fact known to themſelves. Tradition ſays, that ſeveral perſons have been buried alive, in this and the neighbouring pariſh, by the direction of a cruel and arbitrary landlord, who was proprietor of theſe lands, in the beginning of laſt century."—*Stat. Acc. Vol.* VI. *p.* 195. Lord Bacon gives inſtances of the reſurrection of perſons who have been buried alive. The famous Duns Scotus is of the number; who, having been ſeized with a catalepſis, was thought dead, and laid to ſleep among his fathers, but raiſed again by his ſervant in whoſe abſence he had been buried. Bartholin gives an account of a woman, who, on recovering from an apoplexy, could not believe but ſhe was dead, and ſolicited ſo long and ſo earneſtly to be buried, that they were forced to comply; and performed the ceremonies, at leaſt in appearance. The famous emperor Charles V. after his abdication, took it into his head to have his burial celebrated in his lifetime and aſſiſted at it. See CHARLES V.

(1.) * BURYING-PLACE. *n. ſ.* A place appointed for the ſepulture of dead bodies.—The place was formerly a church-yard, and has ſtill ſeveral marks in it of graves and *burying-places*. *Spectator.*

(2.) BURYING-PLACES. The ancients buried out of cities and towns; an uſage which we find equally among Jews, Greeks, and Romans. Among the laſt, burying within the walls was expreſsly prohibited by a law of the 12 tables. The uſual places of interment were in the ſuburbs and fields, but eſpecially by the way ſides. We have inſtances, however, of perſons buried in the city; but it was a favour allowed only to a few of ſingular merit in the commonwealth. Plutarch ſays, thoſe who had triumphed were indulged in it. Be this as it will, Val. Publicola, and C. Fabricius, are ſaid to have had tombs in the forum: and Cicero adds Tubertus to the number. Lycurgus allowed his Lacedemonians to bury their dead within the city and around their temples, that the youth, being inured to ſuch ſpectacles, might be the leſs terrified with the apprehenſion of death. Two reaſons are alledged why the ancients buried out of cities: the firſt, an opinion, that the ſight, touch, or even neighbourhood, of a corpſe defiled a man, eſpecially a prieſt; whence that rule in A. Gellius, that the *flamen Dialis* might not on any account enter a place where there was a grave: the ſecond, to prevent the air from being corrupted by the ſtench of putrified bodies, and the buildings from being endangered by the frequency of funeral fires. The firſt ſtep towards burying in churches (See BURIAL, § 2.) appears to have been the practice of erecting churches over the graves of ſome martyrs in the country, and tranſlating the relics of others into churches in the city; the next was, allowing kings and emperors to be buried in the atrium or church-porch. In the 6th century, the people began to be admitted into the church-yards; and ſome princes, founders, and biſhops, into the church. From that time the matter ſeems to have been left to the diſcretion of the biſhop.

BUSA, a fermented liquor made from meal and water, at Baſrah and Armenia.

BUSBEC, or BUSBEQUIUS, } Auger Giſlen, Lord of. See GISLEN.

BUSBY, Dr Richard, ſon of Richard Buſby, Eſq; of Weſtminſter, was born at Lutton in Lincolnſhire, in 1606. He paſſed through the claſſes in Weſtminſter, and completed his ſtudies at Oxford. In 1640, he was appointed maſter of Weſtminſter ſchool; and by his ſkill and diligence in the diſcharge of this important and laborious office, for the ſpace 55 years, bred up the greateſt number of eminent men in church and ſtate, that ever at one time adorned any age or nation. He was extremely ſevere in his ſchool; though he applauded

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plaudad wit in his ſcholars, even when it reflected on himſelf. This great man, after a long and healthy life, the effect of temperance, died in 1695, aged 89; and was buried in Weſtminſter abbey, where there is a fine monument erected for him, with a Latin inſcription. He compoſed ſeveral books for the uſe of his ſchool.

BUSCA, } or Busch, in old records, under-
BUSCAS, } wood, or bruſhwood.

BUSDORPH, a town of Germany in Weſtphalia; one of the ſcenes of the French operations under general Kleber, in June 1796.

BUSELAPHUS, in zoology, the name of an animal of the goat kind, called alſo MOSCHELAPHUS. It is of a middle ſhape between the ſtag and ox kind. Its head and ears are long, its legs and feet ſmall, its tail about a foot long, reſembling that of a heifer; its upper part reddiſh and very naked, its lower covered with long hairs. The hair of its whole body is of a tawny colour; its horns are black, ſmooth at the top, and round every where elſe. It has two teats, and is tame and fond of play. It is extremely ſwift in running, and in moſt reſpects, except in ſize, reſembles the common antelope *Ray*.

BUSELINUM. See SELINUM.

(1.) * BUSH. *n. ſ.* [*boiſ*, Fr.] 1. A thick ſhrub.

Eft through the thick they heard one rudely ruſh,
With noiſe whereof, he, from his lofty ſteed,
Down fell to ground, and crept into a *buſh*,
To hide his coward head from dying dread.
Fairy Queen.

—The poller, and exacter of fees, juſtifies the reſemblance of the courts of juſtice to the *buſh*, whereunto while the ſheep flies for defence from the weather, he is ſure to loſe part of the fleece. *Bacon's Eſſays.*—

Her heart was that ſtrange *buſh*, whoſe ſacred fire,
Religion did not conſume, but inſpire
Such piety, ſo chaſte uſe of God's day,
That what we turn to feaſt, ſhe turn'd to pray.
Donne.

With ſuch a care,
As roſes from their ſtalks we tear,
When we would ſtill prefer them new,
And freſh as on the *buſh* they grew. *Waller.*

The ſacred ground
Shall weeds and pois'nous plants refuſe to bear;
Each common *buſh* ſhall Syrian roſes wear?
Dryden.

2. A bough of a tree fixed up to a door, to ſhew that liquours are ſold there.—If it be true, that good wine needs no *buſh*, 'tis true that a good play needs no epilogue. *Shakeſpeare.*

(2.) BUSH, a term uſed for ſeveral ſhrubs of the ſame kind growing cloſe together: thus we ſay, a *furze-buſh*, *bramble-buſh*, &c. Buſh is ſometimes uſed, in a more general ſenſe, for any aſſemblage of thick branches interwoven and mixed together.

(3.) BUSH, Paul, the firſt biſhop of Briſtol, became a ſtudent in Oxford about 1513, and in 1518 took the degree of B. A. He afterwards became a brother of the order of *Bons-hommes*; of which, after ſtudying ſome time among the friars of St Auſtin, (now Wadham college,) he was elected provincial. In that ſtation he lived many years; till Henry VIII. being informed of his great knowledge in divinity and phyſic, made him his chaplain, and in 1542 appointed him to the new epiſcopal ſee of Briſtol: but having in the reign of Edward VI. taken a wife, he was, on the acceſſion of Mary, deprived of his dignity, and ſpent the remainder of his life at Briſtol, where he died in 1558, aged 68. Wood ſays, that while he was a ſtudent at Oxford, he was numbered among the celebrated poets of that univerſity; and Pits gives him the character of a faithful catholic. He wrote, 1. An exhortation to Margaret Burgeſs, wife to John Burgeſs, clothier of King's wood, in the county of Wilts. 8vo. 2. Notes on the Pſalms. 3. Treatiſe in praiſe of the croſs. 4. Anſwer to certain queries concerning the abuſes of the maſs. Records, N° 25. 5. Dialogues between Chriſt and the Virgin Mary. 6. Treatiſe of ſalves and curing remedies. 7. *The extirpation of ignorance*, &c. in verſe, Lond. by Pinſon, 4to. 8. *Carmina diverſa*.

(4.) BUSH, among huntſmen, a fox's tail.

(5.) BUSH, among wheel-wrights. See BUSHEL, § 1. *def.* 3.

(6.) BUSH, BURNING, the buſh wherein the Lord appeared to Moſes at the foot of mount Horeb, as he was feeding his father-in-law's flocks. As to the perſon that appeared in the buſh, the text ſays, "That the angel of the Lord appeared unto him in a flame of fire, out of the middle of the buſh;" but whether it was a created angel, ſpeaking in the perſon of God, or God himſelf, or (as the moſt received opinion is,) Chriſt the Son of God, has been matter of ſome controverſy among the learned. Thoſe who ſuppoſe it no more than an angel, ſeem to think that it would be a diminution of the majeſty of God, to appear upon every occaſion, eſpecially when he has ſuch a number of celeſtial miniſters. But conſidering that God is omni-preſent, the notification of his preſence by ſome outward ſign in one determinate place, (which is all that is meant by his appearance,) is in our conception leſs laborious (if any thing laborious could be conceived of almighty power,) than a delegation of angels upon every occaſion; and ſeems to illuſtrate rather than debaſe the glory of his nature and exiſtence. But however this be, it is plain that the angel here ſpoken of was no created being, from the whole context, and eſpecially from his ſaying, "I am the Lord God, the Jehovah," &c. ſince this is not the language of angels, who are always known to expreſs themſelves in ſuch humble terms as theſe, "I am ſent from God; I am thy fellow ſervant," &c. It is a vain pretext to ſay, that an angel, as God's ambaſſador, may ſpeak in God's name and perſon; for what ambaſſador of any prince ever yet ſaid, "I am the king?" Since therefore no angel could aſſume theſe titles; and ſince neither God the Father, nor the Holy Ghoſt, are ever called by the name of *angel*, *i. e.* "meſſenger, or perſon ſent," whereas God the Son is called by the prophet Malachi, (chap. iii. 1.) "The angel of the covenant;" it ſeems to follow, that this angel of the Lord was God the Son, who might very properly be called an *angel*, becauſe in the fulneſs of time he was ſent into the world in our fleſh, as a meſſenger from God, and might therefore make

theſe

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theſe his temporary apparitions, preſages, and forerunners, as it were, of his more ſolemn miſſion. The emblem of the burning buſh is uſed as the ſeal of the church of Scotland, with this motto; "Though burning, it is never conſumed."

* *To* BUSH. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To grow thick.—

The roſes *buſhing* round
About her glow'd, half ſtooping to ſupport
Each flow'r of tender ſtalk. *Milton.*

A guſhing fountain broke
Around it and above, for every green,
The *buſhing* alders form'd a ſhady ſcene.
Pope's Odeſſey.

BUSHAM, a town, in Suſſex, S. of Arundel.

BUSHBURY, a village in Staffordſhire, between Brewood and Walſall.

(1.) BUSHBY, a village in Renfrewſhire, where there are two cotton mills.

(2.) BUSHBY, N. of Wharleton Caſtle, Yorkſh.

(3.) BUSHBY PARVA, S. of Stokeſley, Yorkſhire.

(1.) * BUSHEL. *n. ſ.* [*boiſſeau*, Fr. *buſſellus*, low Lat.] 1. A meaſure containing 8 gallons; a ſtrike.—His reaſons are as two grains of wheat hid in two *buſhels* of chaff; you ſhall ſeek all day ere you find them, and when you have them they are not worth the ſearch. *Shak.* 2. It is uſed, in common language, indefinitely for a large quantity.—The worthies of antiquity bought the rareſt pictures with *buſhels* of gold without counting the weight or the number of pieces. *Dryden:* 3. *Buſhels of a cart wheel.* Irons within the hole of the nave, to preſerve it from wearing. [from *bouche*, Fr. a mouth.] *Dict.*

(2.) BUSHEL, a meaſure of capacity for things dry; as grains, pulſe, dry fruits, &c. containing 4 pecks, or ½ of a quarter. Du Cange derives the word from *buſellus*, *buſtellus*, or *biſellus*, a diminutive of *bus*, or *buzia*, uſed in the corrupt Latin for the ſame thing; others derive it from BUSSULUS, an *urn*, wherein lots were caſt; which ſeems to be a corruption from BUXULUS. BUSSELLUS appears to have been firſt uſed for a liquid meaſure of wine, equal to 8 gallons. *Octo libræ faciunt galonen vini, & octo galones vini faciunt* buſſelum *London, quæ eſt octava pars quarterii.* It was ſoon after transferred to the dry meaſure of corn of the ſame quantity.—*Pondus octo librarum frumenti facit* buſſelum, *de quibis octo conſiſtit quarterium.* By 12 Hen. VII. cap. 5. a buſhel is to contain 8 gallons of wheat; the gallon 8 pounds of wheat troy weight; the pound 12 ounces troy weight; the ounce 20 ſh. and the ſterling 32 graine, of corn or wheat, growing in the midſt of the ear. This ſtandard buſhel is kept in the exchequer; when, being filled with the common ſpring water, and the water meaſured before the houſe of commons in 1696, in a regular parallelopiped, it was found to contain 2145.6 ſolid inches; and the ſaid water being weighed, amounted to 1131 ounces and 14 penny weights troy. Beſides the ſtandard or legal buſhel, we have ſeveral local buſhels of different dimenſions in different places. At Abingdon and Andover, a buſhel contains 9 gallons; at Appleby and Penrith, a buſhel of peaſe, rye, and wheat, contains 16 gallons; of barley, big, malt; mixt malt, and oats, 20 gallons. A buſhel contains, at Carliſle, 24 gallons; at Cheſter, a buſhel of wheat, rye, &c. contains 32 gallons, and of oats 40; at Dorcheſter, a buſhel of malt and oats contains 10 gallons; at Falmouth, the buſhel of ſtricken coals is 16 gallons, of other things 20, and uſually 21 gallons: at Kingſton upon Thames, the buſhel contains 8½; at Newbury, 9; at Wycomb and Reading, 8¾; at Stamford 16 gallons.

(3.) BUSHELS, FRENCH, &c. At Paris, the buſhel is divided into 2 half buſhels; the half buſhel into 2 quarts: the quart into 2 half quarts; the half quart into 2 litrons; and the litron into 2 half litrons. The buſhel ſhould be 8 inches 2½ lines high, and 10 inches in diameter; the quart 4 inches 9 lines high, and 6 inches 9 lines wide; the half quart 4 inches 3 lines high, and 5 inches in diameter; the litron 3½ inches high, and 3 inches 10 lines in diameter. Three buſhels make a minot, ſix a mine, 12 a ſeptier, and 144 a muid. In other parts of France the buſhel varies: 14½ buſhels of Amboiſe and Tours make the Paris ſeptier: 20 buſhels Avignon make 3 Paris ſeptiers: 20 buſhels of Blois make one Paris ſeptier: 2 buſhels of Bourdeaux make one Paris ſeptier: 32 buſhels of Rochel make 19 Paris ſeptiers. Oats are meaſured in a double proportion to other grains; ſo that 20 buſhels of oats make a ſeptier, and 248 a muid. The buſhel of oats is divided into 4 picotins, the picotin into 2 half quarts, or 4 litrons. For ſalt 4 buſhels make one minot, and 6 a ſeptier. For coals 8 buſhels make one minot, 16 a mine, and 320 a muid. For lime, 3 buſhels make a minot, and 48 minots a muid. See MEASURE and WEIGHT.

BUSHFORD, a town in Somerſetſhire, near Dulverton.

BUSH-HILL, near Edmonton, Middleſex.

* BUSHINESS. *n. ſ.* [from *buſhy.*] The quality of being buſhy.

BUSHLEY, near Tewkſbury, Worceſterſhire.

BUSH-MEAD, near Eaton, Bedfordſhire.

* BUSHMENT. *n. ſ.* [from *buſh.*] A thicket; a cluſter of buſhes.—Princes thought how they might diſcharge the earth of woods, briars, *buſhments*, and waters, to make it more habitable and fertile. *Raleigh.*

BUSH-MILLS, a village of Ireland, in the county of Antrim, Ulſter.

BUSHTON, in Clavepepper pariſh, Wilts.

(1.) * BUSHY. *adj.* [from *buſh.*] 1. Thick; full of ſmall branches, not high.—

The gentle ſhepherd ſat beſide a ſpring,
All in the ſhadow of a *buſhy* brier. *Spenſer.*

—Generally the cutting away of boughs and ſuckers at the root and body, doth make trees grow high; and, contrariwiſe, the polling and cutting of the top, make them ſpread and grow *buſhy*. *Bacon.* 2. Thick like a buſh.—Statues of this god, with a thick *buſhy* beard, are ſtill many of them extant in Rome. *Addiſ.* 3. Full of buſhes.

The kids with pleaſure browſe the *buſhy* plain;
The ſhow'rs are grateful to the ſwelling grain.
Dryden.

(2, 3.) BUSHY, two villages; viz. 1. in Hertfordſh. near Watford: 2. two m. from Leiceſter.

(4.) BUSHY-HALL, NW. of Watford.

(5.) BUSHY-LEASE, a village in Hampſhire, in the pariſh of Fackham, has fairs in April and Oct

(6.) BUSHEY-PARK, near Hampton Court.

* BUSILESS. *adj.* [from *buſy.*] At leiſure; without buſineſs: unemployed.—

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The ſweet thoughts do even refreſh my labour,
Moſt *buſileſs* when I do it. *Shakeſpeare.*

* BUSILY. *adv.* [from *buſy.*] 1. With an air of importance; with an air of hurry. 2. Curiouſly; importunately.—

Or if too *buſily* they will enquire
Into a victory, which we diſdain,
Then let them know, the Belgians did retire,
Before the patron ſaint of injur'd Spain. *Dryd.*

* BUSINESS. *n. ſ.* [from *buſy.*] 1. Employment; multiplicity of affairs.—

Moſt *buſineſs* thee from hence remove?
Oh! that's the worſt diſeaſe of love. *Donne.*

2. An affair. In this ſenſe it has the *plural.*—

Beſtow
Your needful counſel to our *buſineſſes*,
Which crave the inſtant uſe. *Shakeſpeare.*

3. The ſubject of buſineſs; the affair or object that engages the care.—You are ſo much the *buſineſs* of our ſouls, that while you are in ſight we can neither look nor think on any elſe; there are no eyes for other beauties. *Dryden.*—The great *buſineſs* of the ſenſes, being to take notice of what hurts or advantages the body. *Locke.* 4. Serious engagement, in oppoſition to trivial tranſactions.—I never knew one, who made it his *buſineſs* to laſh the faults of other writers, that was not guilty of greater himſelf. *Addiſon.*—He had *buſineſs* enough upon his hands, and was only a poet by accident. *Prior.*—When diverſion is made the *buſineſs* and ſtudy of life, though the actions choſen be in themſelves innocent, the exceſs will render them criminal. *Rogers.* 5. Right of action.—What *buſineſs* has a tortoiſe among the clouds? *L'Eſtrange.* 6. A point; a matter of queſtion; ſomething to be examined or conſidered.—Fitneſs to govern, is a perplexed *buſineſs*; ſome men, ſome nations, excel in the one ability, ſome in the other. *Bacon.* 7. Something to be tranſacted.—They were far from the Zidonians, and had no *buſineſs* with any one. *Judges.* 8. Something required to be done.—To thoſe people that dwell under or near the equator, this ſpring would be moſt peſtilent; as for thoſe countries that are nearer the poles, in which number are our own, and the moſt conſiderable nations of the world, a perpetuall ſpring will not do their *buſineſs*; they muſt have longer days, a nearer approach of the ſun. *Bentley.* 9. *To do one's buſineſs.* To kill, deſtroy, or ruin him.

(1.) BUSIRIS, in ancient geography, a city of the Lower Egypt, S. of Leontopolis, on the Buſiriticus; built by Buſiris In this city there ſtood a grand temple of Iſis, which gave it the appellation of the city of Iſis. It was deſtroyed, on a revolt by Dioclefian.

(2.) BUSIRIS, in fabulous hiſtory, a tyrant of Egypt, noted for his cruelty, and ſlain by Hercules. Strabo denies ſuch a tyrant ever exiſted; Iſocrates has written his panegyric.

(1.) BUSIRTICIUS FLUVIUS, in ancient geography, that branch of the Nile which empties itſelf at the mouth called Oſtium Pathmeticum, or Phatniticum, alſo a part, according to an ancient map, at the Oſtium Mindeſium; this branch, dividing at Dioſpolis into two branches: called Buſiritiçus, from the city of Buſiris, which ſtood on its left, or weſt branch. It is the ſecond branch of the Nile, reckoning from the E.

(2.) BUSIRITICUS NOMOS, in ancient geography, a prefecture, or diviſion of Lower Egypt; ſo called from the city Buſiris.

BUSITIS, in ancient geography, a diſtrict of Arabia Deſerta; the country of Elihu; ſo called from BUZ, Nahor's ſecond ſon. It is called BUZITES, by the Septuagint.

* BUSK. *n. ſ.* [*buſque*, Fr.] A piece of ſtell or whalebone, worn by women to ſtrengthen their ſtays.—

Off with that happy *buſk*, which I envy,
That ſtill can be, and ſtill can ſtand ſo nigh.
Donne.

(1.) * BUSKIN. *n. ſ.* [*broſeken*, Dutch.] 1. A kind of half boot; a ſhoe which comes to the mid-leg.—The foot was dreſſed in a ſhort pair of velvet *buſkins*; in ſome places open, to ſhew the fairneſs of the ſkin. *Sidney.*—

Sometimes Diana he her takes to be,
But miſſeth bow, and ſhafts, and *buſkins* to her knee. *Spenſer.*

—There is a kind of ruſticity in all thoſe pompous verſes ſomewhat of a holiday ſhepherd ſtrutting in his country *buſkins*. *Dryden.* 2. A kind of high ſhoe worn by the ancient actors of tragedy, to raiſe their ſtature.—

Great Fletcher never treads in *buſkins* here,
Nor greater Johnſon dares in ſocks appear. *Dryd.*
In her beſt light the comick muſe appears,
When ſhe, with borrow'd pride, the *buſkin* wears.
Smith.

(2.) BUSKINS anciently were adapted to either foot, and worn by either ſex. This part of dreſs, covering both the foot and mid leg, was tied below the knee; it was very rich and principally uſed on the ſtage by actors in tragedy. It was of a quadrangular form; and the ſole was ſo thick, as that, by means thereof, men of ordinary ſtature might be raiſed to the pitch and elevation of the heroes they perſonated. The colour was generally purple on the ſtage; herein it was diſtinguiſhed from the ſock worn in comedy, that being only a low common ſhoe. The buſkin ſeems to have been worn not only by actors but by girls, to raiſe their height; travellers and hunters alſo made uſe of it to defend themſelves from the mire. In claſſic authors, we frequently find the buſkin uſed for tragedy itſelf, as it was a mark of tragedy on the ſtage. It was alſo to be underſtood for a lofty ſtrain or high ſtyle.

* BUSKINED. *adj.* [from *buſkin.*] Dreſſed in buſkins.—

Or what though rare, of later age,
Ennobled hath the *buſkin'd* ſtage? *Milton.*
Here, arm'd with ſilver bows in early dawn,
Her *buſkin'd* virgins traced the dewy lawn. *Pope.*

* BUSKY. *adj.* [written more properly by *Milton*, *boſky*. See BOSKY.] Woody ſhaded with woods; overgrown with trees.—

How bloodily the ſun begins to peer
Above yon *buſky* hill! *Shakeſpeare.*

(1.) * BUSS. *n. ſ.* [*bus*, the mouth Iriſh; *bouche*, Fr.] 1. A kiſs: a ſalute with the lips.—Thou doſt give me flattering *buſſes*.—By my troth, I kiſs thee with a conſtant heart. *Shakeſpeare.*—

Some

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Some ſquire perhaps you take delight to rack,
Who viſits with a gun, preſents with birds,
Then gives a ſmacking *buſs*. *Pope.*

2. A boat for fiſhing. [*buſſe*, German.] If the king would enter towards building ſuch a number of boats and *buſſes*, as each company could eaſily manage, it would be an encouragement both of honour and advantage. *Temple.*

(2.) BUSS, (§ 1. *def.* 2.) is a ſmall ſea-veſſel, uſed by us and the Dutch, in the herring fiſhery, commonly from 48 to 60 tons burden, and ſometimes more: a buſs has two ſmall ſheds or cabins, one at the prow and the other at the ſtern; that at the prow ſerves for a kitchen. Every buſs has a maſter, an aſſiſtant, a mate, and ſeamen in proportion to the ſize of the veſſel; the maſter commands in chief, and without his expreſs orders the nets cannot be caſt nor taken up; the aſſiſtant has the command after him; and the mate next, whoſe buſineſs is to ſee the ſeamen manage their rigging in a proper manner, to mind thoſe who draw in their nets, and thoſe who kill, gut, and cure the herrings, as they are taken out of the ſea: the ſeamen generally engage for a whole voyage in the lump. The proviſion, which they take on board the buſſes, conſiſt commonly in biſket, oat meal, and dried or ſalt fiſh; the crew being content for the reſt with what freſh fiſh they catch. See FISHERIES.

* *To* BUSS. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To kiſs; to ſalute with the lips.—

Yonder walls, that partly front your town,
Yond towers, whoſe wanton tops do *buſs* the clouds,
Muſt kiſs their feet. *Shakeſpeare.*

Go to them with this bonnet in thy hand,
Thy knee *buſſing* the ſtones; for in ſuch buſineſs,
Action is eloquence. *Shakeſpeare.*

BUSSA, a large ſort of veſſel of war, in uſe in the middle age, ſpoke of by antiquaries and hiſtorians under the denominations of *buſſa*, *buſcia*, *burcia*, *buza*, *bucca*, and *bucia*.

BUSSAGE, a hamlet of Biſley, Glouceſterſhire.

BUSSARA, or BASSORA. See BASSORA.

BUSSELLUS. See BUSHEL.

BUSSORES, from Baſſora, whence they were originally brought, a name given by ſome to that ſpecies of pigeon called the carrier.

BUSSULUS. See BUSHEL, § 2.

BUSSY, Roger Rabutin, count of. See RABUTIN.

(1.) * BUST. *n. ſ.* [*buſto*, Ital.] A ſtatue repreſenting a man to his breaſt.—Agrippa, or Caligula, is a common coin, but a very extraordinary *buſt*; and a Tiberius, a rare coin, but a common *buſt*. *Addiſon on Italy.*—

Ambition ſigh'd: ſhe found it vain to truſt
The faithleſs column, and the crumbling *buſt*.
Pope.

(2.) BUST, or BUSTO, in ſculpture, denotes the figure or portrait of a perſon in relievo, ſhowing only the head, ſhoulders, and ſtomach, the arms being lopped off; ordinarily placed on a pedeſtal or conſole. In ſpeaking of an antique, we ſay the head is marble, and the buſt porphyry, or bronze, that is, the ſtomach and ſhoulders. Felibien obſerves, that though in painting, one may ſay a figure appears in buſto, yet it is not properly called a *buſt*, that word being confined to things in relievo. The buſt is the ſame with what the Latins called HERMA, from the Greek Hermes, Mercury, the image of that god being frequently repreſented in this manner among the Athenians.

(3.) BUST is alſo uſed, eſpecially by the Italians, for the trunk of a human body, from the neck to the hips.

(1.) BUSTA GALLICA, was a place in ancient Rome, wherein the bones of the Gauls, who firſt took the city, and were ſlain by Camillus, were depoſited. It differed from

(2.) BUSTA GALLORUM, a place on the Apennines, ſo called from many thouſands of Gauls being killed there by Fabius.

BUSTAH, a town of Orkney, in Fair Iſle.

(1.) * BUSTARD. *n. ſ.* [*biſtarde*, Fr.] A wild turkey.—His ſacrifices were phenicopters, peacocks, *buſtards*, turkeys, pheaſants; and all theſe were daily offered. *Hakewill.*

(2.) BUSTARD, in ornithology. See OTIS.

BUSTA VOE, a harbour on the coaſt of Shetland.

BUSTELLUS. See BUSHEL, § 2.

* BUSTLE. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] A tumult; a hurry; a combuſtion.—

Wiſdom's ſelf
Oft ſeeks to ſweet retired ſolitude:
She plumes her feathers, and lets grow her wings,
That in the various *buſtle* of reſort,
Were all too ruffl'd. *Milton.*

—This is the creature that pretends to knowledge, and that makes ſuch a noiſe and *buſtle* for opinions. *Glanville.*—Such a doctrine made a ſtrange *buſtle* and diſturbance in the world, which then ſate warm and eaſy in a free enjoyment of their luſts. *South.*—If the count had given them a pot of ale after it, all would have been well, without any of this *buſtle*. *Spectator.*

* *To* BUSTLE. *v. n.* [of uncertain etymology; perhaps from *buſy*.] To be buſy; to ſtir; to be active.—

Come, *buſtle*, *buſtle*—capariſon my horſe. *Shak.*
God take king Edward to his mercy,
And leave the world for me to *buſtle* in. *Shak.*

—Sir Henry Vane was a buſy and *buſtling* man, who had credit enough to do his buſineſs in all places. *Clarendon.*—

A poor abject worm,
That crawl'd a while upon a *buſtling* world,
And now am trampled to my duſt again.
Southerne.

Ye ſov'reign lords, who ſit like gods in ſtate,
Awing the world, and *buſtling* to be great!
Granville.

* BUSTLER. *n. ſ.* [from *buſtle*.] An active ſtirring man.

BUSTLETON, two towns: 1. in Hampſhire, 12 miles from Portſmouth: 2. in Northumberland, near Heydon.

BUSTO. See BUST, § 2.

BUSTON, two villages; 1. in Kent, near Maidſtone: 2. in Northumberland, near Alnwick.

BUSTROPHE. See BOUSTROPHEDON.

BUSTUARIÆ MORCHÆ, in antiquity, according to ſome, women that were hired to accompany the funeral and lament the loſs of the deceaſed: but others are of opinion, that they were rather

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rather common proſtitutes, that ſtood among the tombs, graves, and other ſuch lonely places.

BUSTUARII, in Roman antiquity, gladiators who fought about the buſtum or funeral pile of a perſon of diſtinction, that the blood which was ſpilt, might ſerve as a ſacrifice to the infernal gods, and render them more propitious to the manes of the deceaſed. This cuſtom was introduced in the room of the more inhuman one of ſacrificing captives at the buſtum, or on the tombs of warriors.

(1.) BUSTUM, in antiquity, denotes a pyramid or pile of wood, whereon were anciently placed the bodies of the deceaſed, in order to be burnt. The Romans borrowed the cuſtom of burning their dead from the Greeks. The deceaſed, crowned with flowers, and dreſſed in his richeſt habits, was laid on the buſtum. Some authors ſay, it was only called *buſtum*, after the burning, *quaſi bene uſtum:* before the burning it was more properly called *pyra;* during it, *rogus:* and afterwards, *buſtum.* When the body was only burnt there, and buried elſewhere, the place was not properly called *buſtum*, but USTRINA, or *uſtrinum.* Buſtum was alſo figuratively applied to denote any tomb. Whence thoſe phraſes, *facere buſtum, violare buſtum*, &c.

(2.) BUSTUM, in the Campus Martius, was a ſtructure whereon the emperor Auguſtus firſt, and after him the bodies of his ſucceſſors, were burnt. It was built of white ſtone, ſurrounded with an iron paliſade, and planted withinſide with alder trees.

(3.) BUSTUM OF AN ALTER, was the hearth or place where the fire was kindled.

BUSTWATH HILL, in Cumberland, near Burgh-Marſh.

* BUSY. *adj.* [*byrzian*, Sax. It is pronounced as *biſſy*, or *bizzy.*] 1. Employed with earneſtneſs. —My miſtreſs ſends you word, that ſhe is *buſy*, and cannot come. *Shakeſpeare.* 2. Buſtling; active; meddling.—

The next thing which ſhe waking looks upon,
On meddling monkey, or on *buſy* ape,
She ſhall purſue it with the ſoul of love. *Shak.*

Thus *buſy* pow'r is working day and night;
For when the outward ſenſes reſt do take,
A thouſand dreams, fantaſtical and light,
With flutt'ring wings, do keep her ſtill awake.
Davies.

The coming ſpring would firſt appear,
And all this place with roſes ſtrow,
If *buſy* feet would let them grow. *Waller.*

—All written ſince that time, ſeem to have little more than events we are glad to know, or the controverſy of opinions, wherein the *buſy* world has been ſo much employed. *Temple.*—Religious motives and inſtincts are ſo *buſy* in the heart of every reaſonable creature, that no man would hope to govern a ſociety, without regard to thoſe principles. *Addiſon.* 3. Troubleſome; vexatiouſly importunate or intenſive.—The Chriſtians, ſometimes valiantly receiving the enemy, and ſometimes charging them again, repulſed the proud enemy, ſtill *buſy* with them. *Knolles's Hiſtory of the Turks.*

* *To* BUSY. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To employ; to engage; to make or keep buſy.—

He in great paſſion all this while did dwell,
More *buſying* his quick eyes her face to view,
Than his dull ears to hear what ſhe did tell.
Fairy Queen.

—The pleaſure which I took at my friend's pleaſure herein, idly *buſied* me thus to expreſs the ſame. *Careau's Survey.*—

Be it thy courſe to *buſy* giddy minds
With foreign quarrels. *Shakeſpeare.*

—While they were *buſied* to lay the foundations, their buildings were overthrown by an earthquake, and many thouſands of the Jews were overwhelmed. *Raleigh.*—The points which *buſied* the devotion of the firſt ages, and the curioſity of the latter. *Decay of Piety.*—The ideas it is *buſied* about, ſhall be natural and congenial ones, which it had in itſelf. *Locke.*—The learning and diſputes of the ſchools have been much *buſied* about genus and ſpecies. *Locke.*—For the reſt, it muſt be owned, he does not *buſy* himſelf, by entering deep into any party, but rather ſpends his time in acts of hoſpitality. *Swift.*

* BUSYBODY. *n. ſ.* [from *buſy* and *body.*] A vain, meddling, fantaſtical perſon.—Going from houſe to houſe, tatlers and *buſybodies*, are the canker and ruſt of idleneſs, as idleneſs is the ruſt of time. *Taylor.*—*Buſybodies* and intermeddlers are a dangerous ſort of people to have to do withal. *L'Eſtrange.*—She is well acquainted with all the favourite ſervants, *buſybodies*, dependants, and poor relations of all perſons of condition in the whole town. *Spectator.*

(1) * BUT. *conjunct.* [*bate, butan*, Saxon.] 1. Except.—An emiſſion of immateriate virtues we are a little doubtful to propound, it is ſo prodigious: *but* that it is ſo conſtantly avouched by many. *Bacon.*—

Who can it be, ye gods! *but* perjur'd Lycon?
Who can inſpire ſuch ſtorms of rage, *but* Lycon?
Where has my ſword left one ſo black, *but* Lycon? *Smith.*

—Your poem hath been printed, and we have no objection *but* the obſcurity of ſeveral paſſages, by our ignorance in facts and perſons. *Swift.* 2. Except then; had it not been that: in this ſenſe we now write *but that.* See ſenſe 11.

And *but* infirmity,
Which waits upon worn times, hath ſomething ſeiz'd
His wiſh'd ability, he had himſelf
The lands, and waters meaſur'd. *Shakeſpeare.*

3. Yet; nevertheleſs. It ſometimes only enforces *yet.*—Then let him ſpeak, and any that ſhall ſtand without ſhall hear his voice plainly; *but yet* made extreme ſharp and exile, like the voice of puppets: and yet the articulate ſounds of the words will not be confounded. *Bacon.*—Our wants are many, and grievous to be born, *but* quite of another kind. *Swift.* 4. The particle which introduces the minor of a ſyllogiſm; now.—If there be a liberty and poſſibility for a man to kill himſelf to-day, then it is not abſolutely neceſſary that he ſhall live till to-morrow; *but* there is ſuch a liberty, therefore no ſuch neceſſity. *Bramhall againſt Hobbes.*—God will one time or another make a difference between the good and the evil. *But* there is little or no difference made

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in this world: therefore there must be another world, wherein this difference shall be made. *Watt's Logick.* 5. Only; nothing more than.—

If my offence be of mortal kind,
That not my service, past or present sorrows,
Can ransom me into his love again;
But to know so, must be my benefit. *Shakesp.*

What nymph soe'er his voice *but* hears,
Will be my rival, though she have *but* ears.
Ben Jonson.

No, Aurengzebe, you merit all my heart,
And I'm too noble *but* to give a part. *Dryden.*

—Did *but* men consider the true notion of God, he would appear to be full of goodness. *Tillotson.* —If we do *but* put virtue and vice in equal circumstances, the advantages of ease and pleasure will be found to be on the side of religion. *Tillotson.*—The mischiefs or harms that come by play, inadvertency, or ignorance are not at all, or *but* very gently, to be taken notice of. *Locke on Education.*—If a reader examines Horace's Art of Poetry, he will find *but* very few precepts in it, which he may not meet with in Aristotle. *Addis.*

Prepar'd I stand: he was *but* born to try
The lot of man, to suffer and to die. *Pope.*

6. Than.—The full moon was no sooner up, and shining in all its brightness, *but* he opened the gate of Paradise. *Guardian.* 7. But that; without this consequence that.—

Frosts that constrain the ground,
Do seldom their usurping power withdraw,
But raging floods pursue their hasty hand.
Dryden.

8. Otherwise than that.—It cannot be *but* nature hath some director, of infinite power, to guide her in all her ways. *Hooker.*—

Who shall believe,
But you misuse the reverence of your place?
Shakespeare.

9. Not more than; even.—A genius so elevated and unconfined as Mr Cowley's, was *but* necessary to make Pindar speak English. *Dryden.* 10. By any other means than.—

Beroe *but* now I left; whom pin'd with pain,
Her age and anguish from these rites detain.
Dryden.

—It is evident, in the instance I gave *but* now, the consciousness went along. *Locke.*—Out of that will I cause those of Cyprus to mutiny: whose qualification shall come into no true taste again, *but* by transplanting of Cassia. *Shakespeare.* 11. If it were not for this; that; if it were not that. Obsolete.—

Believe me, I had rather have lost my purse
Full of cruzades. And, *but* my noble Moor
Is true of mind, and made of no such baseness,
As jealous creatures are, it were enough
To put him to ill thinking. *Shakespeare.*

I here do give thee that with all my heart,
Which *but* thou hast already, with all my heart
I would keep from thee. *Shakespeare.*

12. However; howbeit: a word of indeterminate connection:—

I do not doubt but I have been to blame;
But, to pursue the end for which I came,
Unite your subjects first, then let us go,
And pour their common rage upon the foe.
Dryden.

13. It is used after *no doubt*, *no question*, and such words, and signifies the same with *that*. It sometimes is joined with *that*.—They made no account, *but that* the navy should be absolutely master of the seas. *Bacon.*—I fancied to myself a kind of ease in the change of the paroxysm; never suspecting *but that* the humour would have wasted itself. *Dryden.*—There is no question *but* the king of Spain will reform most of the abuses. *Addison.* 14. That. This seems no proper sense in this place.—It is not therefore impossible, *but* I may alter the complexion of my play, to restore myself into the good graces of my fair criticks. *Dryden.* 15. Otherwise than. Obsolete.—

I should sin
To think *but* nobly of my grandmother.
Shakespeare.

16. A particle by which the meaning of the foregoing sentence is bounded or restrained; only.—

Thus fights Ulysses, thus his fame extends,
A formidable man, *but* to his friends. *Dryden.*

17. A particle of objection; yet it may be objected: it has sometimes *yet* with it.—

But yet, madam—
I do not like *but yet*; it does allay
The good precedence; fie upon *but yet!*
But yet is as a jaylour, to bring forth
Some monstrous malefactor. *Shakespeare.*

—Must the heart then have been formed and constituted, before the blood was in being? *But* here again, the substance of the heart itself is most certainly made and nourished by the blood, which is conveyed to it by the coronary arteries. *Bentley.* 18. *But for*; without; had not this been.—

Rash man! forbear, *but for* some unbelief,
My joy had been as fatal as my grief. *Waller.*

Her head was bare,
But for her native ornament of hair,
Which in a simple knot was ty'd above.
Dryden.

When the fair boy receiv'd the gift of right,
And, *but for* mischief, you had died for spight.
Dryden.

(2.) * BUT. *n. s.* [*bout*, French.] A boundary. —*But*, if I ask you what I mean by that word, you will answer, I mean this or that thing, you cannot tell which; but if I join it with the words in construction and sense, as, *but* I will not, a *but* of wine, *but* and boundary, the ram will *but*, shoot at *but*, the meaning of it will be as ready to you as any other word. *Holder.*

(3.) * BUT. *n. s.* [In sea language.] The end of any plank which joins to another on the outside of a ship, under water. *Harris.*

BUTADÆ. See ATHENS, § 9.

(1.) * BUTCHER. *n. s.* [*boucher*, Fr.] 1. One that kills animals to sell their flesh.—The shepherd and the *butcher* both may look upon one sheep with pleasing conceits. *Sidney.*—

Hence he learnt the *butcher's* guile,
How to cut your throat, and smile;
Like a *butcher* doom'd for life
In his mouth to wear his knife. *Swift.*

2. One that is delighted with blood.—Honour and renown are bestowed on conquerors, who, for the most part, are but the great *butchers* of mankind. *Locke.*

(2.) BUTCHERS, in antiquity. Among the ancient

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cient Romans, there were three kinds of eſtabliſhed butchers, whoſe office it was to furniſh the city with the neceſſary cattle, and to take care of preparing and vending their fleſh. The ſuarii provided hogs; the pecuarii or boarii, other cattle, eſpecially oxen; and under theſe was a ſubordinate claſs, whoſe office was to kill, called *lanii*, and *carnifices*. To exerciſe the office of butcher among the Jews with dexterity, was of more reputation than to underſtand the liberal arts and ſciences. They have a book concerning ſhamble-conſtitution; and in caſe of any difficulty, they apply to ſome learned rabbi for advice: nor was any allowed to practiſe this art, without a licence in form; which gave the man, upon evidence of his abilities, a power to kill meat, and others to eat what he killed; provided he carefully read every week for one year, and every month the next year, and once a quarter during his life, the conſtitution above mentioned.

(3.) BUTCHERS, LAWS RESPECTING. For preventing the abuſes committed by butchers, he that ſells ſwine's fleſh meaſled, or dead of the murrain, for the firſt offence ſhall be amerced; for the 2d, pilloried; for the 3d, impriſoned and fined; and for the 4th, he muſt abjure the town. Butchers not ſelling meat at reaſonable prices, ſhall forfeit double the value, leviable by two juſtices of the peace. No butcher ſhall kill any fleſh in his ſcalding-houſe, or within the walls of London, on pain to forfeit for every ox ſo killed, 12d. and for every other beaſt, 8d. to be divided betwixt the king and the proſecutor.

* *To* BUTCHER. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To kill; to murder.—

In ſuffering thus thy brother to be ſlaughter'd,
Thou ſheweſt the naked pathway to thy life,
Teaching ſtern murder how to *butcher* thee.
Shakeſpeare.

Uncharitably with me have you dealt,
And ſhamefully by you my hopes are *butcher'd*.
Shakeſpeare.

—The poiſon and the dagger are at hand to *butcher* a hero, when the poet wants brains to ſave him. *Dryden.*

BUTCHER-BIRD. See LANIUS.

* BUTCHERLINESS. *n. ſ.* [from *butcherly*.] A brutal, cruel, ſavage, butcherly manner.

* BUTCHERLY. *adj.* [from *butcher*.] Cruel; bloody; barbarous.—There is a way which, brought into ſchools, would take away this *butcherly* fear in making of Latin. *Aſcham.*—

What ſtratagems, how fell, how *butcherly*,
This deadly quarrel daily doth beget. *Shakeſ.*

(1.) * BUTCHER'S-BROOM, or KNEEHOLLY. *n. ſ.* [*ruſcus*, Lat.] The roots are ſometimes uſed in medicine, and the green ſhoots are cut and bound into bundles, and ſold to the butchers, who uſe it as beſoms to ſweep their blocks; from whence it had the name of *butcher's broom*. *Miller.*

(2.) BUTCHER'S-BROOM. See RUSCUS.

BUTCHER'S ISLAND, in the Eaſt Indies, a ſmall iſland about two miles long and ſcarce one broad. It has its name from cattle being kept there for the uſe of Bombay, from which it is about three miles diſtant. It has a ſmall fort, but of very little conſequence.

* BUTCHERY. *n. ſ.* [from *butcher*.] 1. The trade of a butcher.—Yet this man, ſo ignorant in modern *butchery*, has cut up half an hundred heroes, and quartered five or ſix miſerable lovers, in every tragedy he has written. *Pope.* 2. Murder; cruelty; ſlaughter.—

If thou delight to view thy heinous deeds,
Behold this pattern of thy *butcheries*. *Shakeſ.*

—The *butchery*, and the breach of hoſpitality, is repreſented in this fable under the maſk of friendſhip. *L'Eſtrange.*—

Can he a ſon to ſoft remorſe incite,
Whom goals, and blood, and *butchery* delight?
Dryden.

3. The place where animals are killed, where blood is ſhed.—

There is no place, this houſe is but a *butchery*;
Abhor it, fear it, do not enter it. *Shakeſp.*

BUTCOMB, a village in Somerſetſhire, 8E. of Winton.

(1.) BUTE, an iſland lying to the W. of Scotland, being ſeparated from Cowal in Argyleſhire, only by a narrow channel. In length it is about 18 miles; the broadeſt part from E. to W. is about 5. Part of it is rocky and barren; but from the middle ſouthwards, the ground is cultivated, and produces peaſe, oats, and barley. Here is a quarry of red ſtone, which the natives have uſed in building a fort and chapel in the neighbourhood of Rothſay, which is a very ancient royal borough, head town of the ſhire of Bute and Arran; but very thinly peopled, and maintained chiefly by the herring fiſhery, with the profits of which all the rents of this iſland are moſtly paid. On the N. ſide of Rothſay are the ruins of an ancient fort, with its draw-bridge, chapel, and barracks. It has likewiſe the remains of ſome Daniſh towers. The natives are healthy and induſtrious, ſpeak the Erſe and the dialect of the Lowlands indifferently, and profeſs the Proteſtant religion. The iſland is divided into two pariſhes, accommodated with four churches; and belongs chiefly to the earl of Bute, who poſſeſſes an elegant ſeat near Rothſay. The name has in different periods been very differently written; as *Bote, Both, Bothe, Boot*, but now generally *Bute*. Our ancient writers ſuppoſe that it derived its name from a cell erected therein by St Brendan, an Iriſh abbot who flouriſhed in the 6th century, becauſe in his language ſuch a cell was called *Both*. It is, however, probable, that this name was of greater antiquity, ſince we find it denominated *Botis* by the anonymous geographer of Ravenna. It was from very early times part of the patrimony of the Stuarts: large poſſeſſions in it were granted to Sir John Stuart, ſon of Robert II. by his beloved miſtreſs Elizabeth More; and it has continued in that line to the preſent time.

(2.) BUTE, a ſhire of Scotland, comprehending the iſland, (N° 1.) with thoſe of Arran, the two Cumbrays, and Inchmarnock. This county and that of Caithneſs ſend a member to parliament alternately. The earl of Bute is admiral of the county, by commiſſion from his majeſty; and no way dependent on the lord high admiral of Scotland: ſo that if any maritime caſe occurs within his juriſdiction (even crimes of as high a nature as murder

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murder or piracy), he is judge, by virtue of his powers as admiral, or he may delegate his authority to any deputies.

(3.) BUTE, John, Earl of. See STEWART.

(4.) BUTE, KEILS OF, a ſafe harbour in the iſland, N° 1.

* BUT-END. *n. ſ.* [from *but* and *end.*] The blunt end of any thing; the end upon which it reſts.—The reſerve of foot galled their foot with ſeveral vollies, and then fell on them with the *but-ends* of their muſkets. *Clarendon.*—Thy weapon was a good one when I wielded it, but the *but-end* remains in my hands. *Arbuthnot.*—Some of the ſoldiers accordingly puſhed them forwards with the *but-ends* of their pikes, into my reach. *Swift.*

BUTEO, in ornithology, the trivial name of a ſpecies of FALCO.

BUTES. See ATHENS, § 9.

BUTHNA. See BOTHENA.

BUTHOE, or } an iſland of Dalmatia. See
BUTHOECE, } BATUA and BUDOA.

BUTHROTUM. See BUTRINTO, N° 2.

BUTHYSIA, [βυθυσια,] in antiquity, a ſacrifice of the greateſt kind; ſuch were the hecatombs. See SACRIFICE and HECATOMB. The Greeks frequently prefixed the particle βυ to words, to denote things of extraordinary magnitude, as alluding to the bigneſs of oxen.

BUTIGA, an inflammation of the whole face.

(1.) BUTLER, Charles, a native of Wycomb in Bucks, and M. A. in Magdalen college, Oxford, publiſhed a book, "The principles of muſic in ſinging and ſetting; with the two-fold uſe thereof, eccleſiaſtical and civil:" 4to. Lond. 1636. He was a perſon of ſingular learning and ingenuity, which he manifeſted in ſundry other works enumerated by Wood in the *Athen. Oxon.* Among the reſt is an Engliſh grammar, publiſhed in 1633, in which he propoſes a ſcheme of regular orthography, and makes uſe of characters, ſome borrowed from the Saxon, and others of his own invention, ſo ſingular, that we want types to exhibit them: and of this ſuppoſed improvement he appears to have been ſo fond, that all his tracts are printed in the ſame manner with his grammar. The conſequence has been an almoſt general diſguſt to all that he has written. His Principles of Muſic is, however, a very learned, curious, and entertaining book; and, by the help of the advertiſement prefixed to it, explaining the powers of the characters uſed by him, may be read to great advantage, and may be conſidered as a judicious ſupplement to Morley's introduction.

(2.) BUTLER, Joſeph, biſhop of Durham, a prelate diſtinguiſhed by his piety and learning, was the youngeſt ſon of Mr Thomas Butler, a reputable ſhop-keeper at Wantage, in Berkſhire, where he was born in 1692. His father, who was a preſbyterian, obſerving that he had a ſtrong inclination to learning, ſent him to an academy in Glouceſterſhire, to qualify him for a diſſenting miniſter; and while there, he wrote ſome remarks on Dr Clerk's firſt ſermon at Boyle's lecture. Afterwards, reſolving to conform to the eſtabliſhed church, he ſtudied at Oriel college, where he contracted an intimate friendſhip with Mr Edward Talbot, brother to the lord chancellor, who laid the foundation of his ſubſequent advancement. He was firſt appointed preacher at the Rolls, and rector of Haughton and Stanhope, two rich benefices in the biſhopric of Durham. He quitted the Rolls in 1726; and publiſhed in 8vo a volume of ſermons, preached at that chapel. After this he conſtantly reſided at Stanhope, in the regular diſcharge of all the duties of his office, till 1733, when he was called to attend the lord chancellor Talbot as his chaplain, who gave him a prebend in the church of Rocheſter. In 1736, he was appointed clerk of the cloſet to queen Caroline, whom he attended every day, from 7 to 9 in the evening. In 1738 he was appointed biſhop of Briſtol; and not long afterwards dean of St Paul's, London. He now reſigned his living of Stanhope. In 1746, he was made clerk of the cloſet to the king; and in 1750, was tranſlated to Durham. This rich preferment he enjoyed but a ſhort time; for he died at Bath, June 16th, 1752. His corpſe was interred in the cathedral at Briſtol; where there is a monument, with an inſcription, erected to his memory. He died a bachelor. His deep learning and comprehenſive mind appear ſufficiently in his writings; particularly in that excellent treatiſe entitled, *The Analogy of religion, natural and revealed, to the conſtitution and courſe of nature*, publiſhed in 8vo, 1736.

(3.) BUTLER, Samuel, a celebrated poet of the laſt century, was the ſon of a reputable Worceſterſhire farmer, and born in 1612. He paſſed ſome time at Cambridge, but was never matriculated. Returning to his native country, he lived ſome years as a clerk to a juſtice of peace; where he found time to apply himſelf to hiſtory, poetry, and painting. Being recommended to Elizabeth counteſs of Kent, he enjoyed in her houſe, not only the uſe of all kinds of books, but the converſation of the great Mr Selden, who often employed Butler to write letters, and tranſlate for him. He lived alſo ſome time with Sir Samuel Luke, a gentleman of an ancient family in Bedfordſhire, and a famous commander under Oliver Cromwell; and he is ſuppoſed at this time to have wrote, or at leaſt to have planned, his celebrated *Hudibras*; and under that character to have ridiculed the knight. The poem itſelf furniſhes this key; where, in the firſt canto, Hudibras ſays,

"'Tis ſung, there is a valiant mamaluke
"In foreign land yclep'd — — —
"To whom we oft have been compar'd
"For perſon, parts, addreſs, and beard."

After the reſtoration, Mr Butler was made ſecretary to the earl of Carbury, lord preſident of Wales, who appointed him ſteward of Ludlow caſtle, when the court was revived there. No one was a more generous friend to him than the earl of Dorſet, to whom it was owing that the court taſted his *Hudibras*. He had promiſes of a good place from the earl of Clarendon, but they were never accompliſhed; though the king was ſo much pleaſed with the poem, as often to quote it in converſation. It is indeed ſaid, that Charles ordered him the ſum of 3000l. but the ſum being expreſſed in figures, ſomebody through whoſe hands it paſſed, by cutting off a cypher, reduced it to 300l. which, though it paſſed the offices without fees, proved not ſufficient to pay what he then owed; ſo that Butler was not a ſhilling

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the better for the king's bounty. He died in 1680: and though he met with many diſappointments, was never reduced to any thing like want, nor did he die in debt. Mr Granger obſerves, that Butler "ſtands without rival in burleſque poetry. His Hudibras (ſays he) is, in its kind, almoſt as great an effort of genius, as the Paradiſe Loſt itſelf. It abounds with uncommon learning, new rhimes, an original thoughts. Its images are truly and naturally ridiculous. There are many ſtrokes of temporary ſatire, and ſome characters and alluſions which cannot be diſcovered at this diſtance of time."

(4.) * BUTLER. *n. ſ.* [*bouteiller*, Fr. *boteler*, or *botiller*, old Engliſh, from *bottle*; he that is employed in the care of bottling liquors.] A ſervant in a family employed in furniſhing the table.—*Butlers* forget to bring up their beer time enough. *Swift.*

(5.) BUTLER was alſo the name anciently given to an officer in the court of France, ſimilar to that of the ci-devant grand echanſon, or great cupbearer; now aboliſhed with the other appendages of royalty.

(6.) BUTLERS, BUTICULARI, among the Normans, denote wine-taſters, appointed to examine liquors, and ſee that they be right and legal.

(1.) * BUTLERAGE. *n. ſ.* [from *butler*.] The duty upon wines imported, claimed by the king's butler.—Thoſe ordinary finances are caſual or uncertain, as be the eſcheats, the cuſtoms, *butlerage*, and impoſt. *Bacon.*

(2.) BUTLERAGE is a duty of 2s. for every ton of wine imported by merchants ſtrangers; being a compoſition in lieu of the liberties and freedoms granted to them by king John and Edward I. by a charter called *charta mercatoria*. Butlerage was originally the only cuſtom that was payable upon the importation of wines, and was taken by virtue of the regal prerogative for the proper uſe of the crown. But for many years paſt, parliament having granted ſubſidies to the kings of England, and the duty of butlerage not repealed, but confirmed, they have granted it away to ſome nobleman, who, by virtue of ſuch grant, is to enjoy the full benefit thereof, and may cauſe it to be collected in the ſame manner that the kings themſelves were formerly wont to do.

BUTLER'S BRIDGE, a town of Ireland, in Cavan.

BUTLER'S COURT, near Bodington, Glouceſter.

* BUTLERSHIP. *n. ſ.* [from *butler*.] The office of a butler.

BUTLER'S STONE, a medicinal preparation, of which the ancient chemiſts relate wonders. See *Boyle's Works*, *Abr.* vol. 1. p. 50. The inventor, from whom it takes its name, was a Scotſman, in great favour with king James I. and is ſaid to have done wonders with it, not only in the ſpeedy cure of the moſt dangerous diſtempers, but in the making of gold out of lead and quickſilver. The preparation of this ſtone is given by Morley. *Collect. Chym. Leyd. cap.* 375.

(1, 2.) BUTLEY, 3 villages; 1. in Cheſh. near Preſtbury: 2. in Somerſetſh. between Bruton and Bridgewater: and,

(3.) BUTLEY-ABBEY, 4 m. from Oxford, Suffolk.

(1.) * BUTMENT. *n. ſ.* [*aboutment*, Fr.] That part of the arch which joiſts it to the upright pier. —The ſupporters or *butments* of the ſaid arch cannot ſuffer ſo much violence, as in the precedent flat poſture. *Wotton.*

(2.) BUTMENTS of arches are the ſame with buttreſſes. They anſwer to what the Romans call *ſublicæ*, the French *culees* and *butees*.

(3.) BUTMENTS, or ABUTMENTS, of a bridge, denote the two maſſives at the end of a bridge, whereby the two extreme arches are ſuſtained and joined with the ſhore on either ſide.

BUTO. See BUTUS.

BUTOMUS, the FLOWERING RUSH, or WATER GLADIOLE; a genus of the hexagynia order, in the enneandria claſs of plants; ranking, in the natural method, under the 5th order, Tripetaloideæ. There is no calyx, but it has ſix petals, and as many monoſpermous capſules. There is but one ſpecies, viz.

BUTOMUS UMBELLATUS; of which there are two varieties, the one with a white, the other with a roſe-coloured, flower. Though common plants, they are very pretty, and are worth propagating in a garden where there is conveniency for an artificial bog, or where there are ponds of ſtanding water, as is many times the caſe. Where theſe conveniences are wanting, they may be planted in ciſterns, which ſhould be kept filled with water, with about a foot thickneſs of earth in the bottom; and into this earth the roots ſhould be planted, or the ſeeds ſown as ſoon as they are ripe.

BUTORIUS, in zoology, a name given by ſome to the bittern. See ARDEA, N° 10.

BUTRAGO, a town of Spain in New Caſtile.

(1.) BUTRINTO, a lake of Epirus.

(2.) BUTRINTO, anciently called BUTHROTUM, a port town of Epirus, or Canina, in Turky in Europe, ſituated oppoſite to the iſland of Corfu, on the lake, (N° 1.) at the entrance of the gulph of Venice. It is 22 m. S. of Chimera. Lon. 20 9. E. Lat. 39. 49. N.

BUTRO, a ſynonime of the Biſon. See BOS, N° IV. § i.

BUTSBURY, a town in Eſſex, near Ingrateſtone.

* BUTSHAFT. *n. ſ.* [from *but* and *ſhaft*.] An arrow.—

The blind boy's *butſhaft*. *Shakeſ.*

(1.) * BUTT. *n. ſ.* [*but*, Fr.] 1. The place on which the mark to be ſhot at is placed.—

He calls on Bacchus and propounds the prize;
The groom his fellow groom at *butts* defies,
And bends his bow, and levels with his eyes.
Dryden.

2. The point at which the endeavour is directed.—

Be not afraid tho' you do ſee me weapon'd;
Here is my journey's end; here is my *butt*,
The very ſea-mark of my journey's end. *Shak.*

3. The object of aim; the thing againſt which any attack is directed.—The papiſts were the moſt common-place, and the *butt* againſt whom all the arrows were directed. *Clarendon.* 4. A man upon whom the company breaks their jeſts.—I played a ſentence or two at my *butt*, which I thought very ſmart, when my ill genius ſuggeſted to him ſuch a reply as got all the laughter on his ſide. *Spectator.* 5. A blow given by a horned animal. 6. A ſtroke given in fencing.—

If

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If disputes arise
Among the champions for the prize;
To prove who gave the fairer *butt*,
John shews the chalk on Robert's coat. *Prior.*

(2.) * BUTT. *n. s.* [*butt*, Saxon.] A vessel; a barrel containing 126 gallons of wine; a butt contains 228 gallons of beer: and from 1500 to 2,200 weight is a butt of currans.—I escaped upon a *butt* of sack, which the sailors heaved over board. *Shakespeare.*

(3.) BUTT of wine (§ 2.) is also called PIPE.

(4.) BUTT, or BUTT END. See BUT, § 3. Butt ends in great ships are most carefully bolted; for if any one of them should spring or give way, the lake would be very dangerous and difficult to stop.

(5.) BUTTS, in archery. See § 1. *d-f.* 1—3. and ARCHERY, § 5.

(6.) BUTTS, in husbandry, are the short pieces of land in arable ridges and furrows.

* *To* BUTT. *v. a.* [*botten*, Dutch.] To strike with the hand.—

Come, leave your tears: a brief farewel: the beast
With many heads *butts* me away. *Shakesp.*
Nor wars are seen,
Unless upon the green,
Two harmless lambs are *butting* one the other. *Wotton.*
A snow-white steer, before thy altar led,
Butts with his threatening brows, and bellowing stands. *Dryden's Æneid.*

—A ram will *butt* with his head though he be brought up tame, and never saw that manner of fighting. *Ray.*

BUTTELAND, a village in Northumberland, near Billingham.

BUTT END. See BUT END, and BUTT, § 4.

(1.) * BUTTER. *n. s.* [*buttere*, Sax. *butyrum*, Lat.] 1. An unctuous substance made by agitating the cream of milk, till the oil separates from the whey.—And he took *butter* and milk, and the calf which he had dressed, and set before them. *Gen.* xviii. 8. 2. *Butter of Antimony.* A chymical preparation made by uniting the acid spirits of sublimate corrosive with regulus of antimony. It is a great caustick. *Harris.* 3. *Butter of tin*, is made with tin and sublimate corrosive. This preparation continually emits fumes. *Harris.*

(2.) BUTTER, in chemistry, is a name given to several preparations, on account of their consistence resembling that of butter; as butter of antimony, &c. See § 1. *def.* 2, 3, and CHEMISTRY, *Index.*

(3.) BUTTER, ANCIENT USES OF. Butter appears to have been long unknown to the ancient Greeks. Their poets make no mention of it, though they frequently speak of milk and cheese. The Romans used butter no otherwise than as a medicine, never as food. The ancient Christians of Egypt burnt butter in their lamps instead of oil; and in the Roman churches, it was anciently allowed, during Christmas time, to burn butter instead of oil, on account of the great consumption of it otherwise.

(4.) BUTTER, FIRST STATE AND FORMATION OF. Butter is the fat, oily, and inflammable part of the milk. This kind of oil is naturally distributed through all the substance of the milk in very small particles, which are interposed betwixt the caseous and serous parts, amongst which it is suspended by a slight adhesion, but without being dissolved. It is in the same state in which oil is in emulsions; hence the same whiteness of milk and emulsions; and hence, by rest, the oily parts separate from both these liquors to the surface, and form a cream. See EMULSION. When butter is in the state of cream, its proper oily parts are not ye sufficiently united together to form an homogeneous mass. They are still half separated by the interposition of a pretty large quantity of serous and caseous particles. The butter is completely formed by pressing out these heterogeneous parts by means of continued percussion. It then becomes an uniform mass.

(5.) BUTTER, GENERAL PROPERTIES, &c. OF. Fresh butter which has undergone no change, has scarcely any smell; its taste is mild and agreeable, it melts with a weak heat, and none of its principles are disengaged by the heat of boiling water. These properties prove, that the oily part of butter is of the nature of the fat, fixed, and mild oils obtained from many vegetable substances by expression. See OILS. The half fluid consistence of butter, as of most other concrete oily matters, is thought to be owing to a considerable quantity of acid united with the oily part; which acid is so well combined, that it is not perceptible while the butter is fresh and has undergone no change; but when it grows old, and undergoes some kind of fermentation, then the acid is disengaged more and more; and this is the cause that butter, like oils of the same kind, becomes rancid by age. Butter is constantly used in food, from its agreeable taste; but to be wholesome, it must be very fresh, free from rancidity, and not fried or burnt; otherwise its acrid and even caustic acid, being disengaged, disorders digestion, renders it difficult and painful, excites acrid empyreumatic belchings, and introduces much acrimony into the blood. Some persons have stomachs so delicate, that they are even affected with these inconveniences by fresh butter and milk. This observation is also applicable to oil, fat, chocolate, and in general to all oleaginous matters.

(6.) BUTTER, METHODS OF MAKING. When it has been churned, open the churn, and with both hands gather it well together, take it out of the butter-milk, and lay it into a very clean bowel, or earthen pan; and if the butter be designed to be used sweet, fill the pan with clear water, and work the butter in it to and fro, till it is brought to a firm consistence of itself, without any moisture. When this has been done, it must be scotched and sliced over with the point of a knife, every way as thick as possible, in order to fetch out the smallest hair, mote, bit of rag, strainer, or any thing that may have happened to fall into it. Then spread it thin in a bowel, and work it well together, with a proper quantity of salt, and make it up into dishes, pounds, half pounds, &c. In the Georgical Essays, vol. V. p. 209. we have the following method of making well-tasted butter, from the milk of cows fed on turnips: "Let the bowels, either lead or wood, be kept constantly clean, and well scalded with boiling water before using. When the milk is brought into the dairy,

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to every 8 quarts mix one quart of boiling water; then put up the milk into the bowels to ſtand for cream." The following directions concerning the making and management of butter, including the Epping method, are extracted from the 3d volume of the Bath Society Papers. In general it is to be obſerved, that the greater the quantity made from a few cows, the greater will be the farmer's profit; therefore he ſhould never keep any but what are eſteemed good milkers. A bad cow will be equally expenſive in keeping, and will not perhaps (by the butter and cheeſe that is made from her) bring in more than from L. 3 to L. 6 a-year; whereas a good one will bring from L. 7 to L. 10 per annum: therefore it is obvious that bad cows ſhould be parted with, and good ones purchaſed in their room. When ſuch are obtained, a good ſervant ſhould be employed to milk them; as, through the neglect and miſmanagement of ſervants, it frequently happens that the beſt cows are ſpoiled. No farmer ſhould truſt entirely to ſervants, but ſhould himſelf often ſee that the cows are milked clean; for if any milk is ſuffered to remain in the udder, the cows will daily give leſs, till at length ſhe will become dry before the proper time, and the next ſeaſon ſhe will ſcarce give milk ſufficient to pay for keeping her. It ſometimes happens that ſome of a cow's teats may be ſcratched or wounded ſo as to produce foul or corrupted milk; when this is the caſe, we ſhould by no means mix it with the ſweet milk, but give it to the pigs; and that which is conveyed to the dairy-houſe ſhould remain in the pail till it is nearly cool, before it be ſtrained, that is, if the weather be warm; but in froſty weather it ſhould be immediately ſtrained, and a ſmall quantity of boiling water may be mixed with it, which will cauſe it to produce cream in abundance, and the more ſo if the pans or vat have a large ſurface. During the hot ſummer months, it is proper to riſe with or before the ſun, that the cream may be ſkimmed from the milk ere the dairy becomes warm; nor ſhould the milk at that ſeaſon ſtand longer in the vats, &c. than 24 hours, nor be ſkimmed in the evening till after ſun-ſet. In winter, milk may remain unſkimmed for 36 or 48 hours; the cream ſhould be depoſited in a deep pan, which ſhould be kept during the ſummer in the cooleſt part of the dairy, or in a cool cellar where a free air is admitted, which is ſtill better. Where people have not an opportunity of churning every other day, they ſhould ſhift the cream daily into clean pans, which will keep it cool, but they ſhould never fail to churn at leaſt twice in the week in hot weather; and this work ſhould be done in a morning before the ſun appears, taking care to fix the churn where there is a great draught of air. If a pump churn be to be uſed, it may be plunged a foot deep into a tub of cold water, and ſhould remain there during the whole time of churning, which will very much harden the butter. A ſtrong rancid flavour will be given to butter, if we churn ſo near the fire as to heat the wood in winter. After the butter is churned, it ſhould be immediately waſhed in many different waters till it is perfectly cleanſed from the milk; but here it muſt be remarked, that a warm hand will ſoften it, and make it appear greaſy, ſo that it will be impoſſible to obtain the beſt price for it. The cheeſemongers uſe two pieces of wood for their butter; and if thoſe who have a very hot hand were to have ſuch, they might work the butter ſo as to make it more ſaleable. The Epping butter is made up into long rolls, weighing a pound each; in the county of Somerſet, they diſh it in half pounds for ſale; but if they forget to rub ſalt round the inſide of the diſh, it will be difficult to work it ſo as to make it appear handſome. Butter will require and endure more working in winter than in ſummer; but it is remarked, that no perſon whoſe hand is warm by nature makes good butter. Thoſe who uſe a pump churn muſt endeavour to keep a regular ſtroke; nor ſhould they admit any perſon to aſſiſt them, except they keep nearly the ſame ſtroke; for if they churn more ſlowly, the butter will in winter *go back*, as it is called; and if the ſtroke be more quick and violent in the ſummer, it will cauſe a fermentation, by which means the butter will imbibe a very diſagreeable flavour. Where people keep many cows, a barrel churn is to be preferred; but if this be not kept very clean, the bad effects will be diſcovered in the butter; nor muſt we forget to ſhift the ſituation of the churn when we uſe it, as the ſeaſons alter, ſo as to fix it in a warm place in winter, and where there is a free air in ſummer. In many parts of this kingdom, they colour their butter in winter, but this adds nothing to its goodneſs; and it rarely happens that the farmers in or near Epping uſe any colour, but when they do, it is very innocent. They procure ſome ſound carrots, whoſe juice they expreſs through a ſieve, and mix with the cream when it enters the churn, which makes it appear like May butter: nor do they at any time uſe much ſalt, though a little is abſolutely neceſſary.—As they make in that country very little cheeſe, ſo very little whey butter is made; nor indeed ſhould any perſon make it, except for preſent uſe, as it will not keep more than two days; and the whey will turn to better account to fatten pigs with. The foregoing rules will ſuffice for making good butter in any country; but as ſome people are partial to the weſt country method, it ſhall alſo be deſcribed as briefly as poſſible. 1. They depoſite their milk in earthen pans in their dairy-houſe, and (after they have ſtood 12 hours in the ſummer, and double that ſpace in the winter) they remove them to ſtoves made for that purpoſe, which ſtoves are filled with hot embers; on theſe they remain till bubbles riſe, and the cream changes its colour, it is then deemed heated enough, and this they call *ſcalded cream*; it is afterwards removed ſteadily to the dairy, where it remains 12 hours more, and it is then ſkimmed from the milk and put into a tub or churn; if it be put into a tub, it is beat well with the hand, and thus they obtain butter; but a cleanlier way is to make uſe of a churn. Some ſcald it over the fire, but then the ſmoke is apt to affect it; and in either caſe, if the pans touch the fire, they will crack or fly, and the milk and cream will be waſted.

(7.) BUTTER, METHOD OF MANAGING, &c. The Cambridgeſhire ſalt butter is held in the higheſt eſteem, and is made nearly after the ſame method as the Epping; and by waſhing and working

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ing the ſalt from it the cheeſemongers in London often ſell it at a high price for freſh butter. They depoſite it when made into wooden tubs or firkins, which they expoſe to the air for 2 or 3 weeks, and often waſh them; but a readier way is to ſeaſon them with unſlacked lime, or a large quantity of ſalt and water well boiled will do: with this they muſt be ſcrubbed ſeveral times, and afterwards thrown into cold water, where they ſhould remain 3 or 4 days, or till they are wanted; then they ſhould be ſcrubbed as before, and well rinſed with cold water; but before they receive the butter, care muſt be taken to rub every part of the firkin with ſalt: then, if the butter be properly made, and perfectly ſweet, it may be gently preſſed into the firkin; but it muſt be well ſalted when it is made up, and the ſalt ſhould be equally diſtributed through the whole maſs, and a good handful of ſalt muſt be ſpread on the top of the firkin before it is heated, after which the head ſhould be immediately put on. They purſue nearly the ſame method in Suffolk and Yorkſhire; nor is the butter that is made in theſe counties much inferior to that made in Cambridgeſhire; indeed it is often ſold in London for Cambridge butter: and no people make more butter from their cows than the Yorkſhire farmers do, which is certainly owing to the care they take of their cows in the winter; as at that ſeaſon they houſe them all, feed them with good hay, and never ſuffer them to go out, (except to water,) but when the weather is very ſerene; and when their cows calve, they give them comfortable malt meſhes for 2 or 3 days after; but theſe cows never anſwer if they are removed to other counties, except the ſame care and attendance be given them, and then none anſwer better. Land whereon cows feed very often affects the butter. If wild garlic, charlock, or May-weed, be found in a paſture ground, cows ſhould not feed therein till after they have been mown, when ſuch pernicious plants will appear no more till the following ſpring; but thoſe cows that give milk muſt not partake of the hay made therefrom, as that will alſo diffuſe its bad qualities. Great part of the Epping butter is made from cows that feed during the ſummer months in Epping foreſt, where the leaves and ſhrubby plants contribute greatly to the flavour of the butter. The mountains of Wales, the Highlands of Scotland, and the moors, commons, and heaths in England, produce excellent butter where it is properly managed; and though not equal in quantity, yet far ſuperior in quality to that which is produced from the richeſt meadows: and the land is often blamed when the butter is bad through miſmanagement, ſluttiſhneſs, or inattention. Turnips and rape affect milk and butter, but brewers grains are ſweet and wholeſome food, and will make cows give abundance of milk; yet the cream thereon will be thin, except good hay be given at the ſame time, after every mail of grains. Coleworts and cabbages are alſo excellent food; and if theſe and ſavoys were cultivated for this purpoſe, the farmers in general would find their account in it. Cows ſhould never be ſuffered to drink improper water; ſtagnated pools, water wherein frogs ſpawn, common ſewers, and ponds that receive the drainings of ſtables, are improper.

(8.) BUTTER, SHOWER OF. Naturaliſts ſpeak of ſhowers and dews of a butyraceous ſubſtance. In 1675, there fell in Ireland, during the winter and following ſpring, a thick yellow dew, which had the medicinal properties of butter.

(6.) BUTTER, TRADE IN. The trade in butter is very conſiderable. Some compute 50,000 tons annually conſumed in London. It is chiefly made within 40 miles round the city: 50,000 firkins are ſaid to be ſent yearly from Cambridge and Suffolk alone; each firkin containing 56 lbs. Utoxeter in Staffordſhire is a market famous for good butter, inſomuch that the London merchants have eſtabliſhed a factory there for that article. It is bought by the pot, of a long cylindrical form, weighing 14lb. But no butter is eſteemed equal to that which is made in Eſſex, well known by the name of *Epping butter*, and which is almoſt every ſeaſon of the year, yields at London from 1 ſh. to 14 d. per pound averdupoiſe.

(10.) BUTTER, TRICKS OF DEALERS IN. Many abuſes are committed in the packing and ſalting of butter, to increaſe its bulk and weight, againſt which we have a ſtatute expreſs. Pots are frequently laid with good butter for a little depth at the top, and with bad at the bottom; ſometimes the butter is ſet in rolls, only touching at top, and ſtanding hollow at bottom. To prevent theſe cheats, the factors at Utoxeter keep a ſurveyor, who, in caſe of ſuſpicion, tries the pots with an iron inſtrument called a *butter bore*, made like a cheeſe-taſter, to be ſtruck in obliquely to the bottom.

* *To* BUTTER. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To ſmear, or oil with butter.—'Twas her brother, that, in pure kindneſs to his horſe, *buttered* his hay. *Shakeſp.*—Words *butter* no parſnips. *L'Eſtr.* 2. To encreaſe the ſtakes every throw, or every game; a cant term among gameſters.—It is a fine ſimile in one of Mr Congreve's prologues, which compares a writer to a *buttering* gameſter, that ſtakes all his winning upon one caſt; ſo that if he loſes the laſt throw, he is ſure to be undone. *Addiſ.*

* BUTTERBUMP. *n. ſ.* A fowl: the ſame with *bittour*.

(1.) * BUTTERBUR. *n. ſ.* [*petaſites*, Lat.] A plant uſed in medicine, and grows wild in great plenty by the ſides of ditches. *Miller.*

(2.) BUTTER-BUR, in botany. See TUSSILAGO.

BUTTERBY, a town near Brampeth, Durham.

BUTTER-CRAMB, near New Malton, Yorkſh.

BUTTER-FISH, a ſmall fiſh, common in Cornwal, ſhaped ſomewhat like an eel, and diſtinguiſhed by two rows of black ſpots along its back, and called GUNELLUS.

(1.) * BUTTERFLOWER. *n. ſ.* A yellow flower, with which the fields abound in the month of May.—

Let weeds, inſtead of *butterflowers*, appear,
And meads, inſtead of daiſies, hemlock bear.
Gay.

(2.) BUTTER-FLOWER is a ſpecies of crow-foot. See RANUNCULUS.

(1.) BUTTERFLIES, METHOD OF MAKING PICTURES OF. To thoſe, whoſe ſenſibilities are ſo callous,

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cellous, that they feel nothing for the tortures of the inſect tribe, or who are ſo thoughtleſs, as not to reflect, that,

——"Ev'n the poor worm they tread on
In corp'real anguiſh feels a pain as great,
As giants, when they die,"

Mr Edwards, in his *Hiſtory of Birds*, vol. ii, p. 122, gives the following directions, for making pictures of butterflies. "Take butterflies or field moths, either thoſe catched abroad, or ſuch as are taken in caterpillars and nurſed in the houſe till they be flies; clip off their wings very cloſe to their bodies, and lay them on clean paper, in the form of a butterfly when flying; then have ready prepared gum arabic that hath been ſome time diſſolved in water, and is pretty thick; if you put a drop of ox-gall into a ſpoonful of this, it will be better for the uſe; temper them well with your finger, and ſpread a little of it on a piece of thin white paper, big enough to take both ſides of your fly; when it begins to be clammy under your finger, the paper is in proper order to take the feathers from the wings of the fly; then lay the gummed ſide on the wings, and it will take them up; then double your paper ſo as to have all the wings between the paper; then lay it on a table, preſſing it cloſe with your fingers; and you may rub it gently with ſome ſmooth hard thing; then open the paper and take out the wings, which will come forth tranſparent: the down of the upper and under ſide of the wings, ſticking to the gummed paper form a juſt likeneſs of both ſides of the wings in their natural ſhapes and colours. The nicety of taking off flies depends on a juſt degree of moiſture of the gum'd paper: for if it be too wet, all will be blotted and confuſed; and if too dry, your paper will ſtick ſo faſt together, that it will be torn in ſeparation. When you have opened your gum'd papers, and they are dry, you muſt draw the bodies from the natural ones, and paint them in water colours: you muſt take paper that will bear ink very well for this uſe; for inking paper will ſeparate with the reſt, and ſpoil all."—With a little ſkill in drawing, and half the attention required by Mr Edward, any young perſon may make pictures of butterflies, equally beautiful, by a cloſe imitation of nature or of good prints. Thus barbarity will be avoided and real genius exerted.

(2.) BUTTERFLIES, METHOD OF PRESERVING. See INSECTS.

(3.) * BUTTERFLY. *n. ſ.* [*butterflege*, Saxon.] A beautiful inſect, ſo named becauſe it appears in the beginning of the ſeaſon for butter.—

Eftſoons that damſel, by her heav'nly might,
She turned into a winged *butterfly*,
In the wide air to make her wand'ring flight.
Spenſer.

Tell old tales, and laugh
At gilded *butterflies*: and hear poor rogues
Talk of court news. *Shakeſpeare.*

And ſo beſet, that as he caſt his eye
Among the oſiers on a *butterfly*,
He ſaw falſe Reynard. *Dryden.*

That white duſt to be a powder upon the wings of a *butterfly*, is an innumerable company of extreme ſmall feathers, not to be diſcerned without a microſcope. *Grew.*

(4.) BUTTERFLY. See PAPILIO.

BUTTERFLY-FISH, a name given by ſome to the BLENNUS, or BLENNIUS; from a ſpot in the fin, which reſembles thoſe in the wings of ſome butterflies.

BUTTERFLY-SHELL, in natural hiſtory. See VOLUTA.

BUTTER-HAUGH, a village in Northumberland, near the ſource of the Tyne.

* BUTTERIS. *n. ſ.* An inſtrument of ſteel ſet in a wooden handle, uſed in pairing the foot, or cutting the hoof of a horſe. *Farrier's Dictionary.*

BUTTERLY, two Engliſh villages: viz. 1. in Derbyſhire, near Codnor Caſtle: 2. in Devonſh. near Collumpton.

BUTTERMERE WATER, a lake of Cumberland, near the ſource of the Cocker.

(1.) * BUTTERMILK. *n. ſ.* [from *butter* and *milk*.] The whey that is ſeparated from the cream when butter is made.—A young man, fallen into an ulcerous conſumption, devoted himſelf to *buttermilk*, by which ſole diet he recovered. *Harvey.*—The ſcarvy of mariners is cured by acids; as fruits, lemons, oranges, *buttermilk*; and alkaline ſpirits hurt them. *Arbuthnot.*

(2.) BUTTER-MILK is more accurately defined, the milk which remains after the butter is obtained by churning. Butter-milk is eſteemed an excellent food, in the ſpring eſpecially, and is particularly recommended in hectic fevers. Some make curds of butter-milk, by pouring into it a quantity of new milk hot.

BUTTER-NUT, a fruit in New-England whoſe kernel yields a great quantity of ſweet oil.

BUTTER OF ANTIMONY, &c. See BUTTER, § 1, *def.* 2. and CHEMISTRY, *Index.*

BUTTER OF STONE, a kind of mineral drug found on the higheſt mountains, and hardeſt rocks, of Siberia, being drawn by the heat of the ſun, in tranſudation, from the dry ſubſtance of the ſtones themſelves, and adhering to the ſurface thereof like a ſort of calx, which, having received its full coction, is ſcraped off by the inhabitants under the name of *kamine maſla*. The Ruſſians aſcribe many virtues to it. It is much uſed for the dyſentery and venereal diſeaſes; but its operation is ſo violent, however corrected by other ingredients, that none but the Ruſſians dare uſe it.

* BUTTERPRINT. *n. ſ.* [from *butter* and *print*.] A piece of carved wood, uſed to mark butter.—A *butterprint*, in which were engraven figures of all ſorts and ſizes, applied to the lump of butter, left on it the figure. *Locke.*

BUTTERSIDE, a town near Aſkrig, Yorkſh.

BUTTERSTONE-LOCH, a lake in Perthſhire.

BUTTERSWICK, a town near Newſom, York.

BUTTERTON, two ſmall towns; viz. 1. SE. of Leek: 2. SW. of Stafford.

* BUTTERTOOTH. *n. ſ.* [from *butter* and *tooth*.] The great broad foreteeth.

(1—3.) BUTTERWICK; 1. in Durham, between Durham and Stockton: 2. in Herfordſhire, near St Albans: 3. in Lincolnſh. NE. of Boſton.

(4.) BUTTERWICK, EAST, } 2 Engliſh villages,
(5.) BUTTERWICK, WEST, } E. of Axholm.

BUTTERWIKE, in Dorſetſh. 1 m. S. of Folke.

* BUTTERWOMAN. *n. ſ.* [from *butter* and *woman*.] A woman that ſells butter.—Tongue, I muſt put you into a *butterwoman*'s mouth, and

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buy myself another of Bajazet's mute, if you prattle me into these perils. *Shakespeare.*

(1.) * BUTTERWORT. *n. s.* A plant: the same with *sanicle.*

(2.) BUTTERWORT, in botany. See PINGUICULA.

(1.) * BUTTERY. *adj.* [from *butter.*] Having the appearance or qualities of butter.—Nothing more convertible into hot cholerick humours than its *buttery* parts. *Harvey.*—The best oils, thickened by cold, have a white colour; and milk itself has its whiteness from the caseous fibres, and its *buttery* oil. *Floyer.*

(2.) * BUTTERY. *n. s.* [from *butter*; or, according to *Skinner*, from *bouter*, Fr. to place or lay up.] The room where provisions are laid up.—

Go, sirrah, take them to the *buttery*,
And give them friendly welcome every one.
Shakespeare.

—All that need a cool and fresh temper, as cellars, pantries, and *butteries*, to the north. *Wotton.*—

My guts ne'er suffer'd from a college-cook,
My name ne'er enter'd in a *buttery* book.
Bramston.

(3.) BUTTERY, ROYAL. The officers in the king's buttery, are a gentleman yeoman, and 3 grooms of the buttery.

BUTTEVANT, a town of Ireland, in Cork.

BUTTLESDON, a village in Warkworth, Northumberland.

(1.) * BUTTOCK. *n. s.* [supposed, by *Skinner*, to come from *aboutir*, Fr. inserted by *Junius* without etymology.] The rump; the part near the tail.—It is like a barber's chair that fits all *buttocks*. *Shakesp.*—Such as were not able to stay themselves, should be holden up by others of more strength, riding behind them upon the *buttocks* of the horse. *Knolles.*—The tail of a fox was never made for the *buttocks* of an ape. *L'Estrange.*

(2.) BUTTOCK OF A SHIP, is that part of her which is her breadth right astern, from the tack upwards; and a ship is said to have a broad or a narrow buttock, according as she is built broad or narrow at the transum.

BUTTOLPH, a town near Bramber, Sussex.

(L) * BUTTON. *n. s.* [*bottoum*, Welch; *bouton*, Fr.] 1. A catch, or small ball, by which the dress of man is fastened.—

Pray you, undo this *button*. *Shakesp.*

—I mention those ornaments, because of the simplicity of the shape, want of ornaments, *buttons*, loops, gold and silver lace, they must have been cheaper than ours. *Arbuthnot.* 2. Any knob or ball fastened to a smaller body.—We fastened to the marble certain wires, and a *button*. *Boyle.*—

Fair from its humble bed I rear'd this flow'r,
Suckled and chear'd, with air, and sun and show'r:
Soft on the paper ruff its leaves I spread,
Bright with the gilded *button* tipt its head. *Pope.*

3. The bud of a plant.—

The canker galls the infants of the spring,
Too oft before their *buttons* be disclos'd. *Shak.*

(II.) * BUTTON. *n. s.* [*echinus marinus.*] The sea urchin, which is a kind of crabfish that has prickles instead of feet. *Ainsworth.*

(III.) BUTTON, in botany, (§ I. *def.* 3.) is chiefly used in speaking of vines and roses.

(IV.) BUTTON, in building, denotes a slight fastening for a door or window, made to turn on a nail.

(V.) BUTTON, in chemistry, signifies the metal which is collected in a roundish mass at the bottom of a crucible after fusion, or which remains in the cupels after cupellation; more generally called a BEAD.

(VI.) BUTTON, in dress, an article whose form and use are too well known to need description. Buttons are made of various materials, as mohair, silk, horse-hair, metal, &c.

(1.) BUTTONS, COMMON, METHOD OF MAKING. Common buttons are generally made of mohair; some indeed are made of silk, and others of thread; but the latter are of a very inferior sort. To make a button, the mohair must be previously wound on a bobbin; and the mould fixed to a board by means of a bodkin thrust through the hole in the middle of it. This being done, the workman wraps the mohair round the mould in 3, 4, or 6 columns, according to the pattern. See farther, § 5.

(2.) BUTTONS, GOLD TWIST. The mould of these buttons is first covered in the same manner with that of common buttons. This being done, the whole is covered with a thin plate of gold or silver, and then wrought over of different forms, with purple and gimp. The former is a kind of thread composed of silk and gold wire twisted together; and the latter, capillary tubes of gold or silver, about the tenth of an inch long. These are joined together by means of a fine needle, filled with silk, thrust through their apertures, in the same manner as beads or bugles.

(3.) BUTTONS, HORSE-HAIR. The moulds of horse-hair buttons are covered with a kind of stuff composed of silk and hair; the warp being belladine silk, and the shoot horse-hair. This stuff is wove with two selvedges, in the same manner and in the same loom as ribbands. It is then cut into square pieces proportional to the size of the button, wrapped round the moulds, and their selvedges stitched together, which form the under part of the button. See farther, § 5.

(4.) BUTTONS, METAL, METHOD OF MAKING. The metal with which the moulds are intended to be covered is first cast into small ingots, and then flatted into thin plates or leaves, of the thickness intended, at the flatting mills; after which it is cut into small round pieces proportionable to the size of the mould they are intended to cover, by means of proper punches on a block of wood covered with a thick plate of lead. Each piece of metal thus cut out of the plate is reduced into the form of a button, by beating it successively in several cavities, or concave moulds, of a spherical form, with a convex puncheon of iron, always beginning with the shallowest cavity or mould, and proceeding to the deeper, till the plate has acquired the intended form: and the better to manage so thin a plate, they form 10, 12, and sometimes 24, to the cavities or concave moulds at once; often nealing the metal during the operation, to make it more ductile. The plate is generally called by workmen the *cap of the button*. The form being thus given to the plates or caps, they strike the intended impression on the convex side, by means of a similar iron puncheon, in a kind of mould engraven

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graven *en creux*, either by the hammer or the preſs uſed in coining. The cavity or mould, wherein the impreſſion is to be made, is of a diameter and depth ſuitable to the ſort of button intended to be ſtruck in it; each kind requiring a particular mould. Between the puncheon and the plate is placed a thin piece of lead, called by workmen a *bob*, which greatly contributes to the taking off all the ſtrokes of the engraving; the lead, by reaſon of its ſoftneſs, eaſily giving way to the parts that have relievo, and as eaſily inſinuating itſelf into the traces or indentures. The plate thus prepared makes the cap or ſhell of the button. The lower part is formed of another plate, in the ſame manner, but much flatter, and without any impreſſion. To the laſt or under plate is ſoldered a ſmall eye made of wire, by which the button is to be faſtened. The two plates being thus finiſhed, they are ſoldered together with ſoft ſolder, and then turned in a lathe. Generally indeed they uſe a wooden mould, inſtead of the under plate; and in order to faſten it, they paſs a thread or gut acroſs, through the middle of the mould, and fill the cavity between the mould and the cap with cement, in order to render the button firm and ſolid; for the cement entering all the cavities formed by the relievo of the other ſide, ſuſtains it, prevents its flattening, and preſerves its boſſe.

(5.) BUTTONS, METHOD OF CLEANSING. Buttons, made of ſilk, mohair, &c. are not finiſhed when they come from the maker's hands; the ſuperfluous hairs and hubs of ſilk muſt be taken off, and the buttons rendered gloſſy and beautiful before they can be ſold. This is done in the following manner: A quantity of buttons are put into a kind of iron ſieve, called by workmen a *fingeing box*. Then a little ſpirit of wine being poured into a ſhallow iron diſh, and ſet on fire, the workman moves and ſhakes the fingeing box, containing the buttons, briſkly over the flame of the ſpirit, by which the ſuperfluous hairs, hubs of ſilk, &c. are burnt off, without damaging the buttons. Great care, however, muſt be taken that the buttons in the fingeing box be kept continually in motion; for if they are ſuffered to reſt over the flame, they will immediately burn. When all theſe looſe hairs, &c. are burnt off by the flame of the ſpirit, the buttons are taken out of the fingeing box, and put, with a proper quantity of the crumbs of bread, into a leather bag, about 3 feet long, and of a conical ſhape; the mouth or ſmaller end of which being tied up, the workman takes one of the ends in one hand and the other in the other, and ſhakes the hand briſkly with a particular jerk. This operation cleanſes the buttons, renders them very gloſſy, and fit for ſale.

(VII.) BUTTON, in fencing, ſignifies the tip of a foil, made roundiſh, and uſually covered with leather, to prevent contuſions or wounds.

(VIII.) BUTTON, in the manege. Button of the reins of a bridle, is a ring of leather, with the reins paſſed through it, which runs all along the length of the reins. To put a horſe under the button, is when a horſe is ſtopped without a rider upon his back, the reins being laid on his neck, and the button lowered ſo far down that the reins bring in the horſe's head, and fix it to the true poſture or carriage. Not only the horſes managed in the hand muſt be put under the button; but the ſame method muſt be taken with ſuch horſes as are bred between two pillars, before they are backed.

(IX.) BUTTON OF A LOCK denotes a round head ſerving to move the bolt.

* *To* BUTTON. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To dreſs; to clothe.—One whoſe hard heart is *button'd* up with ſteel. *Shakeſp.*—He gave his legs, arm, and breaſt, to his ordinary ſervant, to *button* and dreſs him. *Wotton.* 2. To faſten with buttons; as, he *buttons* his coat.

BUTTON-ANTENNÆ, a name given by naturaliſts to thoſe horns or feelers of butterflies, which are terminated at the top by a ſort of button. The French naturaliſts, from Reaumur, call theſe *antennes a boutons*.

* BUTTONHOLE. *n. ſ.* [from *button* and *hole*.] The loop in which the button of the clothes is caught.—

Let me take you a *buttonhole* lower. *Shakeſ.*

I'll pleaſe the maids of honour, if I can:
Without black velvet breeches, what is man?
I will my ſkill in *buttonholes* diſplay,
And brag, how oft I ſhift me ev'ry day. *Bramſt.*

BUTTON-MAKER, *n. ſ.* one who manufactures buttons. We have been credibly informed, that the greateſt perſonage in the nation has long amuſed himſelf with button-making; and that many of the moſt beautiful patterns manufactured in Birmingham have often been of His Majeſty's invention. It would have been happy for mankind in all ages and nations, if monarchs had always amuſed themſelves with making improvements in the mechanic arts, inſtead of cultivating the art of war.

BUTTON-MAKING, *n. ſ.* the art of making buttons. See BUTTON, § VI, 1—5.

BUTTON's BAY, the N. part of Hudſon's bay, in North America, whereby Sir Thomas Button attempted to find out a NW. paſſage to the Eaſt Indies. It lies between 80° and 100° Lon. W. and between 60° and 66° Lat. N.

BUTTON-STONE, in natural hiſtory, a kind of figured ſtone, ſo denominated from its reſembling the button of a garment. Dr Hook gives the figure of 3 ſorts of button-ſtones, which ſeems to have been nothing elſe but the filling up of 3 ſorts of ſhells. They are all very hard flints; and have this in common, that they conſiſt of two bodies, which ſeem to have been the filling up of two holes or vents in the ſhell. Dr Plot deſcribes a ſpecies finely ſtriated from the top, after the manner of ſome hair buttons. This name is alſo given to a peculiar ſpecies of ſlate found in the marquiſate of Bareith, in a mountain called *Fichtelberg*: which is extremely different from the common ſorts of ſlate, in that it runs with great eaſe into glaſs in 5 or 6 hours, without the addition of any ſalt or other foreign ſubſtance, to promote its vitrification. It contains in itſelf all the principles of glaſs, and really has mixed in its ſubſtance the things neceſſary to be added to promote the fuſion of other ſtony bodies. The Swedes and Germans make buttons of the glaſs produced from it, which is very black and ſhining, and it has hence its name *button-ſtone*. They make ſeveral other things alſo of this glaſs, as the handles of knives and the like,

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like, and ſend a large quantity of it unwrought in round cakes as it cools from the fuſion into Holland.

BUTTON-TREE, in botany. See CONACARPUS.

BUTTON-WEED. See SPERMACOCE.

BUTTON-WOOD. See CEPHALANTHUS.

(1.) * BUTTRESS. *n. ſ.* [from *aboutir*, Fr.] 1. A prop; a wall built to ſupport another wall, and ſtanding out.—

No jutting frize,
Buttreſs, not coigne of vantage, but this bird,
Hath made his pendant bed, and procreant cradle. *Shakeſp.*

—Fruit trees, ſet upon a wall againſt the ſun, between elbows or *buttreſſes* of ſtone, ripen more than upon a plain wall. *Bacon.*—

But we inhabit a weak city here,
Which *buttreſſes* and props but ſcarcely bear. *Dryden.*

2. A prop; a ſupport.—It will concern us to examine the force of this plea, which our adverſaries are ſtill ſetting up againſt us, as the ground pillar and *buttreſs* of the good old cauſe of nonconformity. *South.*

(2.) BUTTRESS is a kind of butment built archwiſe, or a maſs of ſtone or brick, ſerving to prop or ſupport the ſides of a building, wall, &c. on the outſide where it is either very high, or has any conſiderable load to ſuſtain on the other ſide, as a bank of earth, &c.—Buttreſſes are uſed againſt the angles of ſteeples and other buildings of ſtone, &c. on the outſide, and along the walls of ſuch buildings as have great and heavy roofs, which would be ſubject to thruſt the walls out, unleſs very thick, if no buttreſſes were placed againſt them. They are alſo placed for a butment againſt the feet of ſome arches, that are turned acroſs great halls in old palaces, abbeys, &c.

(3.) BUTTRESS, in farriery. See BUTTERIS.

* *To* BUTTRESS. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To prop; to ſupport.

BUTT'S ASH, a village in the New Foreſt, Hampſhire.

BUTUA. See BATUA and BUDOA.

BUTUS, or BUTO, in ancient geography, a town of Lower Egypt, on the W. ſide of the branch of the Nile, called *Thermuthiaeus*; towards the mouth called *Oſtium Sebennyticum*. In this town ſtood an oracle of Latona. Ptolemy places Butus in the Nomos Phthenotes. It had temples of Apollo and Diana, but the largeſt was that of Latona, where the oracle ſtood.

* BUTWINK. *n. ſ.* The name of a bird. *Dict.*

* BUTYRACEOUS. *adj.* [*butyrum*, Lat. butter.] Having the qualities of butter.—Chyle has the ſame principles as milk; a viſcidity from the caſeous parts, and an oilineſs from the *butyraceous* parts. *Floyer.*

* BUTYROUS. *adj.* [*butyrum*, Lat.] Having the properties of butter.—Its oily red part is from the *butyrous* parts of chyle. *Floyer.*

BUTZAW, a town of Lower Saxony, in Germany; ſeated on the river Varnow, on the road from Schwerin to Roſtock. Lon. 23. 12. E. Lat. 54. 50. N.

BUTZBACH, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, where the Auſtrians were encamped in July 1796.

BUVETTE, or BEUVETTE, in the ci-devant French laws, an eſtabliſhed part in every court, where the lawyers and counſellors uſed to retire, warm themſelves, and take a glaſs of wine, at the king's charge. There was alſo one for each court of parliament, for the members of that body.

BUXBAUMIA, in botany, a genus of the order muſci, belonging to the Cryptogamia claſs of plants: ranking under the ſame order, *muſci*, or moſſes, in the natural method.

BUXBURN, a rapid ſtream of Aberdeenſhire, which runs through the pariſh of Newhills.

BUXEL, a river of Tranſylvania, which runs through Burezland.

BUXENTUM, or PYXUS, a town of Lucania, firſt built by the people of Meſſana, but afterwards deſerted. A Roman colony was ſent thither, and when found ſtill thin of inhabitants, a new colony was ſent by a decree of the ſenate. Its name is from *buxus*, the box tree, growing plentifully there. Strabo ſays, the name *Pyxus* includes a promontory, port and river, under one. It is now called POLICASKRO. Lon. 15 40. E. Lat. 40. 20. N.

BUXEOUS. *adj.* made of boxwood. *Scott.*

BUXHALL, a village in Suffolk, between Bildeſton and Wulpet.

BUXIFEROUS, *adj.* bearing box. *Aſh.*

BUXION, *n. ſ. obſ.* a bud. *Chauc.*

To BUXIONEN. *v. n. obſ.* To bud. *Chauc.*

BUXLOW, a town near Dunwick, Suffolk.

* BUXOM. *adj.* [*bucſum*, Sax. from *bugan*, to bend. It originally ſignified *obedient*, as *John de Treviſa*, a clergyman, tells his patron, that he is *obedient and* buxom *to all his commands*. In an old form of marriage uſed before the reformation, the bride promiſed to be *obedient and* buxom *in bed and at board*; from which expreſſion, not well underſtood, its preſent meaning ſeems to be derived.] 1. Obedient; obſequious.—He did tread down, and diſgrace all the Engliſh, and ſet up and countenance the Iriſh; thinking thereby to make them more tractable and *buxom* to his government. *Spenſer.*—

He, with broad ſails,
Winnow'd the *buxom* air. *Milton.*

2. Gay; lively; briſk.—

I'm born
Again a freſh child of the *buxom* morn,
Heir of the ſun's firſt beams. *Craſhaw.*

Zephyr, with Aurora playing,
As he met her once a maying,
Fill'd her with thee, a daughter fair,
So *buxom*, blithe, and debonnair *Milton.*

Sturdy ſwains,
In clean array, for ruſtick dance prepare,
Mixt with the *buxom* damſels hand in hand *Philips.*

3. Wanton; jolly.—

Almighty Jove deſcends, and pours
Into his *buxom* bride his fruitful ſhowr's. *Dryd.*

She feign'd the rites of Bacchus! cry'd aloud,
And to the *buxom* god the virgin vow'd. *Dryd.*

* BUXOMLY. *adv.* [from *buxom*.] Wantonly; amorouſly.

* BUXOMNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *buxom*.] Wantonneſs; amorouſneſs.

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BUXTEAD, or BUCKSTEAD, a village in Suſſex, 10 miles from E. Grinſtead. It has a fair July 31.

(1.) BUXTON, a town in the peak of Derby, celebrated for its medicinal waters. (See N° 4.) From the great reſort of company to the waters, this place has grown into a large irregular town, which is daily increaſing. The houſes are chiefly, or rather ſolely, built for the reception of invalids; and many of them are not only commodious, but elegant. The duke of Devonſhire has lately erected a moſt magnificent building in the form of a creſcent, with piazzas, under which the company walk in wet or cold weather. It is divided into different hotels, ſhops, &c. with a public coffee-room, and a very elegant room for aſſemblies and concerts: and has 29 windows in length on each floor beſides 5 at each end. There are ſtables on the back of this building of an octagonal form on the outſide and circular within the yard, where there is a riding-houſe. The principal trade of Buxton is the cotton manufacture. It lies in an open healthy country, 23 miles from Mancheſter, 32 NW. of Derby, and 160 NNW. of London. Lon. 1. 52. W. Lat. 53. 22. N.

(2.) BUXTON, a village in Norfolkſhire, SE. of Alſham.

(3.) BUXTON, Jedidiah, a prodigy with reſpect to ſkill in numbers. His father, William Buxton, was ſchoolmaſter of the pariſh where he was born in 1704: yet Jedidiah's education was ſo much neglected that he was never taught to write; and with reſpect to any other knowledge but that of numbers, ſeemed always as ignorant as a boy of ten years of age. How he came firſt to know the relative proportions of numbers, and their progreſſive denominations, he did not remember; but to this he applied the whole force of his mind, and upon this his attention was conſtantly fixed, ſo that he frequently took no cognizance of external objects, and when he did it, it was only with reſpect to their numbers. If any ſpace of time was mentioned, he would ſoon after ſay it was ſo many minutes; and if any diſtance of way, he would aſſign the number of hairs breadths, without any queſtion being aſked, or any calculation expected by the company. When he once underſtood a queſtion, he began to work with amazing facility, after his own method, without the uſe of a pen, pencil, or chalk, or even underſtanding the common rules of arithmetic as taught in the ſchools. He would ſtride over a piece of land or a field, and tell the contents of it almoſt as exact as if one had meaſured it by the chain. In this manner he meaſured the whole lordſhip of Elmton, of ſome thouſand acres, belonging to Sir John Rhodes, and brought him the contents, not only in acres, roods, and perches, but even in ſquare inches. After this, for his own amuſement, he reduced them into ſquare hair breadths, computing 48 to each ſide of the inch. His memory was ſo great, that while reſolving a queſtion, he could leave off, and reſume the operation again where he left off the next morning, or at a week, a month, or at ſeveral months, and proceed regularly till it was completed. His memory would doubtleſs have been equally retentive with reſpect to other objects, if he had attended to other objects with equal diligence; but his perpetual application to figures prevented the ſmalleſt acquiſition of any other knowledge. He was ſometimes aſked, on his return from church, whether he remembered the text or any part of the ſermon, but it never appeared that he brought away one ſentence; his mind, upon a cloſer examination, being found to have been buſied, even during divine ſervice, in his favourite operation, either dividing ſome time, or ſome ſpace into the ſmalleſt known parts, or reſolving ſome queſtion that had been given him as a teſt of his abilities. As this extraordinary perſon lived in laborious poverty, his life was uniform and obſcure. Time, with reſpect to him, changed nothing but his age; nor did the ſeaſons vary his employment, except that in winter he uſed a flail, and in ſummer a ling-hook. In 1754, he came to London, where he was introduced to the Royal Society, who, in order to prove his abilities, aſked him ſeveral queſtions in arithmetic, and he gave them ſuch ſatisfaction, that they diſmiſſed him with a handſome gratuity. In this viſit to the metropolis, the only object of his curioſity, except figures, was to ſee the king and royal family; but they being at Kenſington, Jedidiah was diſappointed. During his reſidence in London, he was taken to ſee King Richard III. performed at Drury Lane playhouſe; and it was expected, either that the novelty and the ſplendour of the ſhow would have fixed him in aſtoniſhment, or kept his imagination in a continual hurry, or that his paſſions would, in ſome degree, have been touched by the power of action, if he had not perfectly underſtood the dialogue. But Jedidiah's mind was employed in the playhouſe juſt as it was employed in every other place. During the dance, he fixed his attention upon the number of ſteps; he declared, after a fine piece of muſic, that the innumerable ſounds produced by the inſtruments had perplexed him beyond meaſure; and he attended even to Mr Garrick, only to count the words that he uttered, in which he ſaid he perfectly ſucceeded. Jedidiah returned to the place of his birth, where, if his enjoyments were few, his wiſhes did not ſeem to be greater. He applied to his labour with cheerfulneſs; he regretted nothing that he left behind him in London; and it continued to be his opinion, that a ſlice of ruſty bacon afforded the moſt delicious repaſt.

(4.) BUXTON WELLS are generally ranked among the wonders of the peak of Derby. It has been always believed by our antiquaries, that the Romans were acquainted with thoſe wells, and had frequented them much, as there is a military way ſtill viſible, called the *Bath-gate*, 7 m. long, from Burgh to Buxton. This was verified about 60 years ago, when Sir Thomas Delves, of Cheſhire, in memory of a cure he received here, cauſed an arch to be erected; in digging the foundations for which, they came to the remains of a ſolid and magnificent Roman ſtructure; and in other places of the neighbourhood, very capacious leaden veſſels, and other utenſils of Roman workmanſhip, have been diſcovered. Theſe waters have always been reckoned inferior to thoſe in Somerſetſhire; but ſeem never to have been totally diſuſed. They are mentioned by Leland,

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as well known above 200 years ago. They were brought into great credit by Dr Jones, in 1572, and by George earl of Shrewſbury, who erected a building over the bath, then compoſed of 9 ſprings. This building was afterwards pulled down, and a more commodious one erected at the expence of the earl of Devonſhire. In doing this, however, the ancient regiſter of cures drawn up by the bath-warden, or phyſician attending the baths, and ſubſcribed by the hands of the patients, was loſt. The warm waters of Buxton are, the bath, conſiſting of 9 ſprings, St Ann's well, and St Peter's or Bingham well. St Ann's well riſes at the diſtance of ſomewhat more than 32 yards NE. from the bath. It is chiefly ſupplied from a ſpring on the N. ſide out of a rock of black limeſtone or baſtard marble. It formerly roſe into a ſtone baſon, ſhut up within an ancient Roman brick wall, a yard ſquare within, a yard high on 3 ſides, and open on the 4th. But, in 1709, Sir Thomas Delves erected an arch over it, which is 12 feet long, and as many broad, ſet round with ſtone ſteps on the inſide. In the midſt of this dome the water ſprings up into a ſtone baſon two feet ſquare. St Peter's or Bingham well riſes about 20 yards SE. of St Ann's. It is alſo called *Leigh's well*, from a memorable cure received from it by a gentleman of that name. It riſes out of a black limeſtone, in a very dry ground; and is not ſo warm as St Ann's well. The hot water reſembles that of Briſtol. It has a ſweet and pleaſant taſte. It contains the calcareous earth, together with a ſmall quantity of ſea ſalt, and an inconſiderable portion of a purging ſalt, but no iron can be diſcovered in it. This water taken inwardly is eſteemed good in the diabetes, bloody urine, bilious cholic, loſs of appetite, coldneſs of the ſtomach, inward bleedings, atrophy, contractions of the veſſels and limbs, eſpecially from age, cramps and convulſions; dry aſthma without fever, and in barrenneſs. Inwardly and outwardly, it is ſaid to be good in rheumatic and ſcorbutic complaints, the gout, inflammation of the liver and kidneys, conſumptions of the lungs, old ſtrains, hard callous tumours, withered and contracted limbs, the itch, ſcabs, nodes, chalky ſwellings, ring worms, and ſimilar complaints.—Beſides the hot water, there is alſo a cold chalybeate water, with a rough irony taſte: It reſembles the Tunbridge water in virtues. Mr Barclay ſays, in his *Complete Eng. Dict.* the chief wonder of theſe waters is now loſt, this cold ſpring being now blended with the hot ones. For compoſing artificial Buxton water, or impregnating the original water with a greater quantity of its own or other gaſes, ſee WATERS, MEDICINAL.

BUXUS, the BOX-TREE: A genus of the tetrandria order, belonging to the monoecia claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 38th order, Tricoccæ. The male calyx is triphyllous; the germen an embryo, or imperfect rudiment. The female calyx is tetraphyllous: there are 3 petals, and as many ſtyles: the capſule is three-beaked and trilocular, with 3 ſeeds. There are 3 ſpecies; viz.

1. BUXUS ANGUSTIFOLIA, the narrow-leaved box:

2. BUXUS ARBORESCENS, with oval leaves. Theſe two ſpecies grow in great plenty upon Box-hill near Dorking in Surry. Here were formerly large trees of that kind; but now they are few in number. There are 2 or 3 varieties of the 2d ſort which are propagated in gardens; one with yellow, and the other with white ſtriped leaves. Another hath the tips of the leaves only marked with yellow, and is called *tipped box*. Both theſe ſpecies may be raiſed from ſeeds, or propagated by cuttings, planted in Autumn in a ſhady border. The beſt ſeaſon for removing theſe trees is in October; though if care be uſed to take them up with a ball of earth, they may be tranſplanted almoſt at any time except the middle of ſummer. The arboreſcens, or large box-tree is proper to intermix in clumps of evergreens, &c. where it adds to the variety of ſuch plantations: they are a very great ornament to cold and barren ſoils where few other things will grow. Boxwood is extremely hard and ſmooth, and therefore well adapted to the uſe of the turner. Combs, mathematical inſtruments, knife-handles, and button moulds, are made of it. It may properly enough be ſubſtituted in default of ebony, the yellow alburnum of which it perfectly reſembles. In the *Ephemerides of the Curious* there is the following account of the efficacy of boxwood in making the hair grow. "A young woman of Gunberg in Lower Sileſia, having had a malignant dyſentery, which occaſioned the falling off of all her hair, was adviſed by a perſon, ſome time after her recovery, (as her hair was not likely to grow again of itſelf, her head being then as bare as the hand,) to waſh it all over with a decoction of boxwood; which ſhe really did, without the addition of any other drug. Hair of a chefnut colour grew on her head, as ſhe was told it would do; but having uſed no precaution to ſecure her neck and face from the lotion, they became covered with red hair to ſuch a degree, that ſhe ſeemed little different from an ape or a monkey." This decoction has been recommended by ſome as a powerful ſudorific, preferable even to guiacum; but the taſte readily diſcovers that it wants the qualities of that wood. Neither the wood nor the leaves of the box-tree at preſent are uſed for any other medicinal purpoſe than the diſtillation of an empyreumatic oil; and an oil of nearly the ſame quality is obtained from almoſt every other wood.

3. BUXUS SUFFRUTICOSA, dwarf or Dutch box, commonly uſed for bordering flower-beds. It is increaſed by parting the roots, or planting the ſlips; but as it makes a great increaſe of itſelf, and eaſily parts, it is hardly worth while to plant the ſlips that have no roots. For borders to flower plots, it far excels any other plant, being ſubject to no injuries from cold or heat. It is of long duration; is eaſily kept handſome; and, by the firmneſs of its rooting, keeps the mould in the borders from waſhing into the gravel walks more effectually than any plant whatever.

BUY, BUIS, or BUYS, a town of France, on the Oreze, in the department of Drome, 30 m. S. of Die. See BUIS, (N° 2.) Lon. 5. 20. E. Lat. 44. 25. N.

(1.) * *To* BUY. *v. a.* preter. I *bought*; I have *bought*. [*bicgean*, Sax.] 1. To purchaſe; to acquire by paying a price; to obtain for money, or ſome-

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thing equivalent; to procure by ſale, not gift or theft.—They muſt *buy* up no corn growing within twelve miles of Geneva, that ſo the filling of their magazines may not prejudice their market. *Addiſon.* 2. To procure ſome advantage by ſomething that deſerves it, or at ſome price.—

I have *bought*
Golden opinions from all ſorts of people.
Shakeſpeare.

Pent to linger
But with a grain a day, I would not *buy*
Their mercy at the price of one fair word.
Shakeſpeare.

Pleaſure with praiſe, and danger they would *buy*,
And with a foe that would not only fly.
Denham.

3. To regulate by money: in this ſenſe it has particles annexed.—

You, and all the kings of chriſtendom,
Are led ſo groſsly by this meddling prieſt,
Dreading the curſe that money may *buy out*.
Shakeſpeare.

—What pitiful things are power, rhetorick, or riches, when they would terrify, diſſuade or *buy off* conſcience? *South.*

(2.)* *To* BUY. *v. n.* To treat about a purchaſe—I will *buy* with you, ſell with you, talk with you, walk with you, and ſo following. *Shakeſp.*

* BUYER. *n. ſ.* [from *To buy.*] He that buys; a purchaſer.—When a piece of art is ſet before us, let the firſt caution be, not to aſk who made it, leſt the fame of the author do captivate the fancy of the *buyer*. *Wotton.*

(1.) BUYING, the act of making a purchaſe or of acquiring the property of a thing for a certain price. Buying differs from borrowing or hiring, as in the former the property of the thing is alienated for perpetuity, which in the latter is not. By the civil law, perſons are allowed to buy hope, *ſpem precio emere*, that is, to purchaſe the event or expectation of any thing; *E. gr.* The fiſh or birds a perſon ſhall catch, or the money he ſhall win in gaming. There are different ſpecies of buying in uſe among traders; as, 1. on one's own account, 2. on commiſſion, 3. for ready money, 4. on credit, and 5. on delivery all of which are intelligible by the moſt illiterate.

(2.) BUYING THE REFUSAL is giving money for the right or liberty of purchaſing a thing at a fixed price, in a certain time to come; chiefly uſed in dealing for ſhares in ſtock. This is alſo called by a cant name, *buying the bear*.

(3.) BUYING THE SMALL-POX is an appellation given to a method of procuring that diſeaſe by an operation ſimilar to INOCULATION; frequent in South Wales, where it has obtained time out of mind. It is performed either by rubbing ſome of the *pus* taken out of a puſtule of a variolous perſon on the ſkin, or by making a puncture in the ſkin with a pin dipped in ſuch pus.

BUYS. See BUIS, N° 1. and 2. and BUY.

(1.) BUZ, the ſon of Nahor by Milcah, progenitor of the BUZITES, an anceſtor of Elihu the youngeſt and moſt judicious of Job's friends.

(2.) BUZ, in ichthyology, the name of a fiſh more commonly known by that of ALBULA, and caught in the German lakes.

BUZANCOIS, a ſmall town of France, in the department of Indre, and ci-devant province of Berry. Lon. 1. 29. E. Lat. 46. 38. N.

BUZANCY, a town of France, in the department of Ardennes. Lon. 5. 5. E. Lat. 49. 23. N.

BUZBACH, a town of Germany, in Wetaravia and the county of Holmes, on the confines of Hanau. Lon. 10. 51. E. Lat. 50. 22. N.

BUZET, a ſmall town of France, in the department of Upper Garonne, and ci-devant province of Languédoc, ſeated on the river Tarne, Lon. 1. 45. E. Lat. 43. 47. N.

BUZIDAN, in the materia medica of the ancients, a name given by Avicenna, and others, to a wood produced in Africa, which had the ſame virtues with the ben root.

(1.) BUZITES, a tribe of Arabs, the deſcendants of BUZ, who inhabited a diſtrict of Arabia Deſerta, and were at laſt enſlaved by Nebuchadnezzar.

(2.) BUZITES. See BUSITIS.

BUZO, in old records, the ſhaft of an arrow, before it is feathered.

* BUZZ. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] A hum; a whiſper; a talk.—The hive of a city or kingdom is in the beſt condition when there is leaſt noiſe or *buzz* in it. *Bacon.*—Where I found the whole outward room in a *buzz* of politicks. *Addiſon.*

(1.)* *To* BUZZ. *v. a.* To whiſper; to ſpread ſecretly.—

Where doth the world thruſt forth a vanity,
That is not quickly *buzz'd* into his ears? *Shak.*

I will *buzz* abroad ſuch propheſies,
That Edward ſhall be fearful of his life. *Shak.*

Did you not hear
A *buzzing* of a ſeparation
Between the king and Catherine? *Shakſ.*

—They might *buzz* and whiſper at one another, and, tacitly withdrawing from the preſence of the apoſtles, they then lift their voices, and noiſe it about the city. *Bentley.*

(2.)* *To* BUZZ. *v. n.* [*bizzen*, Teut. to growl. *Junius.*] 1. To hum; to make a noiſe like bees, flies, or waſps.—

And all the chamber filled with flies,
Which *buzzed* about, and made ſuch ſound,
That they encumber'd all men's ears and eyes,
Like many ſwarms of bees aſſembled round.
Spenſer.

There be more waſps, that *buzz* about his noſe,
Will make this ſting the ſooner. *Shakſ.*

For ſtill the flowers ready ſtand,
One *buzzes* round about,
One lights, one taſtes, gets in, gets out. *Suckling.*

What though no bees around your cradle flew,
Nor on your lips diſtill'd their golden dew;
Yet have we oft diſcover'd, in their ſtead,
A ſwarm of drones that *buzz'd* about your head. *Pope.*

—We join, like flies and waſps, in *buzzing* about wit. *Swift.* 2. To whiſper; to prate to.—

There is ſuch confuſion in my pow'rs,
As after ſome oration fairly ſpoke
By a beloved prince, there doth appear
Among the *buzzing* multitude. *Shakſ.*

3. To ſound heavy and low.—Herewith aroſe a *buzzing*

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buzzing noiſe among them, as if it had been the ruſtling ſound of the ſea afar off. *Hayward.*

(1.) * BUZZARD. *n. ſ.* [*buſard*, Fr.] 1. A degenerate or mean ſpecies of hawk.—

More pity that the eagle ſhould be mawl'd,
While kites and *buzzards* prey at liberty. *Shak.*

The noble *buzzard* ever pleas'd me beſt;
Of ſmall renown, 'tis true: for, not to lie,
We call him but a hawk by courteſy. *Dryden.*

2. A blockhead; a dunce.—Thoſe blind *buzzards*, who, in late years, of wilful maliciouſneſs, would neither learn themſelves, nor could teach others any thing at all. *Aſcham.*

(2.) BUZZARD, in ornithology, the name of ſeveral ſpecies of the hawk kind. See FALCO.

BUZZARD DIKES, a place in Perthſhire, about 7 or 8 miles SE. of Dunkeld, where the ancient Caledonians entrenched themſelves during the Roman invaſion under Agricola. "The buzzard dike or vallum, (ſays Mr Ritchie,) is ſtill in many places 8 or 10 feet high." *Stat. Acc. Vol.* IX. *p.* 262.

* BUZZER. *n. ſ.* [from *buzz.*] A ſecret whiſperer.—

Her brother is in ſecret come from France,
And wants not *buzzers* to infeſt his ear
With petulant ſpeeches of his father's death.
Shakeſpeare.

(I.) * BY. *prep.* [*bi*, *big*, Saxon.] 1. It notes the agent.—The Moor is with child *by* you, Launcelot. *Shakeſp.*—The grammar of a language is ſometimes to be carefully ſtudied *by* a gown-man. *Locke.*—

Death's what the guilty fear, the pious crave,
Sought *by* the wretch, and vanquiſh'd by the brave. *Garth.*

2. It notes the inſtrument, and is commonly uſed after a verb neuter, where *with* would be put after an active; as, he killed her *with* a ſword; ſhe died *by* a ſword.—

But *by* Pelides' arms when Hector fell,
He choſe Æneas, and he choſe as well. *Dryden.*

3. It notes the cauſe of any effect.—

I view, *by* no preſumption led,
Your revels of the night. *Parnel.*

By woe the ſoul to daring action ſteals,
By woe in plaintleſs patience it excels. *Savage.*

4. It notes the means by which any thing is performed, or obtained.—You muſt think, if we give you any thing, we hope to gain *by* you. *Shakeſ.*—

Happier! had it ſuffic'd him to have known
Good *by* itſelf, and evil not at all. *Par. Loſt.*

—The heart knows that *by* itſelf, which nothing in the world beſides can give it any knowledge of. *South.*—We obtain the knowledge of a multitude of propoſitions *by* ſenſation and reflection. *Watt's Logick.* 5. It ſhews the manner of an action.—

I have no patience; ſhe conſumes the time
In idle talk, and owns her falſe belief:
Seize her *by* force, and bear her hence unheard.
Dryden.

—This fight had more weight with him, as *by* good luck not above two of that venerable body were fallen aſleep. *Addiſon.*—

By chance, within a neighbouring brook,
He ſaw his branching horns, and alter'd look.
Addiſon.

6. It has a ſignification, noting the method in which any ſucceſſive action is performed with regard to time or quantity.—The beſt for you, is to re-examine the cauſe, and to try it even point *by* point, argument *by* argument, with all the exactneſs you can. *Hooker.*—We are not to ſtay all together, but to come by him where he ſtands, *by* ones, *by* twos, and *by* threes. *Shakeſpeare.*—He calleth them forth *by* one, and *by* one, by the name, as he pleaſeth, though ſeldom the order be inverted. *Bacon.*—The captains were obliged to break that piece of ordnance, and ſo *by* pieces to carry it away, that the enemy ſhould not get ſo great a ſpoil. *Knolles.*—Common prudence would direct me to take them all out, and examine them one *by* one. *Boyle.*—Others will ſoon take pattern and encouragement by your building; and ſo houſe *by* houſe, ſtreet *by* ſtreet, there will at laſt be finiſhed a magnificent city. *Spratt.*—

Explor'd her limb *by* limb, and fear'd to find
So rude a gripe had left a vivid mark behind.
Dryden.

Thus year *by* year they paſs, and day *by* day,
Till once 'twas on the morn of chearful May,
The young Æmilia——— *Dryden.*

I'll gaze for ever on thy godlike father,
Tranſplanting one *by* one into my life,
His bright perfections, till I ſhine like him.
Addiſon.

—Let the blows be *by* pauſes laid on. *Locke.* 7. It notes the quantity had at one time.—Bullion will fell *by* the ounce for 6 ſh. and 5 d. unclipped money. *Locke.*—What we take daily *by* pounds, is at leaſt of as much importance, as what we take ſeldom, and only *by* grains and ſpoonfuls. *Arbuthnot.*—

The North, *by* myriads, pours her mighty ſons;
Great nurſe of Goths, of Alans, and of Huns.
Pope.

8. At, or in; noting place: it is now perhaps only uſed before the words *ſea*, or *water*, and *land*. This ſeems a remnant of a meaning now little known. *By* once † expreſſed ſituation; as, *by weſt*, weſtward.—We ſee the great effects of battles *by* ſea; the battle of Actium decided the empire of the world. *Bacon.*—

Arms, and the man, I ſing, who, forc'd by fate,
Expell'd, and exil'd, left the Trojan ſhore;
Long labours both *by* ſea and land he bore. *Dryd.*

I would have fought *by* land, where I was ſtronger:
You hinder'd it; yet, when I fought at ſea,
Forſook me fighting. *Dryden.*

By land, *by* water, they renew their charge. *Pope.*

9. According to; noting permiſſion.—It is lawful, both *by* the laws of nature and nations, and *by* the law divine, which is the perfection of the other two. *Bacon's Holy War.* 10. According to; noting proof.—The preſent, or like, ſyſtem of the world cannot poſſibly have been eternal, *by* the firſt propoſition; and, without God, it could not naturally, nor fortuitouſly, emerge out of chaos, *by* the third propoſition. *Bentley.*—The faculty, or deſire, being infinite, *by* the preceding propoſition, may contain or receive both theſe. *Cheyne.*

11.

† *We know not why Dr Johnſon has inſerted the word* once *here.* BY *certainly ſtill expreſſes ſituation, and in this ſenſe is applied to diſtinguiſh various points in the compaſs; as* W. by N.—NE. by E. *&c.*

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11. After; according to; noting imitation or conformity.—The gospel gives us such laws, as every man, that understands himself, would chuse to live *by*. *Tillotson.*—In the divisions I have made, I have endeavoured, the best I could, to govern myself *by* the diversity of matter. *Locke.*—This ship, by good luck, fell into their hands at last, and served as a model to build others *by*. *Arbuthnot.* 12. From; noting ground of judgment, or comparison.—

Thus, by the musick, we may know,
When noble wits a hunting go,
Through groves that on Parnassus grow. *Waller.*

—*By* what he has done, before the war in which he was engaged, we may expect what he will do after a peace. *Dryden.*—

The son of Hercules he justly seems,
By his broad shoulders and gigantick limbs. *Dryd.*
Who's that stranger? *By* his warlike port,
His fierce demeanour, and erected look,
He's of no vulgar note. *Dryden.*
Judge the event
By what has pass'd. *Dryden.*

—The punishment is not to be measured *by* the greatness or smallness of the matter, but *by* the opposition it carries and stands in, to that respect and submission that is due to the father. *Locke.*—*By* your description of the town, I imagine it to lie under some great enchantment. *Pope.*—*By* what I have always heard and read, I take the strength of a nation—. *Swift.* 13. It notes the sum of the difference between two things compared.—

Meantime she stands provided of a Laius,
More young and vigorous too by twenty springs.
Dryden.
Her brother Rivers,
Ere this, lies shorter *by* the head at Pomfret.
Rowe.

—By giving the denomination to less quantities of silver *by* one 20th, you take from their due. *Locke.* 14. It notes co-operation.—*By* her he had two children at one birth. *Shakespeare.* 15. For; noting continuance of time. This sense is not now in use.—Ferdinand and Isabella recovered the kingdom of Granada from the Moors; having been in possession thereof *by* the space of 700 years. *Bacon.* 16. As soon as; not later than; noting time.—

By this, the sons of Constantine which fled,
Ambrise and Uther, did ripe years attain.
Fairy Queen.
Hector, *by* the fifth hour of the sun,
Will, with a trumpet, 'twixt our tents and Troy,
To morrow morning call some knights to arms.
Shakespeare.
He err'd not; for, *by* this, the heav'nly bands
Down from a sky of jasper lighted now
In paradise. *Milton.*
These have their course to finish round the earth
By morrow ev'ning. *Milton's Paradise Lost.*
The angelick guards ascending, mute and sad
For man: for of his state *by* this they knew.
Paradise Lost.

—*By* that time a siege is carried on two or three days, I am altogether lost and bewildered in it. *Addison.*—*By* this time the very foundation was removed. *Swift.*—*By* the beginning of the fourth century from the building of Rome, the tribunes proceed so far, as to accuse and fine the consuls. *Swift.* 17. Beside; noting passage.—Many beautiful places standing along the sea-shore, make the town appear longer than it is, to those that sail *by* it. *Addison.* 18. Beside; near to; in presence; noting proximity of place.—So thou may'st say, the king lies *by* a beggar, if a beggar dwell near him; or the church stands *by* thy tabour, if thy tabour stand *by* the church. *Shakespeare.*—

Here he comes himself;
If he be worth any man's good voice,
That good man sit down *by* him. *Ben Jonson.*
A spacious plain, whereon
Were tents of various hue: *by* some, were herds
Of cattle grazing. *Milton.*
Stay *by* me; thou art resolute and faithful;
I have employment worthy of thy arm. *Dryden.*

19. Before *himself*, *herself*, or *themselves*, it notes the absence of all others.—Sitting in some place, *by himself*, let him translate into English his former lesson. *Ascham.*—Solyman resolved to assault the breach, after he had, *by himself*, in a melancholy mood, walked up and down in his tent. *Knolles's History of the Turks.*—I know not whether he will annex his discourse to his appendix, or publish it *by itself*, or at all. *Boyle.*—He will imagine, that the king, and his ministers, sat down and made them *by themselves*, and then sent them to their allies, to sign. *Swift.*—

More pleas'd to keep it, till their friends could come,
Then eat the sweetest *by themselves* at home. *Pope.*

20. At hand.—He kept then some of the spirit *by* him, to verify what he believes. *Boyle.*—The merchant is not forced to keep so much money *by* him, as in other places, where they have not such a supply. *Locke.* 21. It is the solemn form of swearing.—

His godhead I invoke, *by* him I swear. *Dryd.*

22. It is used in forms of adjuring, or obtesting.—

Which, O! avert *by* yon etherial light,
Which I have lost for this eternal night;
Or if, by dearer ties, you may be won,
By your dead fire, and *by* your living son. *Dryd.*
Now *by* your joys on earth, your hopes in heav'n,
O spare this great, this good, this aged king!
Dryden.
O cruel youth!
By all the pain that wrings my tortur'd soul!
By all the dear deceitful hopes you gave me,
O, cease! at least, once more delude my sorrows,
Smith.

23. It signifies specification and particularity.—

Upbraiding heav'n, from whence this lineage came,
And cruel calls the gods, and cruel thee, *by* name. *Dryden.*

24. By proxy of; noting substitution.—The gods were said to feast with the Ethiopians; that is, they were present with them *by* their statues. *Broome.* 25. In the same direction with.—They are also striated, or furrowed, *by* the length, and the sides curiously punched, or pricked. *Grew.*

(U.)

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(II.) * BY. *adv.* 1. Near; at a ſmall diſtance.—
And in it lies, the god of ſleep;
And, ſnorting *by*,
We may deſcry
The monſters of the deep. *Dryden.*

2. Beſide; paſſing.—
I did hear
The galloping of horſe. Who was't came *by*?
Shakeſpeare.

3. In preſence.—The ſame words in my lady Philocela's mouth, as from one woman to another, ſo as there was no other body *by*, might have had a better grace. *Sidney.*—
I'll not be *by*, the while; my liege, farewel:
What will become hereof, there's none can tell.
Shakeſpeare.
There while I ſing, if gentle youth be *by*,
That tunes my lute, and winds the ſtrings ſo high. *Waller.*
Priſoners and witneſſes were waiting *by*;
Theſe had been taught to ſwear, and thoſe to die. *Roſcommon.*
—You have put a principle into him, which will influence his actions, when you are not *by*. *Locke.*

(1.) BY AND ATTOUR, in Scots law, beſides; over and above. It is chiefly uſed in indentures, reſpecting penalties to be incurred for failure of duty, "*by and attour* performance."

(2.) * BY AND BY. In a ſhort time.—He overtook Amphialus, who had been ſtaid here, and *by and by* called him to fight him. *Sidney.*—
The noble knight alighted *by and by*,
From lofty ſteed, and bad the lady ſtay,
To ſee what end of fight ſhould him befall that day. *Spenſer.*
In the temple, *by and by*, with us,
Theſe couples ſhall eternally be knit. *Shakeſp.*
O how this ſpring of love reſembleth
The uncertain glory of an April day;
Which now ſhews all the beauty of the ſun,
And *by and by* a cloud takes all away.
Shakeſpeare.
Now a ſenſible man, *by and by* a fool, and preſently a beaſt. *Shakeſpeare's Othello.*

(III.) * BY. *n.ſ.* † [from the preposition.] Something not the direct and immediate object of regard.—In this inſtance, there is, upon the *by*, to be noted, the percolation of the verjuice through the wood. *Bacon.*—This wolf was forced to make bold, ever and anon, with a ſheep in private, by the *by*. *L'Eſtrange.*—Hence we may underſtand, to add that upon the *by*, that it is not neceſſary. *Boyle.*—
So, while my lov'd revenge is full and high,
I'll give you back your kingdom by the *by*.
Dryden.

(IV.) * BY, in compoſition, implies ſomething out of the direct way; and, conſequently, ſome obſcurity, as a *by-road*; ſomething irregular, as a *by-end*; or ſomething collateral, as a *by-concernment*; or private, as a *by-law*‡. This compoſition is uſed at pleaſure, and will be underſtood by the examples following:

(1.) * BY-COFFEEHOUSE. *n.ſ.* A coffeehouſe in an obſcure place.—I afterwards entered a *by-coffeehouſe*, that ſtood at the upper end of a narrow lane, where I met with a non-juror. *Addiſ.*

(2.) * BY-CONCERNMENT. *n.ſ.* An affair which is not the main buſineſs.—Our plays, beſides the main deſign, have under-plots, or *by-concernments*, or leſs conſiderable perſons and intrigues, which are carried on with the motion of the main plot. *Dryden.*

(3.) * BY-DEPENDENCE. *n.ſ.* An appendage; ſomething accidentally depending on another.—
Theſe,
And your three motives to the battle, with
I know not how much more, ſhould be demanded;
And all the other *by-dependencies*,
From chance to chance. *Shakeſpeare.*

(4.) * BY-DESIGN. *n.ſ.* An incidental purpoſe.—
And if ſhe miſs the mouſe trap lines,
They'll ſerve for other *by-deſigns*,
And make an artiſt underſtand,
To copy out her ſeal or hand;
Or find void places in the paper,
To ſteal in ſomething to entrap her. *Hudibras.*

(5.) * BY-END. *n.ſ.* Private intereſt; ſecret advantage.—All people that worſhip for fear, profit, or ſome other *by-end*, fall within the intendment of this fable. *L'Eſtrange.*

(6.) * BY-GONE. *adj.* [a Scotch word.] Paſt.—
Tell him, you're ſure
All in Bohemia's well: this ſatisfaction
The *by-gone* day proclaim'd. *Shakeſpeare.*
—As we have a conceit of motion coming, as well as *by-gone*; ſo have we of time, which dependeth thereupon. *Grew.*

(7.) * BY-INTEREST. *n.ſ.* Intereſt diſtinct from that of the public.—Various factions and parties, all aiming at *by-intereſt*, without any ſincere regard to the publick good. *Atterbury.*

(8.) * BY-LAW. *n.ſ.* *By-laws* are orders made in court-leets, or court barons, by common aſſent, for the good of thoſe that make them, farther than the publick law binds. *Cowel.*—There was alſo a law, to reſtrain the *by-laws* and ordinances of corporations. *Bacon.*—In the beginning of this record is inſerted the law or inſtitution; to which are added two *by-laws*, as a comment upon the general law. *Addiſon.*

(9.) BY-LAWS are laws made *obiter*, or by the by; in particular caſes whereunto the public law doth not extend. Guilds and fraternities of trades by letters patent of incorporation, may likewiſe make by-laws for the better regulation of trade among themſelves or others. In Scotland theſe laws are called laws of BYRLAW, or BURLAW; which

† *Dr* JOHNSON *is wrong in ſtating* BY *here, as a* ſubſtantive noun. *In none of his authorities above quoted, and indeed in no caſe whatever, that we can recollect, does* BY *ever expreſs any* name *or* ſubſtance, *real or imaginary. The expreſſions* "BY THE BY" *and* "UPON THE BY" *are evidently* adverbial, *like* BY AND BY; *which he has very properly made a diſtinct article. In Latin and Greek they are expreſſed in one word.*—Obiter, παρεργως.

‡ *Dr* ASH *ranks* BY, *in theſe ſenſes, as an* adjective, *which it certainly muſt be conſidered in all ſuch caſes, where the* primitives *are diſjoined by throwing out the* hyphen. *But moſt of the compounds, enumerated by Dr* JOHNSON *in the ſubſequent liſt, are ſufficiently eſtabliſhed by cuſtom.*

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which are made by neighbours elected by common consent in the byrlaw courts, wherein knowledge is taken of complaints between neighbour and neighbour; which men so chosen are judges and arbitrators, and styled BYRLAW-MEN. And byrlaws, according to Skene, are *leges rusticorum*, laws made by husbandmen, or townships, concerning neighbourhood among them. All by-laws are to be reasonable, and for the common benefit, not private advantage of particular persons, and must be agreeable to the public laws in being.

(10.) * BY-MATTER. *n. s.* Something incidental.—I knew one, that when he wrote a letter, he would put that which was most material into the postscript, as if it had been a *by-matter*. *Bacon.*

(11.) * BY-NAME. *n. s.* A nick-name; name of reproach, or accidental appellation.—Robert, eldest son to the Conquerour, used short hose, and thereupon was *by-named* Court-hose, and shewed first the use of them to the English. *Camden.*

(12.) * BY-PAST. *adj.* Past; a term of the Scotch dialect.—Wars, pestilences, and diseases, have not been fewer for these 300 years *by-past*, than ever they had been since we have had records.

(13.) * BY-PATH. *n. s.* A private or obscure path.—

Heav'n knows, my son,
By what *by-paths* and indirect crook'd ways,
I got this crown. *Shakespeare.*

(14.) * BY-RESPECT. *n. s.* Private end or view.—It may be that some, upon *by-respects*, find somewhat friendly usage in usance, at some of their hands. *Carew.*—The archbishops and bishops, next under the king, have the government of the church: be not you the mean to prefer any to those places, for any *by-respects*, but only for their learning, gravity, and worth. *Bacon.*—Augustus, who was not altogether so good as he was wise, had some *by-respects* in the enacting of this law; for to do any thing for nothing, was not his maxim. *Dryden.*

(15.) * BY-ROAD. *n. s.* An obscure unfrequented path.—

Through slipp'ry *by-roads*, dark and deep,
They often climb, and often creep. *Swift.*

(16.) * BY-ROOM. *n. s.* A private room within another.—I pr'ythee, do thou stand in some *by-room*, while I question my puny drawer to what end he gave the sugar. *Shakespeare.*

(17.) * BY-SPEECH. *n. s.* An incidental or casual speech, not directly relating to the point.—When they come to alledge what word and what law they meant, their common ordinary practice is to quote *by-speeches*, in some historical narration or other, and to use them as if they were written in most exact form of law. *Hooker.*

(18.) * BY-STANDER. *n. s.* A looker on; one unconcerned.—She broke her feathers, and, falling to the ground, was taken up by the *by-standers*. *L'Estrange.*—The *by-standers* asked him, why he ran away, his bread being weight? *Locke.*

(19.) * BY-STREET. *n. s.* An obscure street.—

The broker here his spacious beaver wears,
Upon his brow sit jealousies and cares;
Bent on some mortgage, to avoid reproach,
He seeks *by-streets*, and saves the expensive coach. *Gay.*

(20.) * BY-VIEW. *n. s.* Private self-interested purpose.—No *by-views* of his own shall mislead him. *Atterbury.*

(21.) * BY-WALK. *n. s.* A private walk; not the main road.—He moves afterwards in *by-walks*, or under-plots, as diversions to the main design, lest it should grow tedious; though they are still naturally joined. *Dryden.*—The chief avenue ought to be the most ample and noble; but there should be *by-walks*, to retire into sometimes, for ease and refreshment. *Broome.*

(22.) * BY-WAY. *n. s.* A private and obscure way.—Night stealths are commonly driven in *by-ways*, and by blind fords, unused of any but such like. *Spenser on Ireland.*—

Other *by-ways* he himself betook,
Where never foot of living weight did tread. *Spenser.*

Wholly abstain, or wed: thy beauteous Lord
Allows thee choice of paths; take no *by-ways*,
But gladly welcome what he doth afford;
Not grudging that thy lust hath bounds and stays. *Herbert.*

—A servant, or a favourite, if he be in want, and no other apparent cause of esteem, is commonly thought but a *by-way* to close corruption. *Bacon.*—This is wonderfully diverting to the understanding, thus to receive a precept, as it were, through a *by-way*, and to apprehend an idea that draws a whole train after it. *Addison.*

(23.) * BY-WEST. *n. s.*† Westward; to the west of.—Whereupon grew that by-word, used by the Irish, that they dwelt *by-west* the lay, which dwelt beyond the river of the Barrow. *Davies on Ireland.*

(24.) * BY-WORD. *n. s.* A saying; a proverb.

Bashful Henry be deposed; whose cowardice
Hath made us *by-words* to our enemies. *Shak.*

—I knew a wise man, that had it for a *by-word*, when he saw men hasten to a conclusion, Stay a little, that we may make an end the sooner. *Bacon.*—We are become a *by-word* among the nations for our ridiculous feuds and animosities. *Addison.*—It will be his lot often, to look singular, in loose and licentious times, and to become a *by-word* and a reproach, among the men of wit and pleasure. *Atterbury.*

* BYASS. *n. s.* See BIAS. Every inordinate lust is a false *byass* upon men's understandings, which naturally draws towards atheism. *Tillotson.*

BYBLIS, in fabulous history, the daughter of Miletus, who falling in love with her brother CAUNUS, killed herself, and was metamorphosed into a fountain.

BYBLUS, in ancient geography, a town of Phœnicia, situated between Berytus and Botrys; it

† *Dr* JOHNSON *is mistaken by stating* BY-WEST *as a* substantive noun. *It neither expresses the* name *nor the* substance *of any thing. In fact, it is not a* compound, *but two distinct words; and ought to have had no place in this list of the compounds of* BY; *especially as he had previously explained them above, in* § I. def. 8. *It does not come under any one of his introductory definitions, in* § IV.; *being neither expressive of* "obscurity," *nor of any thing* "irregular, collateral, *or* private;" *but merely pointing out the art to be* westward.

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it was the royal reſidence of Cinyras, and ſacred to Adonis. Pompey delivered it from a tyrant, whom he cauſed to be beheaded. It ſtood near the ſea, on an eminence, and near it ran the Adonis into the Mediterranean. It is now in ruins.

BYBURY, a town NW. of Fairford, Glouceſterſhire.

BYCHOW, a ſmall town of Poland, in Lithuania, ſituated on the river Dnieper. Lon. 30. 2. E. Lat. 53. 57. N.

To BYDDE. *v. a. obſ.* To publiſh. *Chauc.*

* BYE, or BEE, come immediately from the Saxon, *bee beeing, i. e.* a dwelling.

BYEBE, *n. ſ. obſ.* A dwelling. *Gibſon.*

BYER, *n. ſ. obſ.* A cow-houſe. *Aſh.*

BYERLEY, NORTH, } Two villages in York-
BYERLEY, SOUTH, } ſhire, near Bradford.

BYFIELD, in Northamptonſhire, between Banbury and Daventry.

BYFLEET, in Surry, near Cobham.

BYFORD, two villages; 1. in Herefordſhire, near Bredwardin: 2. in Holderneſs, Yorkſhire.

BYFORNE, *prep. obſ.* Before. *Chauc.*

BYGHOF, or BYNCHOW, a town of Ruſſian Lithuania, ſeated on the Dnieper, in the palatinate of Mieciſlaw, 186 m. S. of Wilna. Lon. 30. 15. E. Lat. 52. 10. N.

BYGRAVE-HALL, NW. of Baldock, Hertford.

To BYHETE, *v. n. obſ.* To promiſe. *Chauc.*

BYKER, *n. ſ. obſ.* A fray; a quarrel.

BYKESHORE, a village 1 m. from Newcaſtle upon Tyne.

BYKEWARE, near Hawkſbury, Glouceſterſh.

BYLAND, in Yorkſhire, near Thirſk.

BY-LAW. See BY, N° IV. § 8, 9.

To BYLEVE, *v. n. obſ.* To abide; to tarry. *Chauc.*

BYLEY, a village in Cheſhire, NE. of Middlewich.

BYNALL, 3 miles SE. of Wooton-Baſſet.

BYNAMY, near Beeds-Haven, Cornwall.

BYNCHOW. See BYGHOF.

To BYNEMME, *v. n. obſ.* To bereave. *Ch.*

BYNEMPT. *adj. obſ.* Named. *Spenſer.*

(1.) BYNG, George, lord viſcount Torrington, the ſon of John Byng, Eſq; was born in 1663. At the age of 15, he went volunteer to ſea with the king's warrant. His early engagement in this courſe of life gave him little opportunity of acquiring learning, but by his abilities and activity as a naval commander he furniſhed abundant matter for the pens of others. After being ſeveral times advanced, he was, in 1702, raiſed to the command of the Naſſau, a third rate, and was at the taking and burning of the French fleet at Vigo; and in 1703, he was made rear-admiral of the red. In 1704, he ſerved in the grand fleet ſent to the Mediterranean under Sir Cloudeſly Shovel; and he commanded the ſquadron that attacked, cannonaded, and reduced Gibraltar. He was in the battle of Malaga, and was knighted for his gallant behaviour in that action by queen Anne. In 1705, within two months, he took 12 of the enemy's largeſt privateers, with the Thetis, a French man of war of 44 guns; and alſo ſeveral merchant ſhips, moſt of them richly laden. The number of men taken on board was 2070, and of guns 334. In 1718, he was made admiral and commander in chief of the fleet; and was ſent with a ſquadron into the Mediterranean for the protection of Italy, againſt the invaſion of the Spaniards; who had ſurprized Sardinia, and landed an army in Sicily. In this expedition he diſpatched captain Walton in the Canterbury, with 5 more ſhips in purſuit of ſix Spaniſh men of war, with galleys, fire-ſhips, bomb-veſſels, and ſtore-ſhips, who ſeparated from the main fleet, and ſtood in for the Sicilian ſhore. The captain's laconic epiſtle on this occaſion is worthy of record; which ſhowed that fighting was his talent as well as his Admiral's, and not writing. "Sir, We have taken and deſtroyed all the Spaniſh ſhips and veſſels which were upon the coaſt as per margin. Canterbury, off Syracuſe, I am, &c. G. WALTON, Auguſt 16th, 1718." From the account referred to, it appeared that he had taken 4 Spaniſh men of war, with a bomb-veſſel and a ſhip laden with arms; and burned 4 with a fire-ſhip and bomb-veſſel. The king made the admiral an handſome preſent, and ſent him plenipotentiary powers to negociate with the princes and ſtates of Italy as there ſhould be occaſion. He procured the emperor's troops free acceſs into the fortreſſes that ſtill held out in Sicily; ſailed afterwards to Malta, and brought out the Sicilian galleys, and a ſhip belonging to the Turky company. Soon after he received a gracious letter from the emperor Charles VI. written with his own hand, accompanied with his picture, ſet round with very large diamonds, as a mark of the grateful ſenſe he had of his ſervices. It was entirely owing to his advice and aſſiſtance, that the Germans retook the city of Meſſina in 1719, and deſtroyed the ſhips that lay in the baſon; which completed the ruin of the naval power of Spain. The Spaniards being much diſtreſſed, offered to quit Sicily; but the admiral declared, that the troops ſhould never be ſuffered to quit the iſland till the king of Spain had acceded to the quadruple alliance. And to his conduct it was entirely owing that Sicily was ſubdued, and that monarch forced to accept the terms preſcribed him by the quadruple alliance. After performing ſo many ſignal ſervices, the king received him with the moſt gracious expreſſions of favour and ſatisfaction; made him rear-admiral of England and treaſurer of the navy, one of his moſt honourable privy council, baron Byng of Southill in the county of Bedford, viſcount Torrington, in Devonſhire, and one of the knights companions of the Bath. In 1727, Geo. II. on his acceſſion to the crown, placed him at the head of his naval affairs, as firſt lord of the Admiralty; in which high ſtation he died Jan. 15, 1733, in the 70th year of his age, and was buried at Southill in Bedfordſhire.

(2.) BYNG, George, Eſq; the unfortunate ſon of the former, was bred to ſea, and roſe to the rank of admiral of the blue. He gave many proofs of courage; but was at laſt ſhot, upon a dubious ſentence for neglect of duty, in 1757. See ENGLAND, HISTORY OF.

BYNITH-WOOD, in the county of Cornwal', between Leſkaid and Launceſton.

To BYNOME, *v. a. obſ.* To take away. *Ch.*

BYNTON, a town near Bitford, Warwickſh.

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BYNWESTON, a village in Shropshire, near Montgomeryshire.

To BYNYM. *v. a. obs.* To bereave. *Chauc.*

BY-PAST, } By-road, and the other com-
BY-PATH, } pounds of BY. See By, § IV.

BYRAFT. *part. obs.* Bereft.

(1.) BYRAM, a town in Lancashire, between Newton-Chapel and Leigh.

(2.) BYRAM, a Turkish feast. See BAIRAM.

BYRAMLIC, a present given at the byram.

BYRCH MAGNA, } two villages in Herefordsh.
BYRCH PARVA, } SW. of Aconbury.

BYRD, William. See BIRD, N° 1.

BYREBURN, a rivulet in Dumfries-shire.

BYREBURN-FOOT, a place in Dumfries-shire, where the D. of Buccleugh has a colliery; which is wrought by a water engine of a new construction; invented by Mr Keir of Milholm. It is moved by a large square bucket, suspended from a lever, with a valve at the bottom, which by a peculiar machinery, shuts and opens, at the instant the bucket fills and empties itself. The other end of the lever being fixed to the pump, the pumping is constantly carried on, by the continued action of the bucket, ascending and descending, filling and emptying.

BYRGISHERAD. See BIRSAY, N° 2.

BYRLAW, or BURLAW LAWS, in Scotland. See LY-LAWS, under By, N° IV. § 9.

(1.) BYROM, a village in Yorkshire, near Ferrybridge.

(2.) BYROM, John, an ingenious poet of Manchester, born in 1791. His first poetical essay appeared in the Spectator, vol. 8, N° 603, beginning, "My time, O ye Muses, was happily spent." He was admitted a member of the Royal Society in 1724; and having originally entertained thoughts of practising physic, to which the title of *doctor* is incident, that was the appellation by which he was always known; but reducing himself to narrow circumstances by a precipitate marriage, he supported his family by teaching a new method of writing short-hand, of his own invention; until an estate devolved to him by the death of an elder brother. He was a man of lively wit, of which he gave many humorous specimens. He died in 1763; and a collection of his Miscellaneous Poems was printed at Manchester, in 2 vols 8vo. 1773.

BYRON's ISLAND, a low, woody, and very populous island in the S. Pacific Ocean. The people are strong and active, and their countenances expressive of cheerfulness and intrepidity. Lon. 173. 46. E. Lat. 1. 18. S.

BYRRHUS, in entomology, a genus of insects belonging to the order of coleoptera. The feelers are clavated, pretty solid, and a little compressed. There are 5 species, which are found on particular plants, and principally distinguished from one another by the colour and figure of the elytra, or crustaceous wing-cases. See *Plate* XLI. *Fig.* 8.

1. BYRRHUS SCROPHULARIÆ, which is very common upon flowers, is very hard to describe properly. Its body is almost oval; the ground colour black; but the under part of the abdomen appears almost entirely white, owing to an infinite number of minute scales, of that colour, with which it is covered. The head is small, and often drawn back under the thorax, which is broad, covered with white and reddish scales, through which the black ground in some places appears. The elytra are bent in, and even inclose the sides and under part of the body. They are black, with white and red scales, which form a kind of embroidered work. There is observable a white transverse stripe, somewhat broad on the top of the elytra; at the bottom of them, there are two white distinct spots near the suture, one upon each elytrum. The ruddy colour occupies chiefly the lower end of the suture of the elytra, and the upper part of them, near their connection with the thorax. This species is common in gardens. If rubbed, the small coloured scale comes off, and the insect appears almost entirely black.

2. BYRRHUS VERBASCI is much smaller than the preceding; (N° 1.) its figure and form are however the same; only that the scales which cover the elytra are more numerous and closer set; so that the black colour, which constitutes the ground of the elytra, is no where to be seen. The scales form 3 stripes, white, transverse, and undulated, between which intervene stripes of a reddish brown shaped in the same manner. They are sometimes stripped of part of their scales, which renders them so different as not to be known for the same creatures. The larvæ of this insect, as well as those of the preceding species, are extremely voracious, and greatly resemble those of the dermestæ. Those who collect subjects of natural history, are greatly pestered, and but too well acquainted with them.

BYRRUS. See BIRRUS.

BYRSA, in ancient geography, a citadel of Carthage.

BYRSEUS, in fabulous history, a king of Thrace, who having entertained Jupiter, Mercury, and Neptune, with great hospitality, was offered, as a reward for his virtue, whatever he should ask. Having no children, he asked a son, whom these deities accordingly co-operated to produce, in a manner not more miraculous than ridiculous, by jointly making their water on a bull's hide; which, being buried in the earth, in due time produced the boy ORION.

BYRSODEPSICON, [from βυρσα, skin, and δεψω, I dress,] an epithet given to sumach, denoting its use in dyeing of leather. See SUMACH.

BYSAS, a Thracian monarch, who, according to Diodorus Siculus, founded Byzantium. Eustathius makes him a native of Megara, who arrived in Thrace, and settled there with a colony of Megarenses, a short time before the expedition of the Argonauts.

BYSEGID. *part. obs.* Besieged. *Chauc.*

BYSSINE, *adj.* [from *byssus,*] Silken. *Ash.*

BYSSUM, or, } a fine thready matter produced
(1.) BYSSUS, } in India, Egypt, and about Elis in Achaia, of which the richest apparel was anciently made, especially that worn by the priests both Jewish and Egyptian. Some interpreters render the Greek βυσσος, which occurs both in the Old and New Testament, by *fine linen.* But other versions, as Calvin's and the Spanish printed at Venice in 1556, explain the word by *silk;* and yet byssus must have been different from our silk, as appears from many ancient writers, particularly Julius Pollux.—M. Simon, who renders the word by

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by fine linen, adds in a note, "that there was a fine kind of linen very dear, which the great lords alone wore in this country, as well as in Egypt." This account agrees with that of Hesychius, as well as with Bochart's observation, that the byssus was a finer kind of linen, which was frequently dyed of a purple colour. Some authors will have the byssus to be the same with our cotton; others take it for the *linum asbestinum*; and others for the lock or bunch of silky hair found adhering to the pinna marina, by which it fastens itself to other bodies. Authors usually distinguish two sorts of byssus; that of Elis; and that of Judæa, which was the finest. Of this latter were the priestly ornaments made. Bonfrerius says, that there must have been two sorts of byssus, one finer than the other; as there are two Hebrew words used in Scripture to denote byssus; one of which is always used in speaking of the habit of the priests, and the other of that of the Levites.

(2.) BYSSUS, in botany, a genus of mosses, belonging to the order algæ, in the cryptogamia class of plants; and ranked by some under *Algæ*, the 57th order in the natural method; though others rank them under the 58th, *Fungi*. The characters are, that the mosses of it are composed of simple and uniform parts, and always appear in form of excrescences, either of a woolly or of a dusty matter. It seems properly a genus of a middle kind, between the mushrooms and the mosses, but most approaching to the latter, as the several species of it are of longer duration, and want that fleshy texture which distinguishes the *fungus* class, and as they never produce heads, nor have any thing of the figure or texture of *fungi*. They have not yet been discovered to have either flower or seed, but appear always in form of threads, or of a light down, or fine powder, an the surface of many different bodies, but principally such as are liable to putrefaction. Micheli, in his *Nov. Gen. Plantarum*, p. 210. mentions the seeds of some of the *byssi*: but later botanists, and particularly the indefatigable Dillenius, were never able to observe them. This last author has described 20 species of these small plants. There are 15 species natives of Britain, which grow upon old walls, rotten wood, &c. They are also found in many parts of Europe, covering the ground like a carpet. See *Plate* XLVI. *Fig.* 11.

(3.) BYSSUS ASBESTINUS, a species of asbestus or combustible flax, composed of fine flexible parallel fibres. It is found plentifully in Sweden, either white or of different shades of green. At a copper mine in Westmannland, it forms the greatest part of the vein out of which the ore is dug; and by the heat of the furnace which melts the metal, is changed into a pure semi-transparent glass.

BY THE BY, or BY THE WAY, *adv.* An expression of apology, for some slight digression from the immediate subject of discourse. We state it as an adverb, or *adverbial expression*, though consisting of *three* words, not so much because it is expressed in *one* word in other languages, as because the word BY is in no case a *substantive noun*, and the synonime WAY is here used in a sense quite different from its *substantive* signification, a *path or road*. See BY, § III; with the Note.

BYTHUS, [from βυθος, profundity,] one of the names given to the Deity, by the Valentinians.

BYTON, a town in Herfordshire, E. of Preteign, in Radnorshire.

BYTRENT, *adj. obs.* Catched up. *Bailey.*

BYTTNERIA, in botany, a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the pentandria class of plants. The corolla is composed of 3 petals; the capsule has 5 lobes, and is covered with prickles. There is only one species.

BYWHOPEN, *adj. obs.* Stupified. *Ash.*

BYWORTH, a town near Petworth, Sussex.

BYZANT. See BESANT, § 1 and 2.

BYZANTINA, BLATTA. See BLATTA, N° IV.

(1.) BYZANTINE, *adj.* Of, or belonging to Byzantium.

(2.) * BYZANTINE. See BIZANTINE. *Byzantine* is the true orthography.

BYZANTIUM, an ancient city of Thrace, situated on the Bosphorus. It was founded, according to Eusebius, about the 30th Olympiad, while Tullius Hostilius reigned in Rome. But, according to Diodorus Siculus, the foundations of this metropolis were laid in the time of the Argonauts, by one Byzas, from whom the city was called *Byzantium*. See BYSAS. Velleius Paterculus ascribes the founding of Byzantium to the Milesians, and Ammianus Marcellinus to the inhabitants of Attica. Some ancient medals of Byzantium, which have reached our times, bear the name and head of Byzas, with the prow of a ship on the reverse. The year after the destruction of Jerusalem by Titus, Byzantium was reduced to a Roman province. In A. D. 193 it took part with Niger against Severus. It was strongly garrisoned by Niger, as being a place of the utmost importance. It was soon after invested by Severus; and as he was universally hated for his cruelty, the inhabitants defended themselves with the greatest resolution. They had been supplied with a great number of warlike machines, most of them invented and built by Periscus a native of Nicæa, and the greatest engineer of his age. For a long time they baffled all the attempts of the assailants, killed great numbers of them, crushed such as approached the walls with large stones; and when stones began to fail, they used the statues of their gods and heroes. At last they were obliged to submit, through famine, after having been reduced to the necessity of devouring one another. Severus put all the magistrates and soldiers to the sword; but spared the engineer Periscus. Before this siege, Byzantium was the greatest, most populous, and wealthiest city in Thrace. It was surrounded by walls of an extraordinary height and breadth; and defended by a great number of towers, 7 of which were built with such art, that the least noise heard in one of them was immediately conveyed to all the rest. But Severus was no sooner master of it, than he laid it in ashes. The inhabitants were stripped of all their effects, and sold for slaves, and the walls levelled with the ground. By the chronicle of Alexandria we are informed, that soon after this terrible catastrophe, Severus himself caused a great part of the city to be rebuilt, calling it *Antonina* from his son Antoninus Caracalla. In 262, the tyrant Galienus wreaked his fury on the inhabitants of Byzantium.

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He intended to beſiege it; but on his arrival, deſpaired of being able to make himſelf maſter of ſuch a ſtrong place. He was admitted the next day, however, into the city; and without regarding the terms he had agreed to, cauſed the ſoldiers and all the inhabitants to be put to the ſword. Trebellius Pollio ſays, that not a ſingle perſon was left alive. What the reaſon was for ſuch an extraordinary maſſacre, we are no where informed. In the wars between the emperors Licinius and Maximin, Byzantium was obliged to ſubmit to the latter, but was ſoon after recovered by Licinius. In 323, it was taken from Licinius by Conſtantine the Great, who, in 330 greatly enlarged and beautified it. He began with extending its walls from ſea to ſea; and while ſome of the workmen were buſied in rearing them, others were employed in raiſing within them a great number of ſtately buildings, and among others a palace no way inferior in magnificence and extent to that of Rome. He built a capitol and amphitheatre, made a circus maximus, ſeveral forums, porticoes, and public baths; and divided the whole city into 14 regions. Thus Byzantium became one of the moſt flouriſhing and populous cities of the empire. Vaſt numbers of people flocked to it from Pontus, Thrace, and Aſia, Conſtantine having decreed, that ſuch as had lands in thoſe countries ſhould not be at liberty to diſpoſe of them, nor even leave them to their heirs at their death, unleſs they had a houſe in his new city. But however deſirous the emperor was that his city ſhould be filled with people, he did not wiſh it to be inhabited by any but Chriſtians. He therefore cauſed all the idols to be pulled down, and all their churches conſecrated to the true God. He built beſides an incredible number of churches, and cauſed croſſes to be erected in all the ſquares and public places. Moſt of the buildings being finiſhed, it was ſolemnly dedicated to the Virgin Mary, according to Cedrenus, but, according to Euſebius, to the God of Martyrs. At the ſame time Byzantium was equalled to Rome in point of privileges. The ſame rights and immunities were granted to its inhabitants as to thoſe of the metropolis. He eſtabliſhed a ſenate and other magiſtrates, with a power and authority equal to thoſe of old Rome. He took up his reſidence in the new city; and changed its name to CONSTANTINOPLE.

BYZIA, of VIZA, a town of European Turkey, in Romania; one of the ancient ſeats of the Thracian kings.

BZOVIUS, Abraham, a celebrated writer of the 17th century, who compoſed an aſtoniſhing number of pieces. His chief work is the continuation of Baronius's annals. He was a native of Poland, and a Dominican friar. Upon his coming to Rome, he was received with open arms by the Pope, and had an apartment aſſigned him in the Vatican. He merited that reception, for he has imitated Baronius in making all things conſpire to the deſpotic power and glory of the papal ſee. He died in 1637, aged 70.

C

(1.) *C* The 3d letter of the alphabet, has two ſounds; one like *k*, as, *call*, *clock*, *craft*, *coal*, *companion*, *cuneiform*; the other as *s*, as, *Cæſar*, *ceſſation*, *cinder*. It ſounds like *k* before *a*, *o*, *u*, or a conſonant; and like *s*, before *e*, *i*, and *y*.

(2.) C is uſed, 1. as a letter; 2. as an abbreviation; and, 3. as a numeral. I. As a LETTER, C is the 2d conſonant as well as the 2d mute of our alphabet. It is formed, according to Scaliger, from the κ of the Greeks, by retrenching the ſtem or upright line; though others derive it from the ב of the Hebrews, which has in effect the ſame form; allowing only for this, that the Hebrews, reading backwards, and the Latins, &c. forwards, each have turned the letter their own way. However, the C not being the ſame as to ſound with the Hebrew *caph*, and it being certain the Romans did not borrow their letters immediately from the Hebrews or other orientals, but from the Greeks, the derivation from the Greek κ, is the more probable. F. Montfaucon, in his Palæographia, gives us ſome forms of the Greek κ, which come very near that of our C; thus, for inſtance, ς: and Suidas calls the C the Roman kappa. The ſecond ſound of C reſembles that of the Greek Σ; and many inſtances occur of ancient inſcriptions, in which Σ has the ſame form with our C. All grammarians agree, that the Romans pronounced their Q like our C, and their C like our K. F. Mabillon adds, that Charles the Great was the firſt who wrote his name with a C; whereas all his predeceſſors of the ſame name wrote it with a K; and the ſame difference is obſerved in their coins. C before *h* has a peculiar ſound, as in *chain*, *cheeſe*, &c. In words derived from the French, it ſounds like *ſ*, as in *chaiſe*, *chicane*, pronounced *ſhaiſe*, *ſhicane*. II. As an ABBREVIATION, C ſtands for Caius, Carolus, Cæſar, *condemno*, *codice*, *conſule*, &c. and CC for *conſulibus*. C, in muſic, placed after the cliff, intimates that the muſic is in common time, which is either quick or ſlow, as it is joined with allegro or adagio: if alone, it is uſually adagio. If the C be croſſed or turned, the firſt requires the air to be played quick, and the laſt very quick. III. As a NUMERAL, C ſignifies 100, CC 200, &c. and was thus uſed by the ancient Romans, being the initial of *centum*. Some antiquarians add, that a daſh over it made it ſtand for 100,000: though this ſeems to be contradicted by the proverbial line, *Non* plus *quam* centum *C litera fertur habere*.

CAA-APIA, in botany, a Braſilian plant, deſcribed by Marcgrave, Piſo, and others; the root of which ſo much reſembles the ipecacuanha in its virtues, that ſome have erroneouſly called it by the ſame name. It is aſtringent and emetic, but poſſeſſes both qualities in a weaker degree, and is therefore given in a larger doſe, a dram being commonly given at once. The Braſilians bruiſe the whole plant, and expreſs the juice, which they take internally, and apply externally to wounds by poiſoned arrows, and by the bites of ſerpents.

CAABA,

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CAABA, or CAABAH, } properly signifies a square stone building; but is particularly applied by the Mahometans to the temple of Mecca, built, as they pretend, by Abraham and Ishmael. Before the time of Mahomet, this temple was a place of worship for the idolatrous Arabs, and is said to have contained no less than 360 different images, equalling in number the days of the Arabian year. They were all destroyed by Mahomet, who sanctified the Caaba, and appointed it to be the chief place of worship for all true believers. The temple is in length from N. to S. about 24 cubits; in breadth from E. to W. 23; and in height 27. The door, which is on the E. side stands about 4 cubits from the ground; the floor being level with the bottom of the door. In the corner next this door is the *black stone*, so much celebrated among the Mahometans. On the N. side of the caaba, within a semicircular inclosure 50 cubits long, lies the *white stone*, said to be the sepulchre of Ishmael, which receives the rain water from the caaba by a spout formerly of wood but now of gold. The black stone according to the Mahometans, was brought down from heaven by Gabriel at the creation of the world; and originally of a white colour; but contracted the blackness that now appears on it, from the guilt of the sins committed by the sons of men. It is set in silver, and fixed in the SE. corner of the caaba, looking towards Basra, about 7 spans from the ground. This stone, upon which there is the figure of a human head, is held in the highest estimation among the Arabs; all the pilgrims kissing it with great devotion, and some even calling it the *right hand of God*. Its blackness, which is only superficial, is probably owing to the kisses and touches of so many people. After the Karmatians had taken Mecca, they carried away this precious stone and could by no means be prevailed upon to restore it; but finding at last that they were unable to prevent the concourse of pilgrims to Mecca, they sent it back of their own accord, after having kept it 22 years. The double roof of the caaba is supported within by three octagonal pillars of aloes-wood; between which on a bar of iron, hang some silver lamps. The outside is covered with rich black damask, adorned with an embroidered band of gold, which is changed every year, and was formerly sent by the khaliffs, afterwards by the sultans of Egypt, and is now provided by the Turkish emperors. The caaba, at some distance, is almost surrounded by a circular inclosure of pillars, joined towards the bottom by a low ballustrade, and towards the top by bars of silver. Just without this inner inclosure, on the S. N. and W. sides of the caaba, are 3 buildings, which are the oratories where 3 of the orthodox sects assemble to perform their devotions. Towards the SE. stands an edifice which covers the well ZEMZEN, the treasury, and the cupola, of Al Abbas. Formerly there was another cupola, that went under the name of the *hemicycle*, or *cupola of Judea*: but whether any remains of that are now to be seen is unknown: nor is it easy to obtain information in this respect, all Christians being denied access to this holy place. At a small distance from the caaba, on the E. side, is the *station* of Abraham; where is another stone much respected by the Mahometans; and where they pretend to show the footsteps of the patriarch, where he stood when he built the caaba. Here the 4th sect of Arabs, *viz.* that of Al Shafei, assemble for religious purposes. The square colonnade, or great piazza, which at a considerable distance incloses these buildings, consists, according to Al Jannabi, of 448 pillars, and has no less than 38 gates. Mr Sale compares this piazza to that of the royal exchange at London, but allows it to be much larger. It is covered with small domes or cupolas, from the 4 corners of which rise as many minarets or steeples with double galleries, and adorned with gilded spires and crescents, as are also the cupolas which cover the piazza and other buildings. Between the columns of both inclosures hang a great number of lamps, which are constantly lighted at night. The first foundation of this 2d inclosure was laid by Omar, who built no more than a low wall, to prevent the court of the caaba from being incroached upon by private buildings: but by the liberality of succeeding princes, the whole has been raised to that state of magnificence in which it appears at present. This temple is an asylum for all criminals; but it is most remarkable for the pilgrimages made to it by the devout mussulmans, who pay so great a veneration to it, that they believe a single sight of its sacred walls, without any particular act of devotion, is as meritorious, in the sight of God, as the most careful discharge of duty, for a whole year, in any other temple.

CAACHIRA, the Indigo plant. See INDIGOFERA.

CAAFF, a rapid rivulet in Ayrshire, which rises in the high moor lands, and after running several miles falls into the Garnock, near Dalry. It sometimes does much damage by overflowing its banks.

CAAMINA, or CAAMINIA, } in botany, a name given by the Spaniards and others to the finest sort of Paraguayan tea. It is the leaf of a shrub which grows on the mountains of Maracaya, and is used in Chili and Peru, as tea is with us. The mountains where this shrub grows naturally are far from the inhabited parts of Paraguay; but the people of the place know so well the value and use of it, that they constantly furnish themselves with great quantities of it from the spot. They used to go out on these expeditions many thousands together; leaving their country in the mean time exposed to the insults of their enemies, and many of themselves perishing by fatigue. To avoid these inconveniences, they have of late planted these trees about their habitations; but the leaves of these cultivated ones have not the fine flavour of those that grow wild. The K. of Spain has permitted the Indians of Paraguay, to bring to the town of Saintfoy 12,000 arobes of the leaves of this tree every year, but they are not able to procure so much of the wild leaves annually; about half the quantity is the utmost they bring: the other half is made up of the leaves of the trees in their own plantations: and this sell at a lower price and is called *pabos*. The arobe is about 25 pound weight; the general price is 4 piastres; and the money is always divided among the people of the colony.

CAANA,

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CAANA, KAANA, a town in Upper Egypt, ſeated on the E. banks of the Nile, from whence they carry corn and pulſe to Mecca. It has ſeveral monuments of antiquity, inſcribed with hieroglyphics. It is 320 m. S. of Cairo. Lon. 30. 23. E. Lat. 26. 30. N.

CAAPIBA, in botany, the name given by Plumier to a genus of plants, called by Linnæus CISSAMPELOS.

CAAS. *n. ſ. obſ.* A caſe, or chance. *Chaucer.*

(1.) * CAB. *n. ſ.* [כב.] A Hebrew meaſure, containing about 3 pints Engliſh, or the 18th part of an ephah.

(2.) CAB was the 6th part of a ſeah or ſatum, and contained 2⅔ pints of our corn meaſure. A quarter cab was the meaſure of dove's dung, or more properly a ſort of chick peaſe called by this name which was ſold at Samaria, during the ſiege of that city, for 5 ſhekels.

(3.) CAB of wine contained two Engliſh pints.

CABACON, a town of Spain, in Leon.

(1.) * CABAL. *n. ſ.* [*cabale*, Fr. קבלה, tradition.] 1. The ſecret ſcience of the Hebrew rabbins. 2. A body of men united in ſome cloſe deſign. A *cabal* differs from a *party*, as *few* from *many*.—She often interpoſed her royal authority, to break the *cabals* which were forming againſt her firſt miniſters. *Addiſon.* 3. Intrigue; ſomething leſs than conſpiracy.—

When each, by curs'd *cabals* of women ſtrove,
To draw th' indulgent king to partial love.
Dryden.

(2.) CABAL is ſaid to have been a kind of acroſtical name given to the infamous miniſtry of Charles II. compoſed of Clifford, Aſhley, Buckingham, Arlington, and Lauderdale; the firſt letters of whoſe names, in this order, formed the word which has ſince become an appellative for ſimilar juntos. But from Dr Johnſon's derivations (§ 1.) it would appear to be of greater antiquity.

(3.) CABAL is alſo a ſort of drink made of dried raiſins, by the Portugueſe. They make it thus: they take out the ſtones of about 20 lb. of raiſins, and then bruiſing the raiſins a little, they put them into a barrel of white wine, in the month of January or February, and let them ſtand till about Eaſter. It is then clear, rich and palatable; and is recommended to ſtop coughs, and ſtrengthen the ſtomach.

* *To* CABAL. *v. n.* [*cabaler*, Fr.] To form cloſe intrigues; to intrigue; to unite in ſmall parties.

His mournful friends, ſummon'd to take their leaves,
Are throng'd about his couch, and ſit in council:
What thoſe *caballing* captains may deſign,
I muſt prevent, by being firſt in action. *Dryd.*

(1.) CABALA, or CABALA VEIN, in natural hiſtory, a kind of iron ore commonly wrought in Suſſex. It is ſtony, of a browniſh colour, with a bluſh of red, which is more or leſs conſpicuous in different parts of the ſame maſſes. It is uſually found in thin ſtrata, near the ſurface, and is not very rich in iron, but runs very readily in the fire.

(2.) CABALA. See CABBALA.

CABALATAR, in natural hiſtory, a name given by ſome chemical writers to nitre, called alſo *cerberus chymicus*, and *ſal infernalis*.

(1.) * CABALIST. *n. ſ.* [from *cabal.*] One ſkilled in the traditions of the Hebrews.—

Then Jove thus ſpake: with care and pain
We form'd this name, renown'd in rhime,
Not thine, immortal Neufgermain!
Coſt ſtudious *cabaliſts* more time. *Swift.*

(2.) CABALIST, in commerce, a term uſed in ſome parts of France for a merchant who does not trade in his own name, but is concerned in the trade of another. See ANONYMOUS, § 3.

CABALLARIA, in middle age writers, lands held by the tenure of furniſhing a horſeman, with ſuitable equipage, in time of war, or when the lord had occaſion for him.

* CABALLER. *n. ſ.* [from *cabal.*] He that engages with others in cloſe deſigns; an intriguer.

Factious and rich, bold at the council board,
But cautious in the field, he ſhunn'd the ſword;
A cloſe *caballer*, and tongue-valiant lord.
Dryden.

CABALLEROS, or CAVALLEROS, Spaniſh wool, in which there is a pretty conſiderable trade at Bayonne in France.

CABALLI, or COBALES, among myſtic philoſophers, denote the ſhades, or bodies of men who died any ſudden or violent death, before the expiration of their predeſtinated term of life. They were ſuppoſed to wander as ghoſts over the face of the earth, till their deſtined term was accompliſhed; being doomed to live out the time as ſpirits, which they ought to have ſpent in the fleſh!

(1.) * CABALLINE. *adj.* [*caballinus*, Lat.] Belonging to a horſe; as, *caballine* aloes, or horſe aloes.

(2.) CABALLINE ALOES [from καβαλλος, a horſe,] the coarſeſt kind of aloes, little uſed unleſs for purging horſes.

(1.) CABALLINUM, in ancient geography, a town of the Ædui in Gallia Celtica; now called CHALLON SUR SAONE, which ſee.

(2.) CABALLINUM SULPHUR, common brimſtone.

CABALLINUS, in ancient geography, a very clear fountain of mount Helicon in Bœotia; called *Hippocrene* by the Greeks, becauſe fabled to have been opened by Pegaſus on ſtriking the rock with his hoof, and hence called PEGASIUS.

CABALLIO, or CABELLIO, in ancient geography, a town of the Cavares in Gallia Narbonenſis, ſituated on the Druentia. One of the Latin colonies, in the Notitiæ, called *Civitas Cabellicorum*. It is now called CAVAILLON.

* CABALLISTICAL. } *adj.* [from *cabal.*]
* CABALLISTICK. } Something that has an occult meaning.—The letters are *caballiſtical*, and carry more in them than it is proper for the world to be acquainted with. *Addiſon.*—He taught him to repeat two *caballiſtick* words, in pronouncing of which the whole ſecret conſiſted. *Spectator.*

* CABARET. *n. ſ.* [French.] A tavern.—Suppoſe this ſervant paſſing by ſome *cabaret*, or tennis-court, where his comrades were drinking or playing, ſhould ſtay with them, and drink or play away his money. *Bramhall againſt Hobbes.*

CABARIC, hart-wort. See TORDYLIUM.

(1.) * CABBAGE. *n. ſ.* [*cabus*, Fr. *braſſica*, Lat.] A plant.—The leaves are large, fleſhy, and of a

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glaucous colour; the flowers conſiſt of 4 leaves, which are ſucceeded by long taper pods, containing ſeveral round acrid ſeeds. The ſpecies are, *cabbage*. Savoy *cabbage*. *Broccoli*. The *cauliflower*. The muſk *cabbage*. Branching tree *cabbage*, from the ſea-coaſt. *Colewort*. Perennial Alpine *Colewort*. Perfoliated wild *cabbage*, &c. *Miller*.—Cole *cabbage*, and coleworts, are ſoft and mulcent, without any acidity; the jelly or juice of red *cabbage*, baked in an oven, and mixed with honey, is an excellent pectoral. *Arbuthnot on Aliments*.

(2.) CABBAGE. See BRASSICA and HUSBANDRY, *Index*. In the *Georgical Eſſays*, we find this plant greatly recommended as an excellent food for cattle, producing much dung, and being an excellent ſubſtitute for hay. The author prefers the Scotch kind, as being moſt durable, and preferable on all other accounts. He alſo prefers plants ſowed in autumn to thoſe ſowed in ſpring, as producing a much more weighty crop. The expence of raiſing an acre of good cabbages he values at 14l. 15s. and its produce at 34l.

(3.) CABBAGE BARK TREE. See GEOFFROEA.

(4.) CABBAGE, DOG'S. See THELIGONUM.

(5.) CABBAGE, EARLY. } See BRASSICA, § II.

(6.) CABBAGE, MUSK. }

(7.) CABBAGE PALM, TRUE. See ARECA, § 2.

(8.) CABBAGE, SAVOY. See BRASSICA, § II.

(9.) CABBAGE, SEA. See CRAMBE.

(10.) * CABBAGE TREE. *n. ſ.* A ſpecies of *palm-tree*.—It is very common in the Carribbee iſlands, where it grows to a prodigious height. The leaves of this tree envelope each other, ſo that thoſe which are incloſed, being deprived of the air, are blanched; which is the part the inhabitants cut for plaits for hats, and the young ſhoots are pickled; but whenever this part is cut out, the trees are deſtroyed; nor do they riſe again from the old roots; ſo that there are very few trees left remaining near plantations. *Miller*.

(11.) CABBAGE TREE. See CACALIA, § 6.

(12.) CABBAGE, TURNIP ROOTED. See BRASSICA, § II.

(13.) * CABBAGE-WORM. *n. ſ.* An inſect.

(1.) * *To* CABBAGE. *v. a.* [a cant word among taylors.] To ſteal in cutting clothes.—Your taylor, inſtead of ſhreads, *cabbages* whole yards of cloth. *Arbuthnot*.

(2.) * *To* CABBAGE. *v. n.* To form a head; as, the plants begin to *cabbage*.

(1.) CABBALA, a myſterious kind of ſcience, pretended to have been delivered by revelation to the ancient Jews, and tranſmitted by oral tradition to thoſe of our times; ſerving for interpretation of the books both of nature and ſcripture. The word is alſo written CABBALA, KABALA, *Kabala*, *Cabaliſtica*, *Ars Cabala*, and *Gaballa*. It is originally Hebrew, קבלה, *kabbalah*; and properly ſignifies *reception*; formed from the verb קבל, *kibel*, *to receive by tradition*. Cabbala then primarily denotes any ſentiment, opinion, uſage, or explication of Scripture tranſmitted from father to ſon. In this ſenſe, the word is not only applied to the whole art; but alſo to each operation performed according to its rules. Thus R. Jac. Ben Aſcher, ſurnamed Baal-Hatturim, is ſaid to have compiled moſt of the *cabbalas* invented on the books of Moſes before his time. The Cabbala is by ſome called the acromatic philoſophy of Moſes, by way of diſtinction from the exoteric or popular doctrine. See ACROMATIC. The generality of the Jews prefer the cabbala to the Scripture; comparing the former to the ſparkling luſtre of a precious ſtone, and the latter to the fainter glimmering of a candle. The firſt author who delivered any thing of the cabbala was Joachaides, or Simon ſon of Joachai, who publiſhed that famous cabbaliſtical work, entituled ZOHAR. Some ſay, he lived about the time of the deſtruction of Jeruſalem by Titus; others, only in the 10th century. There are no ſure principles of this knowledge. It depends entirely upon the traditions of the ancients. The cabbaliſts have abundance of names which they call *ſacred*; theſe they make uſe of in invoking of ſpirits, and imagine they receive great light from them. They tell us, that the ſecrets of the cabbala were diſcovered to Moſes on mount Sinai; and that theſe have been delivered down to them from father to ſon, without interruption, and without any uſe of letters; for to write them down, is what they are by no means permitted to do. This is likewiſe termed the *oral law*, becauſe it paſſed from father to ſon, in order to diſtinguiſh it from the written laws. Another kind of cabbala, viz.

(II.) CABBALA, ARTIFICIAL, ſo called to diſtinguiſh it from the ſimple or traditional cabbala, (§ 1.) conſiſts in ſearching for abſtruſe and myſterious ſignifications of a word in Scripture, from whence they borrow certain explanations, by combining the letters which compoſe it: this cabbala is divided into 3 kinds, the gematria, the notaricon, and the temura or themurah.

1. CABBALA GEMATRIA conſiſts in taking the letters of a Hebrew word for ciphers or arithmetical numbers, and explaining every word by the arithmetical value of the letters whereof it is compoſed.

2. CABBALA NOTARICON conſiſts in taking every particular letter of a word for an entire diction.

3. CABBALA THEMURA, i. e. change, conſiſts in making different tranſpoſitions or changes of letters, placing one for the other, or one before the other. Some viſionaries among the Jews believe, that Jeſus Chriſt wrought his miracles by virtue of the myſteries of the cabbala.

(III.) CABBALA is alſo applied to the abuſe, which viſionaries make of Scripture, for diſcovering futurity, by the ſtudy and conſideration of the combination of certain words, letters, and numbers, in the ſacred writings. All the words, terms, magical figures, numbers, letters, charms, &c. uſed in the Jewiſh magic, or in the hermetical ſcience, are compriſed under this ſpecies of cabbala. But it is only the Chriſtians that call it by this name, on account of the reſemblance this art bears to the explication of the Jewiſh *cabbala*: for the Jews never uſe the word *cabbala* in any ſuch ſenſe, but ever with the utmoſt reſpect and veneration. It is not, however, the magic of the Jews alone which we call *cabbala*, but the word is alſo uſed for any kind of magic.

CABBALIC ART, *Ars caballica*, is uſed by ſome writers for *ars paleſtrica*, or the art of wreſtling.

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CABBALISTIC ART. See CABBALA, and CABBALISTS. D. Franc. Berlendi, a Theatin, of Venice, under the fictitious name of C. Berardo Schinflini, publifhed a CABALLOMACHIA, or Refutation of the *Cabbaliftic* Art.

CABBALISTS, the Jewifh doctors who profefs the ftudy of the cabbala. In their opinion, there is not a word, letter, number, or accent in the law, without fome myftery in it; and they even pretend to difcover, what is future, by this vain ftudy. The Jews are divided into two general fects; the KARAITES, who refufe to receive either tradition, or the Talmud, or any thing but the pure text of Scripture; and the RABBINISTS, or TALMUDISTS, who, befides this, receive the traditions of the ancients, and follow the Talmud. The latter are fubdivided into other 2 fects; pure Rabbinifts, who explain the fcripture in its natural fenfe, by grammar, hiftory, and tradition; and Cabbalifts, who, to difcover hidden myftical fenfes, which they fuppofe God to have couched therein, make ufe of the CABBALA, and the myftical methods above-mentioned, § II. 1—3.

CABBALLOMACHIA. See CABBALISTIC ART.

CABEBI, a name given by Rulandus and others to the fcales of iron.

(1.) CABECA, or CABESSE, a name given to the fineft filks in the Eaft Indies; thofe from 15 to 20 *per cent.* inferior being called *bariga*, or *barina*. The Indian workmen endeavour to pafs them off one with the other; for which reafon, the experienced European merchants take care to open the bales, and to examine all the fkains. The Dutch diftinguifh two forts; viz. the moor cabeca, fold at Amfterdam for about 21½ fchellinghen Flemifh, and the common, for about 18½.

(2.) CABECA DE VIDE, a fmall fea port of Alentejo in Portugal, with good walls, and a ftrong caftle; 12 miles SW. of port Alegro, and 30 N. of Eftremos. Lon. 6. 43. W. Lat. 39. 10. N.

CABBELLIO. See CABALLIO.

CABENDA, a fea-port of Congo in Africa, fubject to Portugal, and fituated 105 miles SE. of Loanga. Lon. 12. 15. E. Lat. 4. 5. S

(1, 2.) CABES, a river and gulf of Africa.

(3.) CABES, or GABES, a town of Tunis, feated on the river, near the gulf, (N° 1. and 2.) Lon. 10. 55. E. Lat. 33. 40. N.

CABESSE. See CABECA, N° 1.

CABEZZO, a province of Africa, in Angola; having Oacco on the N. Lubolo on the S. the Coanza on the NE. and the Reinba on the SW. It is populous, and well ftored with cattle, &c. and has a mine of iron on a mountain, thence called the IRON MOUNTAIN, that yields great quantities of that metal; which the Portugueſe have taught the natives to manufacture. This province is watered by the RIO LONGO, and other fmall rivulets, lakes, &c. The trees are vaftly large; and they have one fort, not unlike our apple trees, the bark of which being cut with a knife, yields an odoriferous refin of the colour and conſiſtency of wax, and very medicinal in its nature; only a little too hot for Europeans, unleſs qualified by fome cooling drug.

CABIDOS, or CAVIDOS, a long meaſure uſed at Goa, and other places of the Eaft Indies, belonging to the Portugueſe, to meaſure ſtuffs, linens, and equal to 4 7ths of the Paris ell.

CABILIAU, in ichthyology, a name by which fome authors call the common cod fifh, the *morhua* and *aſellus major* of other writers.

(1.) * CABIN. *n. ſ.* [*cabane*, Fr. *chabin*, Welch, a cottage.] 1. A fmall room.—

So long in ſecret *cabin* there he held
Her captive to his ſenſual deſire,
Till that with timely fruit her belly ſweli'd,
And bore a boy unto a ſavage ſire. *Spenſer.*

2. A ſmall chamber in a ſhip.—Give thanks you have lived ſo long, and make yourſelf ready, in your *cabin*, for the miſchance of the hour, if it ſo happen. *Shakeſpeare.*—Men may not expect the uſe of many *cabins*, and ſafety at once, in the ſea ſervice. *Raleigh.*—The cheſsboard, we ſay, is in the ſame place as it was, if it remain in the ſame part of the *cabin*, though the ſhip ſails all the while. *Locke.* 3. A cottage, or ſmall houſe.—

Come from marble bow'rs, many times the gay harbour of anguiſh,
Unto a ſilly *cabin*, though weak, yet ſtronger againſt woes. *Sidney.*

—Neither ſhould that odious cuſtom be allowed, of flaying off the green ſurface of the ground, to cover their *cabins*, or make up their ditches. *Swift.* 4. A tent, or temporary habitation.—

Some of green boughs their ſlender *cabins* frame,
Some lodg'd were Tortoſa's ſtreets about. *Fairf.*

(2.) CABINS in ſhips are the apartments where the officers uſually reſide. There are many of theſe in a large ſhip; the principal of which is deſigned for the commander. In ſhips of the line this chamber is furniſhed with an open gallery in the ſhip's ſtern, and a little gallery on each quarter. The apartments where the inferior officers, or common ſailors, ſleep and meſs are uſually called BIRTHS. The bed-places for the ſailors at the ſhip's ſide in merchantmen are alſo called *cabins*.

(1.) * *To* CABIN. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To confine in a cabin.—

Fleance is 'ſcap'd, I had elſe been perfect;
As broad and gen'ral as the caſing air;
But now I'm *cabin'd*, cribb'd, confin'd, bound in,
To ſaucy doubts and fear. *Shakeſ.*

(2.) * *To* CABIN. *v. n.* To live in a cabin.—

I'll make you feed on berries and on roots,
And feed on curds and whey, and ſuck the goat,
And *cabin* in a cave. *Shakeſ.*

(1.) CABINDA, a river, and (2.) CABINDA, a ſea port, of Angoy, in Africa. See ANGOY, § 1.

* CABINED. *adj.* [from *cabin*] Belonging to a cabin.—

The nice morn, on the Indian ſteep,
From her *cabin'd* loophole peep. *Milton.*

(1.) * CABINET. *n. ſ.* [*cabinet*, Fr.] 1. A cloſet; a ſmall room.—At both corners of the farther ſide, let there be two delicate or rich *cabinets*, daintily paved, richly hanged, glazed with cryſtalline glaſs, and a rich cupola in the midſt, and all other delicacies that may be thought on. *Bacon.* 2. A hut or ſmall houſe.—

Hearken

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Hearken a while in thy green *cabinet*,
The lawrel ſong of careful Colinet. *Spenſer.*

3. A private room in which conſultations are held.—You began in the *cabinet* what you afterwards practiſed in the camp. *Dryden.* 4. A ſet of boxes or drawers for curioſities; a private box.—

Who ſees a ſoul in ſuch a body ſet,
Might love the treaſure for the *cabinet*.
Ben Jonſon.

In vain the workman ſhew'd his wit,
With rings and hinges counterfeit,
To make it ſeem, in this diſguiſe,
A *cabinet* to vulgar eyes. *Swift.*

5. Any place in which things of value are hidden.—

Thy breaſt hath ever been the *cabinet*,
Where I have lock'd my ſecrets. *Denham.*

—We cannot diſcourſe of the ſecret, but by deſcribing our duty; but ſo much duty muſt needs open a *cabinet* of myſteries. *Taylor.*

(2.) CABINET alſo denotes a piece of joiner's workmanſhip, being a kind of preſs or cheſt, with ſeveral doors and drawers. There are common cabinets of oak, cheſnut, or mahogany; varniſhed cabinets of China and Japan; cabinets of inlaid work, and ſome of ebony, or other precious woods.

(3.) CABINET is alſo uſed in ſpeaking of the more ſelect and ſecret councils of a prince or adminiſtration. (See § 4.) Thus we ſay, the ſecrets, the intrigues of the cabinet. To avoid the inconveniences of a numerous council, ſome of the deſpotic princes of Europe firſt introduced cabinet councils. King Charles I. is charged with firſt eſtabliſhing this uſage in England. Beſides his privy council, that prince erected a kind of cabinet council, or junto, under the denomination of a council, of ſtate; compoſed of Abp. Laud, the earl of Strafford, and lord Collington, with the ſecretaries of ſtate. Yet ſome pretend to find the ſubſtance of a cabinet council of much greater antiquity, and even allowed by parliament, who anciently ſettled a quorum of perſons moſt confided in, without whoſe preſence no arduous matter was to be determined; giving them power to act without conſulting the reſt of the council. As long ago as the 28th of Henry III. a charter paſſed in affirmance of the ancient rights of the kingdom; which provided, that 4 great men, choſen by common conſent, who were to be conſervators of the kingdom, among other things, ſhould ſee to the diſpoſing of monies given by parliament, and appropriated to particular uſes; and parliament were to be ſummoned as they ſhould adviſe. Of theſe 4 any two made a quorum; and generally the chief juſtice of England, and chancellor, were of the number of the conſervators. In the firſt of Henry VI. the parliament provides, that the quorum for the privy council be 6 or 4 at leaſt; and that in all weighty conſiderations, the dukes of Bedford and Glouceſter, the king's uncles, ſhould be preſent; which ſeems to be erecting a cabinet by law.

(4.) * CABINET-COUNCIL. *n. ſ.* 1. A council held in a private manner, with unuſual privacy and confidence.—The doctrine of Italy, and practice of France, in ſome kings times, hath introduced *cabinet-councils*. *Bacon.* 2. A ſelect number of privy counſellors ſuppoſed to be particularly truſted.—From the higheſt to the loweſt it is univerſally read; from the *cabinet-council* to the nurſery. *Gay to Swift.*

* CABINET-MAKER. *n. ſ.* [from *cabinet* and *make*.] One that makes ſmall nice drawers or boxes.—The root of an old white thorn will make very fine boxes and combs; ſo that they would be of great uſe for the *cabinet-makers*, as well as turners, and others. *Mortimer.*

CABIN-POINT, a ſmall poſt town of Virginia, ſituated in Surry county, on the Upper Chipoak Creek. It is 26 miles ESE. of Peterſburg; and 320 SSW. of Philadelphia: from which it lies in Lon. 2. 4. W. Lat. 37. 0 N.

CABIRI, a term in the theology of the ancient Pagans, ſignifying great and powerful gods; being a name given to the gods of Samothracia. They were alſo worſhipped in other parts of Greece, as Lemnos and Thebes, where the cabiria were celebrated in honour of them; theſe gods are ſaid to be, in number 4, viz. *Axieros*, *Axiocerſa*, *Axiocerſus*, and *Caſmilus*.

(2.) CABIRI is alſo uſed to denote the *Gabri*, or Perſian fire-worſhippers. See GABRES.

CABIRIA, feſtivals in honour of the Cabiri, celebrated in Thebes and Lemnos, but eſpecially in Samothracia, an iſland conſecrated to the Cabiri. All who were initiated into the myſteries of theſe gods, were thought to be ſecured thereby from ſtorms at ſea, and all other dangers. The ceremony of initiation was performed by placing the candidate, crowned with olive branches, and girded about the loins with a purple ribband, on a kind of throne, about which the prieſts, and perſons before initiated, danced.

(1.) * CABLE. *n. ſ.* [*cabl*, Welch; *cabel*, Dutch.] The great rope of a ſhip to which the anchor is faſtened.—

What though the maſt be now blown overboard,
The *cable* broke, the holding anchor loſt,
And half our ſailors ſwallow'd in the flood,
Yet lives our pilot ſtill? *Shakeſ.*

—The length of the *cable* is the life of the ſhip in all extremities; and the reaſon is, becauſe it makes ſo many bendings and waves, as the ſhip, riding at that length, is not able to ſtretch it; and nothing breaks that is not ſtretched. *Raleigh.*—

The *cables* crack, the ſailors fearful cries
Aſcend; and ſable night involves the ſkies. *Dryd.*

(2.) CABLE is alſo the name of thoſe ropes, which ſerve to raiſe heavy loads, by the help of cranes, pullies, and other engines. The name is uſually given to ſuch as have, at leaſt, 3 inches in circumference; thoſe that are leſs are only ROPES differently named according to their uſe. Every cable, of whatſoever thickneſs it be, is compoſed of 3 ſtrands; every ſtrand of 3 ropes; and every rope of 3 twiſts: the twiſt is made of more or leſs threads, according as the cable is to be thicker or thinner. In the manufacture of cables, after the ropes are made, they uſe ſticks, which they paſs firſt between the ropes of which they make the ſtrands, and afterwards between the ſtrands of which they make the cable, to the end that they may all twiſt the better, and be more regularly wound together; and alſo, to prevent them from entwining or entangling, they hang, at the end

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of each ſtrand and of each rope, a weight of lead or of ſtone. There is no merchant-ſhip, however weak, but has at leaſt 3 cables: viz. the chief cable, or cable of the ſheet anchor, (See § 4.) a common cable, and a ſmaller one.

(3.) CABLES, CALCULATION OF THREADS, &c. IN DIFFERENT. The number of threads each cable is compoſed of, is always proportioned to its length and thickneſs; and it is by this number of threads that its weight and value are aſcertained: thus, a cable of 3 inches circumference, or one inch diameter, ought to conſiſt of 48 ordinary threads, and to weigh 192 pounds; and on this foundation is calculated the following table, very uſeful for all people engaged in marine commerce, who fit out merchantmen on their own account, or freight them on the account of others.

TABLE *of the* NUMBER *of* THREADS *and* WEIGHT *of* CABLES *of* DIFFERENT CIRCUMFERENCES.

Circumf.	Threads.	Weight.
3 inches	48	192 pounds.
4	77	308
5	121	484
6	174	696
7	238	952
8	311	1254
9	393	1572
10	485	1940
11	598	2392
12	699	2796
13	821	3284
14	952	3808
15	1093	4372
16	1244	4976
17	1404	5616
18	1574	6296
19	1754	7016
20	1943	7772

(4.) CABLE, SHEET ANCHOR, is the greateſt cable belonging to a ſhip.

(5.) CABLE'S LENGTH, a meaſure of 120 fathoms, or of the uſual length of the cable.

(6.) CABLE, STREAM, a hawſer or rope, ſomething ſmaller than the bowers, and uſed to moor the ſhip in a river, or haven, ſheltered from the wind and ſea, &c.

(7.) CABLES, TERMS USED RESPECTING. *To Serve or Plait the* CABLE, is to bind it about with ropes, clouts, &c. to keep it from galling in the hawſe. *To ſplice a* CABLE, is to make two pieces faſt together, by working the ſeveral threads of the rope the one into the other. *Pay more* CABLE, is to let more out of the ſhip. *Pay cheap the Cable*, is to hand it out apace. *Veer more Cable*, is to let more out, &c.

(1.) CABLED, CABLEE, in heraldry, a term applied to a croſs formed of the two ends of a ſhip's cable; ſometimes alſo to a croſs covered over with rounds of rope; more properly called a *croſs corded*.

(2.) CABLED FLUTE, in architecture, ſuch flutes as are filled up with pieces in the form of a cable.

CABLE-TIRE, *n. ſ.* the coil of a cable.

CABLICIA, or CABLISH, } in the foreſt laws, bruſh-wood.

(1.) CABO, or CAPO DE ISTRIA, the capital of the province of Iſtria, belonging to the ci-devant ſtate of Venice, now revolutionizing by Gen. Buonaparte. It is ſeated on a ſmall iſland, in the Gulf of Venice, and joined to the main land by draw bridges. It was anciently called INSIGNOPOLIS; and lies 12 m. S. of Trieſte. Lon. 14. 22. E. Lat. 45. 49. N.

(2.) CABO DE ST MARTIN, a promontory of Spain, in Valencia.

CABOCHED, in heraldry, is when the heads of beaſts are born without any part of the neck, full faced.

CABOCLES, a name given in the Weſt Indies by the Portugueſe to perſons produced between Americans and negroes.

CABOLETTO, in commerce, a coin of the republic of Genoa, worth about 3d. of our money.

CABONS, a village near Denge-Marſh, Kent.

CABOT, Sebaſtian, the firſt diſcoverer of the continent of America, (See AMERICA, § 4.) was the Son of John Cabot a Venetian. He was born at Briſtol in 1477; and was taught by his father arithmetic, g ometry, and coſmography. Before he was 20 years of age he made ſeveral voyages. The firſt of any conſequence ſeems to have been made with his father, who had a commiſſion from Henry VII. for the diſcovery of a NW. paſſage to India. They ſailed in the ſpring of 1497; and proceeding to the NW. they diſcovered land, which for that reaſon they called PRIMA-VISTA, or NEW-FOUND-LAND. Another ſmaller iſland they called *St John*, from its being diſcovered on the feaſt of St John Baptiſt; after which, they ſailed along the coaſt of the American continent, as far as Cape Florida, and then returned with a good cargo, and 3 Indians aboard, to England, where they met with a gracious reception. Purchas juſtly obſerves, that America ſhould have been called *Cabotiana*, or *Sebaſtiana*, as Cabot diſcovered more of it than either Columbus or Veſputius; and he certainly diſcovered that great continent before either of them. Stowe and Speed aſcribe theſe diſcoveries wholly to Sebaſtian, without mentioning his father. It is probable that Sebaſtian, after his father's death, made ſeveral voyages to theſe parts, as a map of his diſcoveries, drawn by himſelf, was hung up in the privy garden at Whitehall. However, hiſtory gives but little account of his life for near 20 years; when he went to Spain, where he was made pilot-major, and intruſted with reviewing all projects for diſcoveries, which were then very numerous. His great capacity and approved integrity induced many eminent merchants to treat with him about a voyage by the newly diſcovered ſtraits of Magellan to the Moluccas. He therefore ſailed in 1525, firſt to the Canaries; then to the Cape Verd iſlands; thence to St Auguſtine and the iſland of Patos; when ſome of his people beginning to be mutinous, and refuſing to paſs through the ſtraits, he laid aſide the deſign of ſailing to the Moluccas; left ſome of the principal mutineers upon a deſart iſland; and, ſailing up the rivers of Plata and Paraguay, diſcovered, and built forts in, a large tract of fine country, that produced gold, ſilver, and other rich commodities. He thence diſpatched meſſengers to Spain for a ſupply of proviſions, ammunition, goods

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goods for trade, and a recruit of men: but his requeſt not being readily complied with, after ſtaying 5 years in America, he then returned home; where he met with a cold reception, the merchants being diſpleaſed at his not having purſued his voyage to the Moluccas, while his treatment of the mutineers had given umbrage at court. Hence he returned to England; and being introduced to the Duke of Somerſet, then lord protector, a new office was erected for him: he was made governor of the myſtery and company of the merchant adventurers for the diſcovery of regions, dominions, iſlands, and places unknown; a penſion was granted him, by letters patent of 166 l. 13s. 4d. per annum; and he was conſulted in all affairs relative to trade. In 1522, by his advice the court fitted out ſome ſhips for the diſcovery of the northern parts of the world. This produced the firſt voyage the Engliſh made to Ruſſia, and the beginning of that commerce which has ever ſince been carried on between the two nations. The Ruſſia company was now founded by a charter granted by Philip and Mary; and of this company Sebaſtian was appointed governor for life. He is ſaid to be the firſt who took notice of the variation of the needle, and who publiſhed a map of the world. And he was undoubtedly the founder of the maritime ſtrength of Britain, which has ſince made this nation ſo flouriſhing. The exact time of his death is not known, but he lived to be above 70 years of age.

CABOT, in ichthyology, a fiſh of the cuculus kind, more uſually known by the name of the CORAX.

CABRA, a town of Africa, in the kingdom of Tombut. It is large, but without walls; and is ſeated on the river Niger, about 12 miles from Tombut. The houſes are built in the ſhape of bells; and the walls are made with ſtakes or hurdles, plaſtered with clay and covered with reeds after the manner of thatch. This place is very much frequented by negroes who come by water to trade. The town is very unhealthy, which is probably owing to its low ſituation. The colour of the inhabitants is black, and their religion a ſort of Mahometaniſm. They manufacture cotton cloths, but import woollens from Barbary. They have plenty of corn, cattle, milk, and butter; but ſalt is very ſcarce. The judge who decides controverſies is appointed by the king of Tombut. It is 1200 m. S. of Algiers. Lon. 0. 50. E. Lat. 14. 21. N.

CABRACH, [Gael. *i. e.* the timber moſs,] a pariſh of Scotland, in the counties of Aberdeen, and Banff, about 30 miles diſtant from Aberdeen, and extending 7½ m. in length from S. to N. and 4½ in breadth from E. to W. It is ſurrounded by a range of hills covered with heath, and as its name imports, abounds in firs and moſſes. The climate however is pleaſant; and in ſummer it is much reſorted to for the goat whey. The ſoil is wet, and better ſuited for paſture, than cultivation, the mode of which has not varied for a century. It produces however, as much barley and oats as ſerves the inhabitants: who buy and ſell annually about 2000 ſheep and 500 black cattle, retaining of the former 1000 and of the latter 300. Much to the honour of the D. of Gordon, ſervitudes are aboliſhed. The population, in 1792, as ſtated by the rev. Mr J. Gordon, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 700, and had decreaſed 260 ſince 1755. The crop totally failed in 1782, but by the indulgence of the duke of Gorden, in allowing his tenants to retain their rents to ſupport their families; the ſpirited exertions of Mr Gordon of Craig, in importing grain, and an almoſt miraculous interpoſition of Providence, by the cows calving much earlier and in much greater numbers than uſual, in ſpring 1783, no melancholy effects enſued; though about 200 of the houſeholders emigrated to the towns for work and ſubſiſtence. The pariſh abounds in lime-ſtone; of which about 4000 bolls are annually burnt and ſold.

CABRAGH, a village 2 miles from Dublin.

CABRERA, or } a mountainous iſland of Spain,
CABREIRA, } near Majorca, and oppoſite to Cape Salinas. It has a large and ſafe harbour; yet, excepting a ſmall garriſon for its defence, it is uninhabited, being reſerved as a place of baniſhment.

CABRII, the prieſts of Cybele.

CABRIOLE, *n. ſ.* a kind of chair. *Aſh.*

CABRUSI, in the writings of the ancients, a word frequently uſed to expreſs Cyprian, or coming from the iſland of Cyprus. The ancient Greeks had almoſt all their vitriols and vitriolic minerals from this iſland; they therefore called theſe *cabruſi*, without any addition. It is probable that our word *copperas*, the common name of green virtriol is derived from this word.

CABUI, a Weſt Indian ſpecies of hemp, produced in Panama, from a plant reſembling CHARDON or IRIS; when ripe, they lay it to ſteep in water, and after drying it, beat it with wooden mallets till nothing but the hemp remains, which they afterwards ſpin, and make thread and ropes of it; the former of which is ſo hard and tough, that with it they ſaw iron, by fitting it on a box, and laying a little ſand over the metal as the work proceeds. *Ree's Edit. of Chambers's Cyclopædia.*

(1.) CABUL, or GABOUL, a city of Aſia, and capital of the province of Cabuliſtan. It lies on the frontiers of Great Bukharia, on the S. ſide of the mountains which divide the territories of the Mogul from that part of Great Tartary. It is one of the fineſt places in that part of the world; large, rich, and very populous. Being conſidered as the key of the great Mogul's dominions on that ſide, great care is taken to keep its fortifications in repair, and a numerous garriſon is maintained for its ſecurity. It lies on the road between Samarcand and Lahor; and is much frequented by the Tartars, Perſians, and Indians. The Uſbec Tartars drive there a great trade in ſlaves and horſes, of which it is ſaid that no fewer are ſold than 60,000 annually. The Perſians bring black cattle and ſheep, which renders proviſions very cheap. The city ſtands on the river Attock, which falls into the Indus, and affords a ſpeedy paſſage for all the rich commodities in the country behind it; which, when brought to Cabul, are exchanged for ſlaves and horſes, and conveyed by merchants of different countries to all parts of the world. The inhabitants are moſtly Pagans, though the officers of the Mogul and moſt of the garriſon are Mahometans. Cabul has ſeveral fine palaces and

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ſpacious caravanſeras: and lies 680 m. NW. of Delhi. Lon. 68 58. E. Lat. 34. 36. N.

(2.) CABUL, a town of the tribe of Aſher.

(3.) CABUL, the name given by Hiram king of Tyre, to the Galilean territory of 20 cities, which Solomon preſented him with. 1 Kings, ix. 13.

(1.) CABUL, or CABULISTAN, a province of Aſia, formerly belonging to the Great Mogul; but ceded in 1739 to Kouli Khan, who at that time governed Perſia. According to Walker, it is now ſubject to the king of Candahar. It is bounded on the N. by Bukharia, on the E. by Caſchmere, on the W. by Zabuliſtan; on the S. W. by Candahar; and on the S. by Multan. It is 250 miles in length, 240 in breadth, and its chief town is CABUL, (N° 1.) This country in general is not very fruitful; but in the vales they have good paſture lands. The roads are much infeſted with banditti; which obliges the natives to have guards for the ſecurity of travellers. The Cabuliſtans are pagans, and their extraordinary time of devotion is at the full moon in February, and it continues for two days. At this time they are clothed in red, make their offerings, dance to the ſound of the trumpet, and make viſits to their friends in maſquerade dreſſes. They ſay, their god CRUSMAN killed a giant who was his enemy, and that he appeared like a little child; in memory of which, they cauſe a child to ſhoot at the figure of a giant. Thoſe of the ſame tribe make bonfires, and feaſt together in a jovial manner. The chief moral duty of their religion conſiſts in charity; for which reaſon, they dig wells and build houſes for the accommodation of travellers. They have plenty of proviſions, mines of iron, myrobolans, aromatic woods, and drugs of many kinds. They carry on a great trade with the neighbouring countries; by which means they are very rich, and are plentifully ſupplied with all things.

CABULISTANS, the people of CABUL, N° 1, 4.

CABURE, in ornithology, a ſmall Braſilian bird of the owl kind; very beautiful, and eaſily tamed. It is brown, variegated with white, and is feathered down to the toes. The Braſilians keep it tame for its diverting tricks; it will play with people like a monkey, and is perfectly harmleſs.

CABUREIBA, in botany, a name given by ſome authors to the tree which affords the black Peruvian balſam.

CABURN, a town near Caiſtor, Lincolnſhire.

(1.) * CABURNS. *n. ſ.* Small ropes uſed in ſhips. *Did.*

(2.) CABURNS are made of ſpun yarn, to bind cables, ſeize tackles, or the like.

CABUS, a village in Lancaſhire.

CACABOGA, in zoology, an American ſerpent, by ſome accounted the ſame with the TARIBOIA, or black water ſnake; but by others deſcribed as yellow in colour, living about houſes, and doing great miſchief among poultry, though its bite is not fatal to mankind.

CACABUS, *n. ſ.* a kettle; a pipkin. *Aſh.*

CACACA, a town of Africa, in the kingdom of Fez, near Malilla.

CACAFUEGO, an inſect in Spain, which is ſaid to dart fire from its tail in the night.

CACAGOGA, in ancient medicinal writers, a word uſed for certain ointments intended for rubbing on the fundament to procure ſtools. The moſt common of theſe was made of alum mixed with honey, and boiled till the whole was of a tawney colour.

(1.) CACALIA, in botany, ALPINE COLT'S FOOT; a genus of the polygamia æqualis order, belonging to the ſyngeneſia claſs of plants. The receptacle is naked; the pappus hairy; the calyx cylindrical, oblong and calyculated, or having a ſmall calyx of very ſhort ſcales only at the baſe. There are 10 ſpecies; viz.

1. CACALIA ALPINA, with kidney-ſhaped leaves.

2. CACALIA ANTI-EUPHORBIUM, with oblong oval leaves.

3. CACALIA ATRIPLICI-FOLIA, with heart-ſhaped ſinuated leaves.

4. CACALIA FICOIDES, a native of the Cape of Good Hope. It riſes with ſtrong round ſtalks to the height of 7 or 8 feet, woody at bottom, but ſoft and ſucculent upward, ſending out many irregular branches, garniſhed more than half their length with thick, taper, ſucculent leaves, a little compreſſed on two ſides, ending in points, covered with a whitiſh glaucous farina, which comes off when handled. Theſe, when broken, emit a ſtrong odour of turpentine, and are full of a viſcous juice; at the extremity of the branches the flowers are produced in ſmall umbels; they are white, tubulous, and cut into 5 parts at the top. The leaves are pickled by the French, who eſteem them much. They have a method of preſerving the white farina upon them, which adds greatly to the beauty of the pickle when brought to table.

5. CACALIA GLABRA, with ſmooth leaves.

6. CACALIA KLEINIA, with a compound ſhrubby ſtalk. It grows naturally in the Canary iſlands, but has long been cultivated in the Engliſh gardens. It riſes with a thick fleſhy ſtem divided at certain diſtances, into ſo many joints. Each of theſe diviſions ſwell much larger in the middle than at each end; and the ſtalks divide into many irregular branches of the ſame form, which, toward their extremities, are garniſhed with long, narrow, ſpear-ſhaped leaves of a glaucous colour, ſtanding all round the ſtalks without order. As they fall off, they leave a ſcar at the place, which always remains on the branches. The flowers are produced in large cluſters at the extremity of the branches, which are tubulous, and of a faint carnation colour. They appear in Auguſt and September, but continue great part of October, and are not ſucceeded by ſeeds in this country. There have been ſtones and foſſils dug up at a very great depth in ſome parts of England having very perfect impreſſions of this plant upon them; from whence Dr Woodward has ſuppoſed the plants were lodged there at the univerſal deluge; and finding the impreſſions of many other plants and animals which are natives of thoſe iſlands, he concludes that the water flowed hither from the SW. This plant has been called the CABBAGE TREE, from the reſemblance which the ſtalk of it has to the cabbage: others have entitled it CARNATION TREE, from the ſhape of the leaves and the colour of the flowers.

7. CACA-

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7. CACALIA LUTEA, with leaves divided into 5 acute parts.

8. CACALIA PAPILARIS, with a ſhrubby ſtalk guarded on every ſide with broken rough foot-ſtalks.

9. CACALIA SONCHIFOLIA, with lyre-ſhaped indented leaves.

10. CACALIA SUAVEOLENS, with a herbaceous ſtalk, a native of North America. It has a perennial creeping root, which ſends out many ſtalks, garniſhed with triangular ſpear-ſhaped leaves ſharply ſawed on their edges, of a pale green on their under ſide, but a deep ſhining green above, placed alternately. The ſtalks riſe to 7 or 8 feet, and are terminated by umbels of white flowers, which are ſucceeded by oblong ſeeds covered with down. It flowers in Auguſt, and the ſeeds ripen in October. The ſtalks decay in autumn, and new ones riſe in ſpring. This plant multiplies greatly by its ſpreading roots, as well as by the ſeeds, which are ſpread to a great diſtance by the wind, their down greatly aſſiſting their conveyance. The roots caſt out of Chelſea garden, being carried by the tide to a great diſtance, have fixed themſelves to the banks of the river, and increaſed ſo much, that in a few years this ſpecies may probably appear as a native of England.

(11.) CACALIÆ, CULTURE OF THE. The 4th 6th, and 10th ſpecies are very eaſily propagated, The laſt (N° 10.) will propagate itſelf, either by roots or ſeeds. The FICOIDES is eaſily propagated by cuttings during the ſummer months: Theſe ſhould be cut from the plants and laid to dry a fortnight, that the wound may be healed over before they are planted. Moſt people plunge the pots in which theſe are planted into an hot-bed, to promote their putting out roots; but if planted in June or July, they will root as well in the open air. Even branches broken off by accident have frequently put out roots when fallen on the ground, without any care. Theſe branches may be kept ſix months out of the ground, and will take root if planted. They ſhould have a light ſandy earth, and in winter be placed in an airy glaſs-caſe, where they may enjoy the ſun and air in mild weather, but muſt be protected from froſt. During winter the plants muſt have but little water; and in ſummer, when they are placed in the open air, it ſhould not be given to them too often, or in great quantity. The KLEINIA is alſo propagated by cuttings, and the plants require the ſame culture; but muſt have a dry warm glaſs caſe in winter, and very little water, being ſubject to rot with wet. In ſummer they muſt be placed in the open air in a warm ſheltered ſituation, and in very dry weather refreſhed moderately with water. With this management the plants will flower annually, and grow to the height of 8 or 10 feet.

(1.) * CACAO. See CHOCOLATE NUT.

(2.) CACAO, in botany. See THEOBROMA.

CACAOTETE, in natural hiſtory, the name by which the Braſilians call the BELEMNITES.

CACAVATE, } in botany, names given by au-
CACAVERA, } thors to the cocoa tree. See Cocos.

CACAVIA, in botany, a name given by the Greek authors and others to the LOTUS,

CACCALIA, in botany, a name given by ſome of the old Greek writers to the *alkekengi*, or winter cherry. See PHYSALIS.

CACCABON, in botany, a ſynonime of the NYMPHÆ.

CACCOONS. See FLEVILLEA.

CACEMPHATON, } *n. ſ.* [from κακος, bad,
CACEPHATON, } and φημι, to ſpeak.] A harſh ſound of words.

CACERES, a town of Spain, in Eſtremadura, ſeated on the river Saler, and noted for the exceeding fine wool which the ſheep bear in the neighbourhood. Between this town and Brocos, there is a wood, where the allies defeated the rear-guard of the duke of Berwick, April 7th 1706. Lon. 5. 44. E. Lat. 39. 11. N.

CACHALOT, in ichthyology. See PHYSETER.

CACHAN, or CASHAN, a conſiderable town of Perſia in Irac Agemi, where they carry on an extenſive trade in ſilks, ſilver, and gold brocades, and fine earthern ware. It is ſeated in a vaſt plain 55 miles N. by W. of Iſpahan. Lon. 51. 55. E. Lat. 33. 10. N.

(1.) CACHAO, a province of Tonquin in Aſia, ſituated in the heart of the kingdom, and ſurrounded by the other 7. Its ſoil is fertile, and in ſome places mountainous, abounding with variety of trees, and particularly that of varniſh. Moſt of theſe provinces carry on ſome branch of the ſilk manufacture, but this moſt of all.

(2.) CACHAO, or KECIO, the capital of the province, (N° 1.) the metropolis of the whole kingdom, though in other reſpects hardly comparable to a Chineſe town of the third rank. It is ſituated about 80 leagues from the ſea, and is prodigiouſly crowded with people, inſomuch that the ſtreets are hardly paſſable, eſpecially on market days. Theſe vaſt crowds, however, come moſtly from the neighbouring villages; upon which account theſe villages have been allowed their halls in particular parts of the city, where they lodge and diſpoſe of their wares. The town itſelf has neither walls nor fortifications. The principal ſtreets are wide and airy, but the reſt narrow and ill-paved. The houſes are low and mean, moſtly built of wood and clay, and not above one ſtory high. The magazines and warehouſes belonging to foreigners are the only edifices built of brick; and though plain, yet by reaſon of their height and more elegant ſtructure, make a conſiderable ſhow among thoſe rows of wooden huts. From the combuſtibility of its edifices, this city ſuffers frequent and dreadful conflagrations. Theſe ſpread with ſuch ſurpriſing velocity, that ſome thouſands of houſes are often laid in aſhes before the fire can be extinguiſhed. To prevent theſe ſad conſequences, every houſe hath, either in its yard or even in its centre, ſome low building of brick, in form of an oven, into which the inhabitants on the firſt alarm convey their moſt valuable goods. Beſides this precaution, which every family takes to ſecure their goods, the government obliges them to keep a ciſtern, or ſome other capacious veſſel, always full of water on the top of their houſe, to be ready on all occaſions of this nature; with a long pole and bucket, to throw water from the kennel upon the houſes. If theſe two expedients fail of ſuppreſſing the flames, they immediately

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ately cut the ſtraps which faſten the thatch to the walls, and let it fall in and waſte itſelf on the ground. The king's palace ſtands in the centre of the city; and is ſurrounded with a ſtout wall, within whoſe cincture are ſeen a great number of apartments 2 ſtories high, whoſe fróht and portals have ſomething of the grand taſte. Thoſe of the king and his wives are embelliſhed with variety of carvings and gildings after the Indian manner, all finely varniſhed. In the outer court are a vaſt number of ſumptuous ſtables for the king's horſes and elephants. The appearance of the inner courts can only be conjectured; for the avenues are not only ſhut to all ſtrangers, but even to the king's ſubjects, except thoſe of the privy council, and the chief miniſter of ſtate: yet we are told, that there are ſtair-caſes by which people may mount up to the top of the walls, which are about 18 or 20 feet high; from whence they may have a diſtant view of the royal apartments, and of the fine parterres and fiſh-ponds that are between the cincture and them. The front wall has a large gate well ornamented, which is never opened but when the king goes out and in; but at ſome diſtance from it on each ſide there are two poſterns, for the courtiers and ſervants. This cincture, which is of a vaſt circumference, is faced with brick within and without, and the whole ſtructure is terminated by wide ſpacious gardens. Beſides this palace, the ruins of one ſtill more magnificent are to be obſerved, called *Libatvia*. The circumference is ſaid to have been between 6 and 7 miles: ſome arches, porticoes, and other ornaments, are ſtill remaining: from which, and ſome of its courts paved with marble, it may be concluded to have been as magnificent a ſtructure as any in the eaſt. The arſenal is likewiſe a large and noble building, well ſtored with ammunition and artillery. The Engliſh factory is ſituated on the N. ſide of the city, fronting the river Song-koy. It is a handſome low-built houſe, with a ſpacious dining-room in the centre; and on each ſide are the apartments of the merchants, factors, and ſervants. At each end of the buildings are ſtore houſes, kitchen, &c. which form two wings with the ſquare in the middle, and parallel with the river, near the bank of which ſtands a long-ſtaff, on which are commonly diſplayed the Engliſh colours on Sundays and all remarkable days. Adjoining to it, on the S. ſide, is the Daniſh factory, which is neither ſo large nor ſo handſome. On the ſame ſide of the river runs a long dike, of timber and ſtones, ſo firmly faſtened together, that no part can be ſtirred without moving the whole. This work was raiſed on thoſe banks to prevent the river, during the time of their vaſt rains, from overflowing the city; and it has hitherto anſwered its end. The town ſtands ſo high as to be in no danger from ſea floods. Some curious obſervations have been communicated to the Royal Society concerning differences between the tides of thoſe ſeas and thoſe of Europe, viz. that on the Tonquineſe coaſt ebbs and flows but once in 24 hours; that is, that the tide is riſing during the ſpace of 12 hours, and can eaſily be perceived during two of the moon's quarters, but can hardly be obſerved during the other two. In the ſpring tides, which laſt 14 days, the waters begin to riſe at the riſing of the moon; whereas in the low tides, which continue the ſame number of days, the tide begins not till that planet is got below the horizon. Whilſt it is paſſing through the ſix northern ſigns, the tides are obſerved to vary greatly, to riſe ſometimes very high, and ſometimes very low; but when it is gone into the ſouthern part of the zodiac, they are then found to be more even and regular. Lon. 105. 31. E. Lat. 22. 10. N.

* CACHECTICAL. } *adj.* [from *cachexy*.] Ha-
* CACHECTICK. } ving an ill habit.—Young and florid blood, rather than vapid and *cachectical*. *Arbuthnot on Air*.—The crude chyle ſwims in the blood, and appears milky in the blood, of ſome perſons who are *cachectic*. *Floyer*.

CACHEF, or CACHEEF, in the Turkiſh affairs, the governor of a city, town, or province of Egypt. The title is alſo given to the commanders of little flying armies, intended to keep the Arabs in obedience.

CACHEFTECK, the government of a CACHEF. Egypt is divided by the Turks into 39 of theſe governments.

CACHEO, a town of Africa in Negroland, ſeated on the river St Domingo. It is ſubject to the Portugueſe, who have 3 forts on it, and carry on a great trade in wax and ſlaves. Lon. 14. 55. W. Lat. 12. 0. N.

(1.) CACHET, [from *cache*, hid, Fr.] a ſeal.

(2.) CACHET, LETTRES DE, private letters or mandates, iſſued by the French monarchs under the royal ſignet, during the late deſpotiſm, for the apprehenſion of individuals, who were obnoxious to the court, and who, in ſuch caſes were generally lodged in the baſtile, treated as their perſecutors pleaſed, without trial by judge or jury, and very often never more heard of. The late celebrated Mirabeau, who was himſelf many years a ſufferer under this tyranny, wrote a learned and ſpirited treatiſe, in 4 volumes 8vo, on *Lettres de Cachet*.

(1.) * CACHEXY. *n. ſ.* [κακεξία.] A general word to expreſs a great variety of ſymptoms; moſt commonly it denotes ſuch diſtemperature of the humours, as hinders nutrition, and weakens the vital and animal functions, proceeding from weakneſs of the fibres, and an abuſe of the non-naturals, and often from ſevere acute diſtempers. *Arbuthnot on Diet*.

(2.) CACHEXY. See MEDICINE, *Index*.

* CACHINNATION. *n. ſ.* [*cachinnatio*, Lat.] A loud daughter. *Dict*.

CACHLEX, in natural hiſtory, a name uſed by ſome authors for the ſmall pebbles found on the ſea and river ſhores, which being heated red hot, and quenched in whey, are ſaid to have an aſtringent virtue.

CACHORRODOMATO, in zoology, the name given by the Portugueſe Americans to the TAITBI; a creature in many reſpects reſembling the opoſſum, and ſuſpected to be the male of that animal.

CACHOU, an aromatic drug. See CATECHU.

(1.) CACHRYS, in botany; a genus of the digynia order belonging to the pentandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 45th order, *Umbellatæ*. The fruit is ſubovate, angled, and cork or ſpongy ringed. There are 5 ſpecies, viz.

1. CACHRYS

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1. CACHRYS HUNGARIA, with a plain, fungous, channelled ſeed:

2. CACHRYS LIBANOTIS, with ſmooth furrowed ſeeds:

3. CACHRYS LINEARIS, with plain channelled fruit:

4. CACHRYS SICULA, with double winged leaves;

5. CACHRYS TRIFIDA, with bipinnated leaves. All theſe plants are perennial plants, riſing pretty high, and bearing large umbels of yellow flowers, and may be propagated by ſeeds which ought to be ſown ſoon after they are ripe; for if they are kept out of the ground till the next ſpring, they often miſcarry. They muſt alſo be ſown in a ſhady border where they are to remain: for the plants having long top-roots, will not bear tranſplanting ſo well as many others. The Hungarians in the neighbourhood of Erlaw, and thoſe who border on Tranſylvania, Servia, &c. eat the root of the 1ſt ſpecies in a ſcarcity of corn.

(II.) CACHRYS, or CANCHRYS, in ancient botany, denoted a ſcaly tuft, growing like a katkin on the oak, beech, pine, &c. or, according to others, an unſeaſonable kind of bud, appearing either in ſpring, or autumn, and which, after the winter is over, ſpreads or ſhoots into branches. The word is ſometimes alſo uſed for the ſeed of roſemary, or even the plant itſelf; ſometimes for barley roaſted in a furnace, to render it more eaſy to grind into flour.

CACHU. See CATECHU.

CACHUNDE, a medicine, highly celebrated among the Chineſe and Indians, made of ſeveral aromatic ingredients, perfumes, medicinal earth, and precious ſtones. They make the whole into a ſtiff paſte, and form out of it ſeveral figures according to their fancy, which are dried for uſe; theſe are principally uſed in the Eaſt Indies, but are ſometimes brought over to Portugal. In China, the principal perſons uſually carry a ſmall piece in their mouths, which is a continued cordial, and gives their breath a very ſweet ſmell. It is a highly valuable medicine alſo, in all nervous complaints; and is eſteemed a prolonger of life, and a provocative to venery, the two great intentions of moſt of the medicines in uſe in the Eaſt.

CACHYMIA, in metallurgy, a term uſed by Paracelſus for an imperfect metalline ore.

* CACKEREL. *n. ſ.* A fiſh, ſaid to make thoſe who eat it laxative.

CACKHAM, a town in Suſſex, near Selſey.

* CACKLE. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. The voice of a gooſe or fowl.—

The ſilver gooſe before the ſhining gate
There flew, and, by her *cackle*, ſav'd the ſtate.
Dryden.

2. To talk idly.

* *To* CACKLE. *v. n.* [*kaeckelen*, Dutch.] 1. To make a noiſe as a gooſe.—

The nightingale, if ſhe ſhould ſing by day,
When every gooſe is *cackling*, would be thought
No better a muſician than the wren. *Shakeſp.*
Or rob the Roman geeſe of all their glories,
And ſave the ſtate, by *cackling* to the tories. *Pope.*

2. Sometimes it is uſed for the noiſe of a hen.—

The trembling widow, and her daughters twain,
This woful *cackling* cry, with horrour heard,
Of thoſe diſtracted damſels in the yard. *Dryd.*

3. To laugh; to giggle.—Nic. grinned, *cackled*, and laughed, till he was like to kill himſelf, and fell a friſking and dancing about the room. *Arbuth.*

* CACKLER. *n. ſ.* [from *cackle.*] 1. A fowl that cackles. 2. A teltale; a tatler.

CACOCHYLIA, [from κακος, bad, and χυλος, chyle,] A bad ſtate of the chyle; a bad digeſtion.

CACOCHYMIA, [from κακος, ill, and χυμος, juice,] a vicious ſtate of the vital humours, eſpecially of the maſs of blood; ariſing either from a diſorder of the ſecretions or excretions, or from external contagion.

* CACOCHYMICAL. } *adj.* [from *cacochymy.*]
* CACOCHYMICK. } Having the humours corrupted.—It will prove very advantageous, if only *cacochymick*, to clarify his blood with a laxative. *Harvey on Conſumptions.*—If the body be *cacochymical*, the tumours are apt to degenerate into very venomous and malignant abſceſſes. *Wiſeman.*—The ancient writers diſtinguiſhed putrid fevers, by putrefaction of blood, choler, melancholy, and phlegm; and this is to be explained by an effervescence happening in a particular *cacochymical* blood. *Floyer on Humours.*

* CACOCHYMY. *n. ſ.* [κακοχυμια.] A depravation of the humours from a ſound ſtate, to what the phyſicians call by a general name of a *cacochymy.* Spots, and diſcolourations of the ſkin, are ſigns of weak fibres; for the lateral veſſels, which lie out of the road of circulation, let groſs humours paſs, which could not, if the veſſels had their due degree of ſtricture. *Arbuth. on Aliments.*—Strong beer, a liquor that attributes the half of its ill qualities to the hops, conſiſting of an acrimonious fiery nature, ſets the blood, upon the leaſt *cacochymy*, into an orgaſmus. *Harvey.*

CACODÆMON, an evil ſpirit; the devil.

CACODES, in ancient medical writers, a name given to matter diſcharged from the human body, with an ill ſmell.

(1.) CACOETHES, [from κακος, and εθη, habit,] A bad habit; a malignant ulcer.

(2.) CACOETHES SCRIBENDI, an itch for ſcribbling; a phraſe applied to bad authors,

——"who, in ſpite
"Of nature and their ſtars, will write." *Hud.*

CACOLOGY, *n. ſ.* a bad pronunciation.

CACONGO, a ſmall kingdom of Africa, watered by the Zaire. The cuſtoms of the people are much the ſame with thoſe of the natives of LOANGO, which ſee. See alſo ANGOY, § 1.

CACOPATHY, [from κακος, bad, and παθος, paſſion,] a ſtate of ſuffering under a very painful diſeaſe.

(1.) CACOPHONIA, [from κακος, evil, and φωνη, voice,] in grammar and rhetoric, the meeting of two letters, or ſyllables, which yield an uncouth and diſagreeable ſound.

(2.) CACOPHONIA, in medicine, denotes a defect or deprivation of the voice or ſpeech; of which there are two ſpecies, APHONIA and DYSPHONIA.

* CACOPHONY. *n. ſ.* [κακοφωνια.] A bad ſound of words.—Theſe things ſhall lie by, till you come to carp at them, and alter rhimes, grammar, triplets and *cacophonies* of all kinds. *Pope to Swift.*

CACORITHMUS, an unequal pulſe.

CACOR-

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CACORLA, or } a town of Spain, in Andalu-
CACORLO, } ſia, ſeated on the Vega.

CACOSITARA, in logic, an argument that will ſerve either ſide. *Aſh.*

CACOSPHYXY, [from κακος, and σφυξις, the pulſe,] a bad pulſe.

CACOSYNTHETON, [from κακος, and συνθεσις, a joining,] a bad conſtruction of words in a ſentence.

CACOTECHNY, [from κακος, and τεχνη, art,] a hurtful invention.

CACOTROPHY, [from κακος, and τροφη, nouriſhment,] a bad nouriſhment.

CACOTYCHE, in aſtrology, bad fortune.

CACOZELIA, [from κακος, and ζηλος, zeal,] bad imitation; affectation.

CACTONITES, in natural hiſtory, a name given by ſome old writers, to a beautiful pale red ſtone, ſuppoſed to be the ſame with our pale cornelian.

CACTUS, in botany, MELON THISTLE: A genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the icoſandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 13th order, *Succulentæ*. The calyx is monophyllous; ſuperior, or above the receptacle of the fruit imbricated; the corolla polypetalous; the fruit an unilocular, polyſpermous berry. To this genus Linnæus has added the CEREUS and OPUNTIA. The cacti are plants of a ſingular ſtructure, but eſpecially the larger kinds of them; which appear like a large, fleſhy, green melon, with deep ribs, ſet all over with ſtrong ſharp thorns; and, when the plants are cut through the middle, their inſide is a ſoft, pale-green, fleſhy ſubſtance, very full of moiſture. The fruits of all the ſpecies are frequently eaten by the inhabitants of the Weſt Indies. They are about ¾ of an inch in length, of a taper form, drawing to a point at the bottom toward the plant, but blunt at the top where the empalement of the flower was ſituated. The taſte is agreeably acid, which in a hot country muſt render them grateful. There are 24 ſpecies, all natives of the Weſt Indies. The two following are the moſt remarkable: viz.

1. CACTUS COCHENILLIFER, the ſpecies which the cochineal animals inhabit. See COCCUS, N° 1.

2. CACTUS GRANDIFLORA, one of the creeping cereuſes. The flower of this ſpecies, though very ſhort-lived, is ſaid to be as grand and beautiful as any in the vegetable ſyſtem: It begins to open in the evening about 7 o'clock, is in perfection about 11, and fades about 4 in the morning; ſo that the ſame flower only continues in perfection about ſix hours. The calyx when expanded is about a foot in diameter, of a ſplendid yellow within, and a dark brown without; the petals are many, and of a pure white; and the great number of recurved ſtamina, ſurrounding the ſtyle in the centre of the flower, make a grand appearance, to which may be added the fine ſcent, which perfumes the air to a conſiderable diſtance. It flowers in July.

CACUBALUM, chickweed. See CUCUBALUS.

CACULE, in the materia medica, a name given by Avicenna, Serapion, and all the other Arabian writers, to the cardamom ſeeds. They diſtinguiſh two kinds of this fruit, a larger, and a ſmaller. The larger is the grain of paradiſe, and the ſmaller the common cardamom. See AMOMUS.

* *To* CACUMINATE. *v. a.* [*cacumino*, Lat.] To make ſharp or pyramidal. *Diſt.*

CACUS, in fabulous hiſtory, the ſon of Vulcan, an Italian ſhepherd upon mount Aventine. As Hercules was driving home the herd of king Geryon whom he had ſlain, Cacus robbed him of ſome of his oxen, which he drew backward into his den leſt they ſhould be diſcovered, by their traces. Hercules at laſt finding them out by their lowing, killed Cacus with his club. He was ſaid to have been of prodigious bulk, half man half ſatyr, and to have had three heads!

CADAN, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Zats, ſeated on the N. bank of the river Egra. Lon. 13. 34. E. Lat. 50. 20. N.

CADARI, or KADARI, [from קדר, *cadara*, Arab. *i. e.* power,] a ſect of Mahometans, who aſſert free-will; attribute the actions of men to men alone, not to any ſecret power determining the will; and deny all abſolute predeſtination. The author of this ſect was Mabed ben Kaled Al Gihoni, who ſuffered martyrdom for it. Ben Aun calls the Cadari, the Magi, or Manichees of the Muſſulmen.

* CADAVEROUS. *adj.* [*cadaver*, Lat.] Having the appearance of a dead carcaſs; having the qualities of a dead carcaſs.—In vain do they ſcruple to approach the dead, who livingly are *cadaverous*, for fear of any outward pollution whoſe temper pollutes themſelves. *Brown's Vulgar Errours.*—The urine, long detained in the bladder, as well as glaſs, will grow red, fœtid, *cadaverous* and alkaline. The caſe is the ſame with the ſtagnant waters of hydropical perſons. *Arbuthnot on Aliments.*

CAD-BATE. See CADDIS, *def.* 2.

(1, 2.) CADBURY, the name of 4 villages; viz. 1. in Devonſhire, W. of Bradninch: 2. in Yorkſh. W. of Doncaſter:

(3.) CADBURY, NORTH, and } between Queen-
(4.) CADBURY, SOUTH, } Camel and Wincanton, Somerſetſhire.

CADDER, or CALDER, a pariſh of Scotland, in Lanarkſhire, 13 miles long from E. to W. and nearly 4 broad, from N. to S. Its W. point is 3 miles from Glaſgow, and its Eaſtern within half a mile of Kirkintilloch. The ſurface is level, and the ſoil conſiſts of moſs, ſandy till, and deep earth, which produce excellent crops of oats, barley, potatoes, flax, clover and rye graſs. Free-ſtone, whin-ſtone and lime-ſtone quarries are abundant. The population in 1792, as ſtated by Mr William Barclay, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 1767, and had decreaſed 629, within 37 years. At that period, there were 377 horſes, 1285 cows, 139 ſheep, 41 ſwine, 202 dogs, 284 carts, 138 ploughs, 158 weavers looms, 107 watches, 110 clocks, 18 ſlated houſes, 15 public ditto, 9 mills, 4 ſchools. 6 dove cotes, and 6 burying-places in the pariſh.

CADDINGTON, a town in Bedfordſhire, between Kneeſworth and Luton.

* CADDIS. *n. ſ.* [This word is uſed in Erſe for the variegated clothes of the Highlanders.] 1. A kind of tape or ribbon.—He hath ribbons of all the colours of the rainbow; inkles, *caddiſes*, cambricks,

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bricks, lawns; why, he ſings them over as if they were gods and goddeſſes. *Shakeſp.* 2. A kind of worm or grub found in a caſe of ſtraw.—He loves the mayfly, which is bred of the cadworm, or *caddis*; and theſe make the trout bold and luſty. *Walton's Angler.*

CADDON, a village in Northumberland, 7 m SW. of Hexham.

(1.) * CADE. *adj.* [It is deduced, by *Skinner*, from *cadeler*, Fr. an old word, which ſignifies to breed up tenderly.] Tame; ſoft; delicate; as, a *cade* lamb, a lamb bred at home.

(2.) * CADE. *n. ſ.* [*cadus*, Lat.] A barrel.—We John Cade, ſo termed of our ſuppoſed father.——Or rather for ſtealing a *cade* of herrings. *Shak.*

Soon as thy liquour from the narrow cells
Of cloſe preſs'd huſks is freed, thou muſt refrain
Thy thirſty ſoul; let none perſuade to broach
Thy thick, unwholeſome, undigeſted *cades*.
Philips.

(3.) CADE, John, a native of Ireland, who headed a formidable inſurrection in England, in the reign of Henry VI, but was at laſt ſlain by Alexander Eden.

(4.) CADE LAMB, (§ 1.) is called in the North Country, *pet lamb*.

(5.) CADE OF HERRINGS is a veſſel containing 500 red herrings, or 1000 ſprats.

(6.) CADE OIL, in the materia medica, a name given to an oil much uſed in ſome parts of France and Germany. The phyſicians call it *oleum cadæ*, or *oleam de cada*. This is ſuppoſed by ſome to be the piſſelæum of the ancients, but improperly; it is made of the fruit of the oxycedrus, which is called by the people of theſe places *cada*.

(7.) * CADE-WORM. *n. ſ.* The ſame with *caddis*.

(8.) CADE WORM, in zoology, is the maggot of a fly called *phryganea*. It is uſed as a bait in angling. See PHRYGANEA.

* *To* CADE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To breed up in ſoftneſs.

CADEA, or THE LEAGUE OF THE HOUSE OF GOD, is one of thoſe that compoſe the republic of the Griſons, and the moſt powerful and extenſive of them all. It contains the biſhopric of Coire, the great valley of Engadine, and that of Bragail, or Pregal. Of the 11 great, or 21 ſmall communities, there are but two that ſpeak the German language; that of the reſt is called the *Rhetic*, and is a dialect of the Italian. The Proteſtant religion is moſt prevalent in this league, which has been allied to the Swiſs cantons ever ſince 1498. Coire is the capital.

CADEBY, a town near Leiceſter Foreſt.

CADELESHER. See CADILESCHER.

CADENAC, a town of France in the department of Lot, and ci-devant province of Querci, ſeated on the river Lot, 27 miles ENE. of Cahors. Lon. 2. 0. E. Lat. 44. 32. N.

(1.) * CADENCE. CADENCY. *n. ſ.* [*cadence*, Fr.] 1. Fall; ſtate of ſinking; decline.—

Now was the ſun in weſtern *cadence* low
From noon; and gentle airs, due at their hours,
To fan the earth, now wak'd. *Milton.*

2. The fall of the voice; ſometimes the general modulation of the voice.—The ſliding, in the cloſe or *cadence*, hath an agreement with the figure in rhetorick, which they call *prater expectatum*; for there is a pleaſure even in being deceived. *Bacon.*—

There be words not made with lungs,
Sententious ſhow'rs! O! let them fall,
Their *cadence* is rhetorical. *Craſhaw.*

3. The flow of verſes, or periods.—The words, the verſification, and all the other elegancies of ſound, as *cadences*, and turns of words upon the thought, perform exactly the ſame office both in dramatic and epick poetry. *Dryden.*—The *cadency* of one line muſt be a rule to that of the next; as the ſound of the former muſt ſlide gently into that which follows. *Dryden.* 4. The tone or ſound.—

Hollow rocks retain
The ſound of bluſt'ring winds, which all night long
Had rous'd the ſea, now with hoarſe *cadence* lull
Sea-faring men, o'erwatch'd. *Milton.*

—He hath a confuſed remembrance of words ſince he left the univerſity; he hath loſt half their meaning, and puts them together with no regard, except to their *cadence*. *Swift.* 5. In horſemanſhip.—*Cadence* is an equal meaſure or proportion, which a horſe obſerves in all his motions, when he is thoroughly managed. *Farrier's Dict.*

(2.) CADENCE, in reading, [from *cadere*, Lat. to fall,] is a falling of the voice below the key-note at the cloſe of every period. In reading, whether proſe or verſe, a certain tone is aſſumed which is called the *key-note*; and in this tone the bulk of the words are ſounded; but this note is generally lowered towards the cloſe of every ſentence.

(3.) CADENCE, or REPOSE, in muſic, the termination of an harmonical phraſe on a repoſe, or on a perfect chord. See MUSIC.

(1.) CADENCY, in heraldry, the ſtate or quality of a CADET.

(2.) CADENCY. See CADENCE, § 1.

CADENE, a kind of carpet, imported from the Levant. The cadenes are the coarſeſt ſort, and are ſold by the piece from 1 to 2 piaſtres per carpet.

CADANET, a town of France, in the department of the Mouths of the Rhone, and ci-devant province of Provence. Lon. 5. 30. E. Lat. 43. 40. N.

* CADENT. *adj.* [*cadens*, Lat.] Falling down.

CADENZA SFUGGITA, in the Italian muſic, is uſed when a part inſtead of aſcending or deſcending the proper interval, to form a cadence, proceeds by ſome other interval. For inſtance, when the baſs, inſtead of riſing a fourth or falling a fifth, aſcends only by a tone, or ſemi-tone major. Thus, in example 1. *Plate* LIII, where the baſs, inſtead of proceeding to C, the key-note, after G, goes to A. Thus alſo, in example 2. after E, the ear would naturally expect to hear A the key-note; but this is avoided and F put in its place.

CADER-IDRIS, a mountain of Wales, in Merionethſhire, at the foot of which there are ſome very deep pools.

(1.) CADES, in ancient geography, a town of Judah. *Joſh.* xv. 23.

(2.) CADES, or KADESH, a town in the Wilderneſs of Zin, in Arabia Petræa; the firſt encampment of the Iſraelites, after their departure

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from Eziongeber; and the burial-places of Miriam, with the rock and water of Meribah in it.

(3.) CADES, or KADESH, a name given to the wilderneſs of Zin.

(4.) CADES, or } in ancient geography, a town
CADES-BARNEA, } of the Wilderneſs of Paran, on the confines of Canaan, from which the ſpies were ſent out.

(1.) * CADET. *n. ſ.* [*cadet*, Fr. pronounced *cade*.] 1. The younger brother. 2. The youngeſt brother.—Joſeph was the youngeſt of the 12, and David the 7th ſon, and the *cadet* of Jeſſe. *Brown's Vulgar Errours.* 3. A volunteer in the army, who ſerves in expectation of a commiſſion.

(2.) CADET is a word naturalized in our language from the French. At Paris, among the citizens, the cadets had an equal patrimony with the reſt, even before the eſtabliſhment of *equality*, by the abolition of the law of primogeniture, under the new conſtitution. At Caux, in Normandy, the cuſtom was to leave all to the eldeſt, except a ſmall portion to the cadets. In Spain, it is uſual for one of the cadets in great families to take the mother's name.

(3.) CADET, in military language, (§ 1. *def.* 3.) differs from volunteer, as the former takes pay, whereas the latter ſerves without pay. During the preſent war, however, volunteers have been entitled to receive pay, when in actual ſervice.

* CADEW. *n. ſ.* A ſtraw worm. See CADDIS. *Diſt.*

CADGE, *n. ſ.* in falconry, the wooden frame on which the hawk is carried.

* CADGER. *n. ſ.* [from *cadge*, or *cage*, a *panier*.] A huckſter; one who brings butter, eggs, and poultry, from the country to market.

CADHA, the name given by the Mahometans to the doctrine of abſolute predeſtination.

CADHI. See CADI, § 2.

(1.) * CADI. *n. ſ.* A magiſtrate among the Turks, whoſe office ſeems nearly to anſwer to that of a juſtice of peace.

(2.) CADI, or CADHI, [קדי, or קאדי, Arab. *i. e.* a judge,] in the Turkiſh empire, is generally taken for the judge of a town; judges of provinces being diſtinguiſhed by the appellation of MOULAS. There are numerous complaints of the avarice, iniquity, and extortion, of the Turkiſh cadis; all juſtice is venal; the people bribe the cadis, the cadis bribe the moulas, and the moulas the cadileſchers, and the cadileſchers the mufti. Each cadi has his ſerjeants, who ſummon perſons to anſwer complaints. If the party ſummoned fails to appear at the hour appointed, ſentence is paſſed in favour of his adverſary. It is uſually vain to appeal from the ſentences of the cadi, as the cauſe is never heard anew, but judgment is paſſed on the caſe as ſtated by the cadi. But the cadis are often caſhiered and puniſhed for flagrant injuſtice with the baſtinado and mulcts; the law, however, does not allow them to be put to death. Conſtantinople has had cadis ever ſince 1390, when Bajazet I. obliged John Paleologus, emperor of the Greeks, to admit cadis to judge all controverſies that occurred between the Greeks and the Turks ſettled there. In ſome countries of Africa, the cadis are alſo judges of religious matters. Among the Moors, cadi is the denomination of their higher order of prieſts or doctors, anſwering to the rabbins among the Jews.

CADIACI, the Turkiſh name of Chalcedon. See CHALCEDON.

CADIANG, in botany, a kind of lentiles in Batavia, and the adjacent country, which makes a conſiderable part of the food of the people.

CADILESCHER, or } a capital officer of juſ-
CADILESKER, } tice among the Turks, anſwering to a chief juſtice among us. It is ſaid, that this authority was originally confined to the ſoldiery; but that, at preſent, it extends to the determination of all kinds of law-ſuits; only it is ſubject to appeals. There are but 3 cadileſchers in all the grand ſignior's territories, viz. 1ſt. of Europe; 2d. of Natolia; and, 3d. at Grand Cairo. This laſt is the moſt conſiderable. They have their ſeats in the divan next to the grand vizir.

CADILLAC, a town of France, in the department of Gironde, and ci-devant province of Guienne, near the river Garonne. It has a handſome caſtle, and lies 25 m. SE. of Bourdeaux. Lon. 0. 22. W. Lat. 43. 40. N.

* CADILLACK. *n. ſ.* A ſort of pear.

CADITES, an appellation given by Plott, to a kind of figured ſtone, reſembling a cadus or barrel. It ſwells in the middle, and tapers to both ends, being divided lengthwiſe, with ſuch equidiſtant lineaments, as are uſually made by the ſtaves of a barrel, but without hoops or hollow.

CADIZ, a city and port of Spain, in Andaluſia, ſituated on the iſland of Leon, oppoſite to Port St Mary on the continent, about 60 miles SW. of Seville, and 45 NW. of Gibraltar. It occupies the whole ſurface of the weſtern extremity of the iſland, which is compoſed of two large circular parts, joined together by a very narrow bank of ſand, forming altogether the figure of a chain-ſhot. At the SE. end, the ancient bridge of Suaco, thrown over a deep river, affords a communication between the iſland and the continent; a ſtrong line of works defends the city from all approaches along the iſthmus; and, to render them ſtill more difficult, all the gardens and little villas on the beach were in 1762 cleared away, and a dreary ſandy glacis left in their room, ſo that now there is ſcarce a tree on the whole iſland. Except the *Caſtle Aucba*, all the ſtreets are narrow, ill-paved, and inſufferably ſtinking. They are all drawn in ſtraight lines, and moſt of them interſect each other at right angles. The ſwarms of rats that in the nights run about the ſtreets are innumerable; whole droves of them paſs and repaſs continually, and their midnight revels are extremely troubleſome to ſuch as walk late. The houſes are lofty, with each a veſtibule, which being left open till night, ſerve paſſengers to retire to; this cuſtom which prevails throughout Spain, renders theſe places exceedingly offenſive. In the middle of the houſe is a court like a deep well, under which is generally a ciſtern, the breeding place of gnats and moſquitos; the ground-floors are ware houſes, the firſt ſtories compting-houſes or kitchen, and the principal apartment up two pair of ſtairs. The roofs are flat, covered with an impenetrable cement, and few are without a *mirador* or turret, to view the ſea.

Round

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Round the parapet wall at top are placed rows of square pillars, meant either for ornament, or to fix awnings to, that such as sit there, for the benefit of the sea-breeze, may be sheltered from the sun; but the most common use made of them, is to fasten ropes for drying linens upon. High above all these pinnacles, which give Cadiz a most singular appearance, stands the tower of signals. Here flags are hung out on the first sight of a sail, marking the size of the ship, the nation it belongs to, and, if a Spanish Indiaman, the port of the Indies it comes from. The ships are acquainted with the proper signals to be made, and these are repeated by the watchmen of the tower; as painted lists are in every house, persons concerned in commerce soon learn the marks. The city is divided into 24 districts, under the inspection of as many commissioners of police; and its population is reckoned at 140,000 inhabitants, of which 12,000 are French, and at least as many more Italians. Walker and others, however, state the population at only 50,000 in all. The square of Saint Antonio, is large, and tolerably handsome, and there are a few smaller openings of no great note. The public walk, or Alameda, is pleasant in the evening; it is fenced off the coach road by a marble rail. The sea-air prevents the trees from thriving, and destroys all hopes of future shade. Westward from the Alameda, is the Composanto, a large esplanade, the only airing place for coaches; it turns round most part of the W. and S. sides of the island, but the buildings are straggling and ugly; the only edifice of any show is the new orphan-house; opposite to it is the fortress of St Sebastian, built on a neck of land running out into the sea. The round tower at the extremity is supposed to have saved the city, in the great earthquake of 1755, from being swept away by the fury of the waves. The building proved sufficiently solid to withstand the shock, and break the immense volume of water that threatened destruction to the whole island. In the narrow part of the isthmus the surge beat over with amazing impetuosity, and bore down all before it; among the rest, the grandson of the famous tragic poet, Racine, who strove in vain to escape, by urging his horse to the utmost of his speed. On St Sebastian's feast, a kind of fair is held in the fort; an astonishing number of people then passing and repassing, on a string of wooden bridges laid from rock to rock, makes a very striking appearance. From hence to the wooden circus where they exhibit the bull feasts, upon turning to the left, close above the sea, (which on all this side dashes over large ledges of rocks;) the shore seems absolutely inaccessible. On this shore stands the cathedral, a work of great expence, but carried on with so little expedition, that it is difficult to guess at the term of years it will require to bring it to perfection. The vaults are executed with great solidity. The arches, that spring from the cluster of pilasters to support the roof, are very bold; the minute sculpture bestowed upon them seems superfluous, as all the effect will be lost from their great height, and from the shade that will be thrown upon them by filling up of the interstices From the sea, the present top of the church resembles the carcase of some huge monster cast upon its side, rearing its gigantic blanched ribs high above the buildings of the city. The outward casings are to be of white marble, the bars of the windows of bronze. Next, crossing before the landgate and barracks, a superb edifice for strength, convenience, and cleanliness, we come down to the ramparts that defend the city on one side of the bay. If the prospect to the ocean is solemn, that towards the main land is animated in the highest degree; the men of war ride in the eastern bosom of the bay; lower down the merchantmen are spread far and near; and close to the town an incredible number of barks, of various shapes and sizes, cover the surface of the water, some moored and some in motion. The opposite shore of Spain, studded with white houses, and enlivened by the towns of St Mary's, Port-real, Medina, Sidonia, and the mountains of Granada, beautify the scene, and westward, Rota closes the horizon. In a large bastion, jutting out into the bays, stands the custom-house, the first storey of which is level with the walk upon the walls. When it was resolved to erect a building so necessary to this great emporium of trade, the marquis di Squillace gave orders that no expence should be spared, and the most intelligent architects employed, to erect a monument, which by its taste and magnificence might excite the admiration of posterity. The result, however, produced only a piece of vile architecture, composed of the worst materials. The stir at Cadiz is prodigious during the last months of the stay of the flota. The packers possess the art of pressing goods in great perfection; but, as they pay the freight according to the cubic palms of each bale, they are apt to squeeze down the cloths and linens so very close and hard, as sometimes to render them unfit for use. The exportation of French luxuries in dress is enormous; Lyons furnishes most of them; and England sends out bale goods. Every commercial nation has a consul resident at Cadiz. In 1596, Cadiz was taken, pillaged and burnt by the English. In 1702, it was attempted in conjunction with the Dutch, without success. It is 30 miles W. by S. of Malaga. Lon. 6. 6. W. Lat. 36. 31. N.

CADIZADELITES, a sect of Mahometans very like the ancient stoics. They shun feasts and diversions, and affect an extraordinary gravity in all their actions; they are continually talking of God, and some of them make a jumble of Christianity and Mahometanism. They drink wine, even in the feast of the Ramazan; they love and protect the Christians; they believe that Mahomet is the Holy Ghost, practise circumcision, and justify it by the example of Jesus Christ. They read the Sclavonic translation of the Bible, as well as the Koran.

CADIZ-HEAD, near Warrington, Lancashire.

CADLAND, in the New Forest, Hampshire.

CADLEY, two villages in Devonshire, 1. W. of Columbton; and, 2. near Ottery St Mary's.

CADMEAN LETTERS, the ancient Greek or Ionic characters, such as they were first brought by Cadmus from Phœnicia; whence Herodotus also calls them *Phœnician letters*. Some say, that Cadmus was not the inventor, nor even the importer of the Greek letters, but only the modeller

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and reformer of the alphabet; and hence they acquired the appellation of *Cadmean* or *Phœnician letters*; whereas before that time they had been called PELASGIAN.

(1.) CADMIA, in pharmacy, a name which has been variously applied; but it usually denotes a mineral substance, whereof there are two kinds, NATURAL and ARTIFICIAL.

i. CADMIA ARTIFICIAL, } or CADMIA OF THE
CADMIA FORNACUM, } FURNACES, is a matter sublimed when ores containing zinc, like those of Rammelsberg, are smelted. This cadmia consists of the flowers of the semi-metal sublimed during the fusion, and adhering to the inner surfaces of the walls of furnaces, where they suffer a semifusion, and therefore acquire more solidity. So great a quantity of these are collected, that they form very thick incrustations, which must be frequently taken off. The name has also been given to all the soots and metallic sublimates formed by smelting in the grate, although there is certainly a difference in these matters. Chemists distinguish 5 kinds of *Cadmia Fornacum*: viz.

1. CADMIA BOTRYITIS, resembling a bunch of grapes, which is found in the middle of the furnace.

2. CADMIA CALAMITIS, found hanging round the iron rods, with which the matter is stirred in the furnace, and generally in the form of quills; whence the name from *calamus* a quill. It is reckoned desiccative and detersive, and is used to cicatrize ulcers.

3. CADMIA CAPNITIS, found at the mouth of the furnace. It is used by some in diseases of the eyes.

4. CADMIA OSTRACITIS, found at the bottom of the furnace in the form of a sea shell.

5. CADMIA PLACITIS, found at the top of the furnace, in the form of a crust. It is also used by some in diseases of the eyes.

ii. CADMIA, NATURAL, is of two sorts; the one containing arsenic, and called *cadmia fossilis* or COBALT; the other containing zinc, called *calamine*, or *lapis calaminaris*. See CALAMINE, § 2.

(II.) CADMIA is also used by Pliny for copper ore, or the stone of which copper is made.

CADMITES, in natural history, a kind of gem, nearly resembling the OSTRACITES; from which it only differs in that the latter is sometimes grit with blue spots.

(1.) CADMUS, in fabulous history, king of Thebes, the son of Agenor king of Phœnicia, and the brother of Phœnix, Cilix, and Europa. He carried into Greece the 16 simple letters of the Greek alphabet; and there built Thebes, in Bœotia. The poets say, that he left his native country in search of his sister Europa, whom Jupiter had carried away in the form of a bull; and that, inquiring of the Delphic oracle for a settlement, he was answered, that he should follow the direction of a cow, and build a city where she lay down. Having arrived among the Phocenses, he was met by a cow, who conducted him through Bœotia to the place where Thebes was afterwards built: but as he was about to sacrifice his guide to Pallas, he sent two of his company to the fountain Dirce for water; when they being devoured by a serpent or dragon, he slew the monster, and afterwards, by the advice of Pallas, sowed his teeth, when there sprung up a number of armed soldiers, who prepared to revenge the death of the serpent; but on his casting a stone among these upstart warriors, they turned their weapons against each other with such animosity, that only 5 survived the combat, and these assisted Cadmus in founding this new city. Afterwards, to recompense his labours, the gods gave him Harmonia, the daughter of Mars and Venus; and honoured his nuptials with presents and peculiar marks of favour. But at length resigning Thebes to Pentheus, Cadmus and Harmonia went to govern the Ecclellenses; when grown old, they were transformed into serpents; or, as others say, sent to the Elysian fields, in a chariot drawn by serpents. See THEBES.

(2.) CADMUS of Miletum, a celebrated Greek historian, was, according to Pliny, the first of the Greeks who wrote history in prose. He flourished about A. A. C. 550.

CADNAM-HOUSE, a village in Wiltshire, near Malford.

CADNEY, S. of Glandford bridge, Lincoln.

(1.) CADORE, or PIEVE DE CADORE, a town of Italy, and capital of the district, (N° 2.) famous for the birth of Titian. It was taken by the French in April 1797. Lon. 13. 45. E. Lat. 46. 24. N.

(2.) CADORE, or } a province of Italy, in the
CADORINO, } territory of Venice; bounded on the E. by Friuli Proper, on the S. and W. by the Belluneſe, and by the bishopric of Brixen on the N. It is very mountainous, but pretty populous. The only town is Cadore, N° 1.

CADRITES, a sort of Mahometan friars, who once a week spend a great part of the night in turning round, holding each others hand, and repeating incessantly the word *Hai*, which signifies *living*, and is one of the attributes of God during which one of them plays on a flute. They never cut their hair, nor cover their heads; and always go barefooted: they have liberty to quit their convent when they please, and to marry.

CADSAND, an island on the coast of Batavia, the ci-devant Dutch Flanders, situated at the mouth of the Scheld, whereby the Dutch command the navigation of that river. It was taken by the French on the 29th July, 1794, but was afterwards restored to the Dutch.

CADUCEATOR, in antiquity, a denomination given to heralds or messengers of peace.

(1.) CADUCEUS, in ancient mythology, Mercury's rod, a wand entwisted by two serpents, born by that deity as the ensign of his quality and office; and given him according to the fable, by Apollo, for his seven-stringed harp. Wonderful properties are ascribed to this rod by the poets; as laying men asleep, raising the dead, &c.

(2.) CADUCEUS, in Roman antiquity, was used as a symbol of peace and concord. The Romans sent the Carthaginians a javelin and a caduceus, offering them their choice either of war or peace. Among that people, those who denounced war were called *fetiales*; and those who went to demand peace CADUCEATORES, because they bore a caduceus in their hand. The caduceus on medals is a common symbol, signifying good conduct, peace, and prosperity. The rod expresses power,

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power, the two ſerpents prudence, and the two wings diligence.

CADUCI, in botany, [from *cado*, to fall,] the name of a claſs in Linnæus's *Calycina*, conſiſting of plants whoſe calyx is a ſimple perianthium, ſupporting a ſingle flower or fructification, and falling off either before or with the petals. It ſtands oppoſed to the *claſſes perſiſtentes*, and is exemplified in muſtard and ranunculus.

CADURCI, a people of Aquitania, who anciently inhabited CADURCUM and its environs. Part of them were called ELEUTHERI.

CADURCUM, CADURCUS, or CADURX, } in ancient geography, a town of Aquitania; ſituated between the rivers Oldus, running from the N. and the Tarnis from the S. and falling into the Garumna; now called CAHORS.

CADUS, in antiquity, a wine-veſſel containing 80 amphoræ or firkins; each of which, according to the beſt accounts, held 9 gallons, though ſome make them only 7. See AMPHORA.

CADUSII, a people of Media Atropatene, ſituated on the W. in the mountains, and reaching to the Caſpian ſea; between whom and the Medes, perpetual war and enmity continued down to the time of Cyrus.

CADWAN, king of the South Britons, flouriſhed in the beginning of the 7th century. He had a more peaceable reign, than moſt of his predeceſſors. He died A. D. 635.

CADWALLO, the ſon of Cadwan, ſucceeded his father in 635, and had many battles with the Saxons, with various ſucceſs. He joined with Penda king of Mercia to oppoſe the other kings of the Heptarchy, but was ſlain, A. D. 685.

CADWALLADER, the laſt Britiſh monarch, of the ancient Britiſh blood, was elected upon the death of Cadwallo, and diſplayed great bravery in different battles with the Saxons. But in a fit of ſuperſtitious zeal, having vowed a pilgrimage to Rome, he died there, A. D. 689, and left his dominions an eaſy conqueſt to the Saxon monarchs.

CADZOW, the ancient name of the pariſh of HAMILTON.

* CÆCIAS. *n. ſ.* [Lat.] A wind from the north-eaſt.—

Now, from the north
Boreas and *Cæcias* and Argeſtes loud
And Thracias rend the woods, and ſeas upturn.
Milton.

(I.) CÆCILIA, in ichthyology, a name uſed by ſome authors for the fiſh ACUS.

(II.) CÆCILIA, in zoology, a genus of ſerpents belonging to the amphibia claſs. The cæcilia has no ſcales; it is ſmooth, and moves by means of lateral rugæ or prickles. The upper lip is prominent, and furniſhed with two tentacula. It has no tail. There are only two ſpecies, viz.

1. CÆCILIA GLUTINOSA, with 340 rugæ or prickles above, and 10 below, the anus. It is of a browniſh colour, with a white line on the ſide, and is a native of the Indies.

2. CÆCILIA TENTACULATA, with 135 rugæ. It is about a foot long, and an inch in circumference, preſerving an uniform cylindrical ſhape from the one end to the other. The teeth are very ſmall. It has ſuch a reſemblance to an eel that it may eaſily be miſtaken for one; but as it has neither fins nor gills, it cannot be claſſed with the fiſhes. It is a native of America, and its bite is not poiſonous.

CÆCILIANA, in botany, a name uſed by Pliny and others, for the ANDROSÆMUM, or HYPERICUM.

CÆCILIUS, the cognomen or ſirname of an ancient Roman family, which produced ſeveral heroes during the republic.

CÆCITY, *n. ſ.* blindneſs. *Aſh.*

CÆCULUS, in fabulous hiſtory, a ſon of Vulcan, ſaid to have been blinded by a ſpark from his father's forge. The Cæcilian family at Rome, pretended to be deſcended from him.

CÆCUM, or COECUM, the blind gut. See ANATOMY, *Index.*

CÆLATURA, or COELATURA, the art of ENGRAVING on metals, ſtones, woods, or the like, with inſtruments of ſteel, diamonds, &c.

CÆLESTIANS, the followers of Cæleſtius. See PELAGIANS.

CÆLESTIUS, a monk who flouriſhed under the empire of Arcadius, about A. D. 405, and taught much the ſame doctrines as Pelagius.

CÆLICOLIST, *n. ſ.* [from *cælum*, heaven, and *colo*, to inhabit,] an inhabitant of heaven. *Aſh.*

CÆLIFEROUS. } *adj.* bearing up, or ſuſtain-
CÆLIGEROUS. } ing the heavens.

CÆLING, a river in Cornwall.

CÆLIPOTENT, *adj.* mighty in heaven. *Aſh.*

CÆLIUM, an ancient inland town of Peucetia, in Apulia; about 5 miles above BARIUM or BARI. It ſtill retains its ancient name.

(1.) CÆLIUS, Lucius. See AURELIANUS, N° 1.

(2.) CÆLIUS MONS, a town of Vindelicia, on the W. ſide of the Ilargus; now called KELMUNTZ.

(3.) CÆLIUS MONS at Rome. See COELIUS.

CÆLUS, in the Pagan mythology, the god of the heavens, was repreſented as the ſon of Æther and Dies, (or *Day*,) the father of Saturn and Ops, and progenitor of all the gods.

CÆMENT. See CEMENT.

CÆMENTATION. See CEMENTATION.

CAEN, a conſiderable town of France, in the department of Calvados, and ci-devant province of Lower Normandy, of which it was the capital. It has a celebrated univerſity, and an academy of literature. It contains 60 ſtreets, 12 pariſhes, and about 40,000 citizens. It has a caſtle with 4 towers, which were built by the Engliſh. The town is a large building with 4 great towers. The ſquare has fine houſes on 3 ſides of it. It is ſeated in a pleaſant country on the river Orne, about 8 miles from the ſea. William the conqueror was buried here, in the abbey of St Stephen, which he founded. Caen is 65 m. W. by S. of Rouen, and 125 W. of Paris. Lon. 0. 27. W. Lat. 49. 11. N.

CAER, *n. ſ.* [old Brit.] a city.

CAER-CARODOCK, a hill in Shropſhire, near the confluence of the Clun and the Temd.

CAER-CUSTENITH, a town of N. Wales in Caernarvonſhire.

CAERDIFF, a borough of S. Wales in Glamorganſhire.

CÆRE,

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CÆRE, in ancient geography, a town of Etruria, the royal reſidence of Mezentios. Its ancient name was *Argyllæ*. In Strabo's time not the leaſt veſtige of it remained, except the baths called CÆRITANA.

CAERFILLY, a town of S. Wales, in Glamorganſhire, ſeated between the rivers Taff and Rumney, in a mooriſh ground, among the hills. It is thought the walls, now in ruins, were built by the Romans; Roman coins being often dug up. It is 5 m. N. of Landaff. Lon. 3. 12. W. Lat. 51. 25. N.

CAER-GUBY, a village in Angleſey.

CAERGWRLEY, a village in Flintſhire, 7 m. from Cheſter.

CÆRITANA. See CÆRE.

CÆRITES, the people of CÆRE.

CÆRITES TABULÆ, the tables of the Roman cenſors. In theſe were entered the names of ſuch as for ſome miſdemeanor forfeited their right of ſuffrage, or were degraded from a higher to a leſs honourable tribe. They were ſo named from the people of CÆRE, who, hoſpitably receiving the Romans after the taking of Rome by the Gauls, were, on the Romans recovering their city, honoured with all the privileges of citizens, except the right of voting.

(1.) CAERLAVEROCK, a pariſh of Scotland, in Dumfries-ſhire, 6 m. long, and 2 broad, containing about 4640 Scots acres; all arable, except 59 under wood, 60 moſs, and about 100 meadow ground, liable to be overflowed by the Lochar, and the ſea. It is a kind of peninſula formed by the Nith, the Lochar and Solway Frith, and reſembles a *cornu-copiæ* both in form and fertility, having its mouth (as it were) towards Dumfries, into which it pours much of its produce. The improvements in agriculture have been ſo rapid that the real rent has been more than tripled ſince 1756: notwithſtanding which, the tenants live better than formerly, and the population has increaſed 171 ſince the above date: the number of inhabitants in 1791, being 655, according to the rev. Mr M'Morine's report to Sir J. Sinclair.

(2.) CAERLAVEROCK CASTLE, an ancient fortreſs in the above pariſh, (N° 1.) fully deſcribed by Meſſrs Pennant and Groſe.

CAERLEON, a town of Monmouthſhire, and a place of great antiquity. It was a Roman town, as is evident from the many Roman antiquities found here. It is commodiouſly ſituated on the river Uſk, over which there is a large wooden bridge. The houſes are generally built of ſtone, and the ruins of a caſtle are ſtill to be ſeen. Lon. 3. 0. W. Lat. 51. 40. N.

(1.) CAERMARTHEN, a county of S. Wales, 48 m. long and 25 broad. It is bounded on the S. by Briſtol Channel; on the W. by Pembrokeſhire; on the N. by Cardiganſhire; and on the E. by the ſhires of Brecknock and Glamorgan. The air is wholeſome, and the ſoil leſs rocky and mountainous than moſt other parts of Wales, and conſequently it is proportionally more fertile both in corn and paſture. It has alſo plenty of wood, and is well ſupplied with coal and limeſtone. The principal rivers are the Towy, the Cothy, and the Tave; of which, the firſt abounds with excellent ſalmon. The chief towns are Caermarthen, (N° 2.) Ridwely, and Lanimdovery. This county contains other 5 towns and 145 pariſhes. It abounds with ancient forts, camps, and tumuli. Near Caermarthen, towards the E. may be ſeen the ruins of KASTELL KARREY, and ſeveral vaſt caverns, ſuppoſed to have been copper mines of the Romans. Near this ſpot is a fountain which ebbs and flows twice in 24 hours. The county and city ſend each a member to parliament.

(2.) CAERMARTHEN, the capital of the county, N° 1. It is ſituated on the river Towy, over which it has a fine ſtone bridge. It is of great antiquity, being the MARIDUNUM of Ptolemy. It is a populous, thriving, and polite place, many of the neighbouring gentry reſiding there in the winter. It is a corporation and county of itſelf, with power to make by-laws. The courts of chancery and exchequer for South Wales, were held in it, till the whole was united to England in the reign of Henry VIII. The famous conjuror Merlin was born in it, and near the town is a wood called *Merlin's grove*, where he is ſaid to have often retired for contemplation. Many of his pretended prophecies are ſtill preſerved in the country. This town is 24 m. SE. of Cardigan, and 207 W. by N. of London. Lon. 4. 23. W. Lat. 51. 52. N.

(1.) CAERNARVON, a county of N. Wales, bounded on the N. and W. by the ſea, on the S. by Merionethſhire, and on the E. is divided from Denbighſhire by the river Conway. It is about 50 miles in length, 20 in breadth, and 100 in circumference. It contains 6 towns and 68 pariſhes, and abounds in lead and copper mines. It ſends one member to parliament for the ſhire, and another for the borough, N° 2. The air is very piercing; owing partly to the ſnow, that lies 7 or 8 months of the year upon ſome of the mountains, which are ſo high that they are called the *Britiſh Alps*; and partly to the great number of lakes, which are ſaid not to be fewer than 50 or 60. The ſoil in the valleys on the ſide next Ireland is pretty fertile, eſpecially in barley; great numbers of black cattle, ſheep, and goats, are fed on the mountains; and the ſea, lakes, and rivers, abound with variety of fiſh. The higheſt mountains in the county are SNOWDON HILLS, and PEN-MAENMAWR, which hangs over the ſea. The principal towns are Bangor, Caernarvon, (N° 2.) and Conway. In this country is an ancient road ſaid to have been made by Helena, the mother of Conſtantine the Great; and Matthew of Weſtminſter aſſerts, that the body of his father, Conſtantius, was found at Caernarvon in 1283, and interred in the pariſh church there by order of Edward I.

(2.) CAERNARVON, the capital of the county N° 1. It was built by Edward I. near the ſite of the ancient Segontium, after his conqueſt of Wales in 1282, the ſituation being well adapted to overawe his new ſubjects. It had natural requiſites for ſtrength; being bounded on one ſide by the arm of the ſea called the *Menai*; by the eſtuary of the Seiont on another, exactly where it receives the tide from the former; on a third ſide, and a part of the fourth, by a creek of the Menai; and the remainder has the appearance of having the inſulation completed by art. Edward undertook this great work immediately after his conqueſt of the country in 1282, and completed the fortifi-

cations

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dations and caſtle before 1284; for his queen, on April 25th in that year, brought forth within its walls Edward, firſt prince of Wales of the Engliſh line. It was built within a year, by the labour of the peaſants, and at the coſt of the chieftains of the country, on whom the conqueror impoſed the expence. The external ſtate of the walls and caſtle, Mr Pennant informs us, are at preſent exactly as they were in the time of Edward. The walls are defended by numbers of round towers, and have two principal gates: the E. facing the mountains; the W. upon the Menai. The entrance into the caſtle is very auguſt, beneath a great tower, on the front of which appears the ſtatue of the founder, with a dagger in his hand, as if menacing his new-acquired unwilling ſubjects. The gate had 4 portculliſes, and every requiſite of ſtrength. The towers are very beautiful. The Eagle tower is remarkably fine, and has the addition of 3 ſlender angular turrets iſſuing from the top. Edward II. was born in a little dark room in this tower, not 12 feet long or 8 in breadth: ſo little did a royal conſort, in thoſe days, conſult either pomp or conveniency. The gate through which the affectionate Eleanor entered, to give the Welſh a prince of their own, who could not ſpeak a word of Engliſh, is at the fartheſt end, at a vaſt height above the outſide ground; ſo could only be approached by a draw bridge. The quay is a moſt beautiful walk along the Menai, and commands a moſt agreeable view. Caernarvon is deſtitute of manufactures, but has a briſk trade with London, Briſtol, Liverpool, and Ireland, for the neceſſaries of life. It is the reſidence of numbers of genteel families, and contains ſeveral very good houſes. Edward I. beſtowed on this town its firſt royal charter, and made it a free borough. Among other privileges, none, of the burgeſſes could be convicted of any crime committed between the rivers Conway and Dyfe, unleſs by a jury of their own townſmen. It is governed by a mayor, who, by patent is created governor of the caſtle. It has one alderman, two bailiffs, a town-clerk, and two ſerjeants at mace. The repreſentative of the place is elected by its burgeſſes, and thoſe of Conway, Pwllheli, Neſyn, and Crickaeth. Every freeman has a right to vote whether reſident or not. Caernarvon has a market on Sat. and fairs Feb. 25, May 16, Aug. 4. and Dec. 5. It is 7 m. SW. of Bangor, and 251 NW. of London. Lon. 4. 20. W. Lat. 53. 8. N.

(3.) CAERNARVON BAY lies between two points at the S. entrance of the channel which runs between the main and the iſle of Angleſey. It affords a good harbour for ſhips.

CÆRULEOUS. *adj.* Of a ſky colour. *Aſh.*

(1.) CÆRULEUS, in ornithology, a name given by authors to a bird of the thruſh or black bird kind, and ſomewhat reſembling the ſolitary ſparrow.

(2.) CÆRULEUS is alſo a name given by Solinus to the great Indian worm, deſcribed by Pliny and others, as inhabiting the Ganges. It is probable that all the accounts we have of this monſtrous animal are only falſe deſcriptions of the crocodile. *Chambers.*

CAERVORRAN, a town of Northumberland, N. of the Picts wall.

CAERWENT, a village in Monmouthſhire, 4 miles SW. of Chepſtow.

CAERWIS, a market town of Flintſhire in N. Wales, 5 m. E. of St Aſaph, 5 W. of Flint, and 204 NW. of London. It has a market on Tueſ. and 6 fairs for cattle.

CÆSALPINIA, BRASILETTO, or BRASILWOOD, a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the decandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 33d order, Lomentaceæ. The calyx is quinqueſid, with the loweſt ſegment larger in proportion. There are 5 petals, the loweſt moſt beautiful. It is a leguminous plant. There are 3 ſpecies, the moſt remarkable of which is

CÆSALPINIA BRASILIENSIS, commonly called *Braſiletto*. It grows naturally in the warmeſt parts of America, from whence the wood is imported for the dyers, who uſe it much. The demand has been ſo great, that none of the large trees are left in any of the Britiſh plantations; ſo that Mr Cateſby owns himſelf ignorant of the dimenſions to which they grow. The largeſt remaining are not above two inches in thickneſs, and 8 or 9 feet in height. The branches are ſlender and full of ſmall prickles; the leaves are pinnated; the lobes growing oppoſite to one another, broad at their ends, with one notch. The flowers are white, papilionaceous, with many ſtamina and yellow apices, growing in a pyramidal ſpike, at the end of a long ſlender ſtalk: the pods incloſe ſeveral ſmall round ſeeds. The colour produced from this wood is greatly improved by ſolution of tin in aqua regia. See COLOUR-MAKING and DYEING. There is another ſort, a native of the ſame countries with the firſt, but of a larger ſize. It ſends out many weak irregular branches, armed with ſhort, ſtrong, upright thorns. The leaves branch out in the ſame manner as the firſt; but the lobes, or ſmall leaves, are oval and entire. The flowers are produced in long ſpikes like thoſe of the former, but are variegated with red. Theſe plants may be propagated from ſeeds, which ſhould be ſown in ſmall pots filled with light rich earth early in the ſpring, and plunged in a bed of tanner's bark. As they are very tender, they require to be conſtantly kept in the ſtove, and to be treated in the ſame manner as other exotics of that kind.

CÆSALPINOIDES, in botany, a ſynonime of the GLEDITSIA.

CÆSALPINUS, Andrew, an eminent philoſopher, phyſician and botaniſt, was born at Arezzo, about A. D. 1519. After having been many years profeſſor at Piſa, he became phyſician to Pope Clement VIII. From a paſſage in his *Queſtiones Peripateticæ* it would appear, that he entertained ſome idea of the circulation of the blood. He wrote alſo a botanical work *De Plantis*, and is juſtly eſteemed the founder of *Syſtematic Botany*. See BOTANY, *Index*. His *Hortus Siccus*, which conſiſts of 786 dried ſpecimens of plants, paſted on 266 folio pages, is ſtill extant. He died at Rome Feb. 23, 1603.

(1.) CÆSAR, Caius Julius, the illuſtrious Roman general and hiſtorian, was of the family of the Julii, who pretended to be deſcended from Venus

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Venus by Æneas. See IULUS and JULIUS. He was born at Rome on the 12th of the month Quintilis, (afterwards from him called JULY) A. U. C. 653, and loſt his father in 669. Being nephew to Marius, he was early proſcribed by Sylla; who was with much entreaty prevailed on to ſave his life: but ſaid to his friends when he conſented, that "he ſaw in that young man *many Mariuſes*." Cæſar, by his valour and eloquence, ſoon acquired the higheſt reputation in the field and in the ſenate. Beloved and reſpected by his fellow citizens, he enjoyed ſucceſſively every magiſterial and military honour the republic could beſtow, conſiſtent with its free conſtitution. But at length having ſubdued Pompey, the great rival of his growing power, his boundleſs ambition effaced the glory of his former actions: for, purſuing his favourite maxim, "that he had rather be the firſt man in a village, than the ſecond in Rome," he procured himſelf to be choſen perpetual dictator; and not content with this unconſtitutional power, his faction had reſolved to raiſe him to the imperial dignity; when the friends of the civil liberties of the republic raſhly aſſaſſinated him in the ſenate-houſe, where they ſhould only have ſeized him and brought him to a legal trial for uſurpation. By this impolitic meaſure they defeated their own purpoſe, involving the city in conſternation and terror, which produced general anarchy, and paved the way to the revolution they wanted to prevent; the monarchical government being abſolutely founded on the murder of Julius Cæſar. He fell in the 56th year of his age, A. A. C. 43. His Commentaries contain a hiſtory of his principal voyages, battles, and victories. The London edition, in 1712, in folio, is preferred. A particular detail of Cæſar's tranſactions will be found under the article ROME. We ſhall here therefore only add a portrait of him, drawn by M. Ophellot, in his *Melanges Philoſophiques*. "If, after the lapſe of 18 centuries, the truth may be publiſhed without offence, a philoſopher might, in the following terms, cenſure Cæſar without calumniating him, and applaud him without exciting his bluſhes. Cæſar had one predominant paſſion: it was the love of glory; and he paſſed 40 years of his life in ſeeking opportunities to foſter and encourage it. His ſoul entirely abſorbed in ambition, did not open itſelf to other impulſes. He cultivated letters; but he did not love them with enthuſiaſm, becauſe he had not leiſure to become the firſt orator of Rome. He corrupted the one half of the Roman ladies, but his heart had no concern in the fiery ardours of his ſenſes. In the arms of Cleopatra, he thought of Pompey; and this ſingular man, who diſdained to have a partner in the empire of the world, would have bluſhed to have been for one inſtant the ſlave of a woman. We muſt not imagine, that Cæſar was born a warrior, as Sophocles and Milton were born poets. For, if nature had made him a citizen of Sybaris, he would have been the moſt voluptuous of men. If in our days he had been born in Pennſylvania, he would have been the moſt inoffenſive of quakers, and would not have diſturbed the tranquility of the new world. The moderation with which he conducted himſelf after his victories, has been highly extolled; but in this he ſhowed his penetration, not the goodneſs of his heart. Is it not obvious, that the diſplay of certain virtues is neceſſary to put in motion the political machine? It was requiſite that he ſhould have the appearance of clemency, if he inclined that Rome ſhould forgive him his victories. But what greatneſs of mind is there in a generoſity which follows on the uſurpation of ſupreme power? Nature, while it marked Cæſar with a ſublime character, gave him alſo that ſpirit of perſeverance which renders it uſeful. He had no ſooner begun to reflect, than he admired Sylla; hated him, and yet wiſhed to imitate him. At the age of 15, he formed the project of being dictator. It was thus that the preſident Monteſquieu conceived, in his early youth, the idea of the ſpirit of laws. Phyſical qualities, as well as moral cauſes, contributed to give ſtrength to his character. Nature, which had made him for command, had given him an air of dignity. He had acquired that ſoft and inſinuating eloquence, which is perfectly ſuited to ſeduce vulgar minds, and has a powerful influence on the moſt cultivated. His love of pleaſure was a merit with the fair ſex; and women who even in a republic can draw to them the ſuffrages and attention of men, have the higheſt importance in degenerate times. The ladies of his age were charmed with the view of having a dictator whom they might ſubdue by their attractions. In vain did the genius of Cato watch for ſome time to ſuſtain the liberty of his country. It was unequal to contend with that of Cæſar. Of what avail were the eloquence, the philoſophy, and the virtue of this republican, when oppoſed by a man who had the addreſs to debauch the wife of every citizen whoſe intereſt he meant to engage; who, poſſeſſing an enthuſiaſm for glory, wept, becauſe, at the age of 30, he had not conquered the world like Alexander; and who, with the haughty temper of a deſpot, was more deſirous to be the firſt man in a village than the ſecond in Rome? Cæſar had the good fortune to exiſt in times of trouble and civil commotions, when the minds of men are put into a ferment; when opportunities of great actions are frequent; when talents are every thing, and thoſe who can only boaſt of their virtues are nothing. If he had lived 100 years ſooner, he would have been no more than an obſcure villain; and, inſtead of giving laws to the world, would not have been able to produce any confuſion in it. I will here be bold enough to advance an idea, which may appear paradoxical to thoſe who weakly judge of men from what they atchieve, and not from the principle which leads them to act. Nature formed in the ſame mould Cæſar, Mahomet, Cromwell, and Kouli Khan. They all of them united to genius that profound policy which renders it ſo powerful. They all of them had an evident ſuperiority over thoſe with whom they were ſurrounded: they were conſcious of this ſuperiority, and they made others conſcious of it. They were all of them born ſubjects, and became fortunate uſurpers. Had Cæſar been placed in Perſia, he would have made the conqueſt of India; in Arabia, he would have been the founder of a new religion; in London, he would have ſtabbed his ſovereign, or have procured his aſſaſſination under the ſanction of the laws. He reigned with glory

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over men whom he had reduced to be ſlaves: and, under one aſpect he is to be conſidered as a hero; under another, as a monſter. But it would be unfortunate, indeed, for ſociety, if the poſſeſſion of ſuperior talents gave individuals a right to trouble its repoſe. Uſurpers accordingly have flatterers, but no friends; ſtrangers reſpect them; their ſubjects complain and ſubmit; it is in their own families that humanity finds her avengers. Cæſar was aſſaſſinated by his ſon; Mahomet was poiſoned by his wife; Kouli Khan was maſſacred by his nephew; and Cromwell only died in his bed, becauſe his ſon Richard was a philoſopher. Cæſar, the tyrant of his country; Cæſar, who deſtroyed the agents of his crimes, if they failed in addreſs; Cæſar, in fine, the huſband of every wife, and the wife of every huſband, has been accounted a great man by the mob of writers. But it is only the philoſopher who knows how to mark the barrier between celebrity and greatneſs. The talents of this ſingular man, and the good fortune, which conſtantly attended him till the moment of his aſſaſſination, have concealed the enormity of his actions."

(2.) CÆSAR, [from *cædo*, *cæſum*, to cut,] in Roman antiquity, the cognomen or ſirname of a branch of the Julian family; which is ſaid to have taken its riſe from the firſt of this name being cut out of his mother's womb. Mr Bailey is guilty of a manifeſt anachroniſm, when he traces its origin from this circumſtance having happened to Julius Cæſar; (N° 1.) as there were Cæſars of the Julian family in public employment ſo early as the 11th year of the firſt Punic war; about A. U. C. 500: and from that period there were always ſome of that branch in public offices, till the time of that great general.

(3.) CÆSAR, in Roman antiquity, a title born by all the emperors from Julius Cæſar to the deſtruction of the empire. It was alſo uſed as a title of diſtinction for the preſumptive heir of the empire, as *king of the Romans* is now uſed for that of the German. This title took its riſe from the ſurname of the firſt emperor, (N° 1.) which, by a decree of the ſenate, all the ſucceeding emperors were to bear. Under his ſucceſſor, the appellation of AUGUSTUS being appropriated to the emperors, in compliment to that prince, the title *Cæſar* was given to the ſecond perſon in the empire, though ſtill it continued to be alſo given to the firſt; and hence the difference betwixt Cæſar uſed ſimply, and Cæſar with the addition of Imperator Auguſtus. The dignity of Cæſar remained to the ſecond of the empire, till Alexius Comnenus having elected Nicephorus Meliſſenus Cæſar, by contract; and it being neceſſary to confer ſome higher dignity on his own brother Iſaacius, he created him SEBASTOCRATOR, with the precedency over Meliſſenus; ordering, that in all acclamations, &c. Iſaacius Sebaſtocrator ſhould be named the ſecond, and Meliſſenus Cæſar the third.

(4.) CÆSAR, Sir Julius, a learned civilian, was deſcended by the female line from the dukes de Ceſarini in Italy; and was born near Tottenham in Middleſex, in 1557. He was educated at Oxford, advanced to many honourable employments, admitted LL. D. of Oxford and Paris, and for the laſt 20 years of his life was maſter of the rolls. He was remarkable for his extenſive bounty and charity to all perſons of worth, ſo that he ſeemed to be the almoner general of the nation. He died in 1639, in the 79th year of his age. It is very remarkable that the M. SS. of this lawyer were offered, by the executors of ſome of his deſcendants, to a cheeſemonger for waſte paper; but being timely inſpected by Mr Samuel Paterſon, that gentleman diſcovered their worth, and had the ſatisfaction to find his judgment confirmed by the profeſſion, to whom they were ſold in lots for upwards of 500l. in 1757.

(1.) CÆSAREA, an ancient city on the coaſt of Phenicia. It was conveniently ſituated for trade; but had a very dangerous harbour, ſo that no ſhips could be ſafe in it when the wind was at SW. Herod the Great, king of Judea, remedied this inconvenience at an immenſe expence and labour, and made it one of the moſt convenient havens on that coaſt. He alſo beautified it with many buildings, and beſtowed 12 years on the finiſhing and adorning it.

(2.) CÆSAREA, the ancient name of CHERTSEY in Surry.

(3.) CÆSAREA, the ancient name of Jerſey.

(4.) CÆSAREA AUGUSTA, in ancient geography, a Roman colony, ſituated on the river Iberus in Spain, before called SALDUBA, in the territories of the Edetani; now commonly thought to be SARAGOSSA.

(5.) CÆSAREA JULIA, the name given by the Romans to ALGIERS.

* CÆSAREAN. See CESARIAN.

CÆSARIAN OPERATION. See MIDWIFERY.

CÆSARIANS, } in Roman antiquity, were
CÆSARIENSES, } officers or miniſters of the Roman emperors; they kept the account of the revenues of the emperors; and took poſſeſſion, in their name, of ſuch things as devolved or were confiſcated to them.

CÆSARIENSIS, FLAVIA, } ancient diviſions
CÆSARIENSIS, MAXIMA, } of Britain. See BRITAIN, N° I. § 4.

CÆSARIS EMPLASTRUM, among phyſicians, a name given to a plaiſter compoſed of aſtringents, to prevent abortion.

CÆSARODUNUM, in ancient geography, a town of the Turones in Celtic Gaul; now called *Tours*. See TOURS.

(1.) CÆSAROMAGUS, in ancient geography, a town of the Trinobantes in Britain; by ſome ſuppoſed to be CHELMSFORD, by others BRENTFORD, and by others BURSTED.

(2.) CÆSAROMAGUS was alſo the ancient name of BEAUVAIS, in France.

CÆSAROPAPPIA, [Καισαροπαπεια,] a word uſed by Alfredius to expreſs the unnatural mixture of the temporal and ſpiritual tyranny aſſumed by the Popes.

CÆSAR's HILL, in Suſſex, near Findon.

CÆSENA, in ancient geography, a town of Gallia Ciſpadana, ſituated on the rivers Iſapis and Rubicon; now called CESENA.

CÆSIA. See CÆCIA.

CÆSIA SYLVA, in ancient geography, a wood

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in Germany, part of the great Sylva Hercynia, ſituated partly in the duchy of Cleves, and partly in Weſtphalia, between Weſel and Kesfield.

CÆSONES, a denomination given to thoſe cut out of their mother's wombs. Pliny ranks this as an auſpicious kind of birth; the elder Scipio Africanus, and the firſt of the family of Cæſars, was brought into the world in this way.

(1.) CÆSTUS, in antiquity, a large gantlet made of raw hide, which the wreſtlers made uſe of when they fought at the public games.—It was a kind of leathern ſtrap, ſtrengthened with lead or plates of iron, which encompaſſed the hand, the wriſt, and part of the arm, to defend theſe parts as well as to enforce their blows.

(2.) CÆSTUS, or CESTUM, was alſo a kind of girdle, made of wool, which the huſband untied for his bride the firſt day of marriage, before they went to bed. This relates to Venus's girdle, which Juno borrowed of her to entice Jupiter to love her. See CESTUS.

(1.)* CÆSURA. *n. f.* [Lat.] A figure in poetry, by which a ſhort ſyllable after a complete foot is made long.

(2.) CÆSURA, in the ancient poetry, is when, in the ſcanning of a verſe, a word is divided, ſo that one part ſeems cut off, and goes to a different foot from the reſt; *e. gr.*

Mentiri no|li: num|quam men|dacia proſunt;

where the ſyllables *ri, li, quam,* and *men,* are cæſuras. Or, it denotes a certain agreeable diviſion of the words between the feet of a verſe; whereby the laſt ſyllable of a word becomes the firſt of a foot: as in

Arma virumque cano, Trojæ qui primus ab oris;

where the ſyllables *no* and *jæ* are cæſuras.

(3.) CÆSURA, or CÆSURE, ‖ in the modern poetry, denotes a reſt or pauſe towards the middle of an Alexandrian verſe, by which the voice and pronunciation are aided, and the verſe, as it were, divided into two hemiſtichs. See PAUSE.

CÆTERIS PARIBUS, a Latin term in frequent uſe among mathematical and phyſical writers. The words literally ſignify, *the reſt,* or *other things, being alike or equal.* Thus we ſay the heavier the bullet, *cæteris paribus,* the greater the range; *i. e.* by how much the bullet is heavier, if the length and diameter of the piece and ſtrength of the powder be the ſame, by ſo much will the utmoſt range or diſtance of a piece of ordnance be the greater. Thus alſo, in a phyſical way, we ſay, the velocity and quantity circulating in a given time through any ſection of an artery, will, *cæteris paribus,* be according to its diameter, and nearneſs to or diſtance from the heart.

CÆTOBRIX, in ancient geography, a town of Luſitania, near the mouth of the Tagus on the E. ſide; now extinct. It had its name from its fiſhery; and there are ſtill extant fiſh-ponds on the ſhore, done with plaſter of Paris, which illuſtrate the name of the ruined city.

CÆYX, in mythology, a king of Thrace, who was metamorphoſed into a halcyon.

CAFER, Bos. See Bos, N° IV. § vi.

(1.) CAFFA, in commerce, painted cotton-cloths manufactured in the Eaſt Indies, and ſold at Bengal.

(2.) CAFFA, or KAFFA, a city and port town of Crim Tartary, ſituated on the SE. part of that peninſula. It is the moſt conſiderable town in the country, and gives name to the ſtraits, (N° 3.) It was anciently called THEODOSIA; and this name has been reſtored to it, ſince the Ruſſians got poſſeſſion of the country. It is 150 m. NE. of Conſtantinople. Lon. 35. 45. E. Lat. 45. 8. N.

(3.) CAFFA, STRAITS OF, run from the Euxine or Black Sea to the Palus Meotus, or ſea of Azoph.

CAFFACA, in natural hiſtory, a name given by the Turks and Tartars to a peculiar kind of earth, of a grey colour, having a light caſt of green in it. It is very ſoft and unctuous, and reſembles our fullers earth; but is more aſtringent, and adheres very firmly to the tongue; theſe people uſe this earth when they bathe.

(1.) CAFFILA, a company of merchants or travellers who join together in order to go with more ſecurity through the dominions of the Grand Mogul, and other countries on the continent of the Eaſt Indies. The Caffila differs from a caravan, at leaſt in Perſia: for the caffila belongs properly to ſome ſovereign or ſome powerful company in Europe, whereas a caravan is a company of particular merchants, each trading upon his own account. The Engliſh and Dutch have each of them their Caffila at Gambrow. There are alſo ſuch caffilas which croſs ſome parts of the deſerts of Africa, particularly that called the *ſea of ſand,* which lies between the kingdom of Morocco and thoſe of Tombut and Gaigo. This is a journey of 400 leagues; and takes up two months in going, and as many in coming back; the caffila travelling only by night, on account of the exceſſive heat of that country. The chief merchandize they bring back conſiſts in gold duſt, which they call ATIBAR, and the Europeans TIBIR.

(2.) CAFFILA on the coaſt of Guzerat or Cambaya, ſignifies a ſmall fleet of merchant ſhips.

CAFFRARIA, the country of the Caffres, in the moſt ſoutherly part of Africa lying in the form of a creſcent about the inland country of Monomotapa, between 35° Lat. S. and the tropic of Capricorn: and bounded on the E. S. and W. by the Indian and Atlantic oceans. Such is the deſcription given by moſt geographers, who confound Caffraria with the country of the HOTTENTOTS; but Mr Walker (in his *Univ. Gaz.*) makes them quite diſtinct; and ſays "Caffraria extends along the Indian Ocean to the mouth of the Great Fiſh-river, in Lat. 30° 30′ S. by which it is divided from the country of the Hottentots." He adds, "its other boundaries are uncertain. The country is very fertile, and the people have large herds of cattle, which are rather ſmall but very docile, coming at a whiſtle." Indeed the deſcription he gives of the inhabitants ſhows, that they muſt be a very different people from the Hottentots. See next article.

CAFFRES, the natives of Caffraria, whom Mr Walker thus deſcribes: "The Caffres are tall, active, and ſtrong, and evince great courage in attacking lions and other beaſts of prey. Their complexions are black: their clothing conſiſts of hides of oxen, which are as pliant as cloth." Perhaps this kind of clothing has led voyagers to confound them with the Hottentots. "Induſtry is

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is the leading trait in the character of the Caffres. The men employ much of their time in hunting; the women in cultivating the land. They alſo make earthen ware and curious baſkets. They have a high opinion of the Supreme Being, and of his power; believe in a future ſtate of rewards and puniſhments; and think that the world had no beginning, and will be everlaſting. They have no forms of prayer, nor prieſts; yet undergo, at 9 years of age, the initiatory rite of the Hebrews. Their government is limited monarchy, and their king is often poorer than many of his ſubjects. He is allowed a plurality of wives."

CAFRES, [from *cafir*, Arab. an infidel,] an opprobrious appellation given by the Arabs to all who are not Mahometans.

* CAFTAN. *n. ſ.* [Perſick.] A Perſian or Turkiſh veſt or garment.

* CAG. *n. ſ.* A barrel or wooden veſſel, containing 4 or 5 gallons. Sometimes *keg*.

(1.) CAGADO DE AGOA, in zoology, a name by which the Portugueſe in America call a ſpecies of tortoiſe, known among authors by its Braſilian name, JURUBA.

(2.) CAGADO DE TERRA, in zoology, the name by which the Portugueſe in America call a remarkable ſpecies of tortoiſe, called by the Braſilians JABOTI.

CAGANUS, or CACANUS, an appellation anciently given by the Huns to their kings. The word appears alſo to have been formerly applied to the princes of Muſcovy, now called CZARS. From the ſame alſo, probably, the Tartar title CHAM, or CAN, had its origin.

CAGAO, in natural hiſtory, the Indian name of a large bird which inhabits the mountains, and feeds on piſtachio nuts, and other fruits, which it ſwallows whole. It is very voracious, and is of the ſize of a hen, but has a longer neck.

CAGASTRUM is uſed by Paracelſus to denote a morbific ſemen, not connate or hereditary, but acceſſional. The pleuriſy, plague, fever, &c. are ranked by that author in the number of cagaſtric diſeaſes.

CAGAYAN. See CAGEAN.

(1.) * CAGE. *n. ſ.* [*cage*, Fr. from *cavea*, Lat.] 1. An incloſure of twigs or wire, in which birds are kept. "See whether a *cage* can pleaſe a bird? or whether a dog grow not fiercer with tying? *Sidney*.—He taught me how to know a man in love; in which *cage* of ruſhes, I am ſure, you are not a priſoner. *Shakeſpeare*.—

Tho' ſlaves, like birds that ſing not in a *cage*,
They loſt their genius, and poetick rage;
Homers again and Pindars may be found,
And his great actions with their numbers crown'd.
Waller.

And parrots, imitating human tongue,
And ſinging birds in ſilver *cages* hung;
And ev'ry fragrant flow'r, and od'rous green,
Were ſorted well, with lumps of amber laid between. *Dryden*.

—A man recurs to our fancy, by remembering his garment, a beaſt, bird, or fiſh, by the *cage* or court yard, or ciſtern, wherein it was kept. *Watts on the Mind*.—The reaſon why ſo few marriages are happy, is, becauſe young ladies ſpend their time in making nets, not in making *cages*. *Swift*.

2. A place for wild beaſts, incloſed with palliſadoes. 3. A priſon for petty malefactors.

(2.) CAGE is by ſome derived from the Italian *gaggia*, of the Latin CAVEA, which ſignifies the ſame: *a caveis theatralibus in quibus includebantur fera*.

(3.) CAGE, in carpentry, ſignifies an outer work of timber, incloſing another within it. In this ſenſe we ſay *the cage of a wind mill*. The cage of a ſtair caſe denotes the wooden ſides or walls which incloſe it.

(4.) CAGES, CAVEÆ, in antiquity, were places in the ancient amphitheatres, (§ 2.) wherein wild beaſts were kept, ready to be let out for ſport. Theſe beaſts were uſually brought to Rome ſhut up in oaken or beechen cages, artfully formed, and covered or ſhaded with boughs, that the creatures, deceived with the appearance of a wood, might fancy themſelves in their foreſt. The fiercer ſort were pent in iron cages, leſt wooden priſons ſhould be broke through. The *caveæ* were a ſort of iron cages different from dens, which were under ground and dark; whereas the *caveæ* being airy and light, the beaſts ruſhed out of them with more alacrity and fierceneſs than if they had been pent under ground.

* *To* CAGE. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To incloſe in a cage.—

He ſwoln, and pamper'd with high fare,
Sits down, and ſnorts, *cag'd* in his baſket-chair.
Donne.

CAGEAN, or CAGAYAN, a province of the iſland of Lytzen or Manilla, in Eaſt Indies. It is the largeſt in the iſland, being 80 leagues in length, and 40 in breadth. The principal city is called *New Segovia*, and 15 leagues eaſtward from this city lies cape Bajador. Doubling that cape, and coaſting along 20 leagues from N. to S. the province of Cagean ends, and that of Illocos begins. The peaceable Cageans who pay tribute are about 9000; but there are many not ſubdued. The whole province is fruitful: the men apply to agriculture, and are of a martial diſpoſition; and the women to ſeveral works in cotton. The mountains afford food for a vaſt number of bees; in conſequence of which wax is ſo plenty, that the poor burn it inſtead of oil. They make their candles in the following manner: they leave a ſmall hole at each end of a hollow ſtick for the wick to run through; and then, ſtopping the bottom, fill it with wax at the top: when cold, they break the mould, and take out the candle. On the mountains there is abundance of braſil, ebony, and other valuable woods. In the woods are ſtore of wild boars and other beaſts; but not ſo good as thoſe of Europe. There are alſo abundance of deer, which they kill for their ſkins and horns to ſell to the Chineſe.

CAGEANS, the people of CAGEAN.

CAGGAW, in botany, a name given by the people of Guinea, to a plant which they boil in water, and uſe the decoction to waſh the mouth with, as a cure for the toothach. Its leaves are ſmooth and ſhining, like thoſe of the laurel, but they are thin, and bend like thoſe of the bay.

CAGHRYARIFF, a town of Ireland, in Clare.

CAGIA, *n. ſ.* in old records, a cage.

GAGIT, in natural hiſtory, a name given by

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the people of the Philippine Iſlands, to a ſpecies of parrot, very common in their woods; it is of a middling ſize, and is all over of a fine green colour.

CAGLI, an ancient epiſcopal town of Italy, in the duchy of Urbino, ſituated at the foot of the Apennine mountains. Lon. 14. 10. E. Lat. 43. 15. N.

CAGLIANO, a town of Germany, in the biſhopric of Trent, near Roveredo. The Auſtrian general, Beaulieu, made it his head quarters in June, 1796.

(1.) CAGLIARI, an ancient, large, and rich town, capital of the iſland of Sardinia. It is ſeated on the declivity of an hill, is an univerſity, an archbiſhopric, and the reſidence of the viceroy. It has an excellent harbour, and a good trade; but is a place of no great ſtrength. It was taken, with the whole iſland, by the Engliſh in 1708, who transferred it to the emperor Charles VI; but it was retaken by the Spaniards in 1717, and about two years afterwards ceded to the duke of Savoy in lieu of Sicily; whence he has the title of *king of Sardinia*. Lon. 9. 14. E. Lat. 39. 27. N.

(2.) CAGLIARI, Paul, called alſo *Paulo Veroneſe*, an excellent painter, born at Verona in 1532. Gabriel Cagliari his father was a ſculptor, and Antonio Badile his uncle was his maſter in painting. He was eſteemed the beſt of the Lombard painters, and ſtyled *Il pittor felice*, the happy painter. There is ſcarcely a church in Venice where ſome of his performances are not to be ſeen. De Piles ſays "his picture of the marriage at Cana, is almoſt the triumph of painting itſelf." Philip II. of Spain, ſent for him to paint the Eſcurial, and made him great offers; but Paul excuſed himſelf from leaving his own country, where his reputation was ſo well eſtabliſhed, that moſt of the princes of Europe ordered their ambaſſadors to procure ſomething of his hand at any rate. Titian himſelf uſed to ſay, he was the ornament of his profeſſion. And Guido Reni being aſked which of his predeceſſors he would chooſe to be, were it in his power, after Raphael and Correggio, named Paul Veroneſe. He died of a fever at Venice, in 1588, and had a tomb and a ſtatue of braſs erected to his memory in the church of St Sebaſtian.

(3, 4.) CAGLIARIS, Gabriel and Charles, the ſons of Paul, and heirs of his great wealth, lived happily together, and joined in finiſhing ſeveral of their father's imperfect pieces, with good ſucceſs.

CAGUI, in zoology, a ſynonyme of two ſpecies of monkeys. See SIMIA.

(1.) CAHIER, a town of Ireland, in Kerry county, Munſter, NE. of Valentia.

(2.) CAHIER, or CAHIR, a village of Ireland, in Tipperary, 8 miles SE. of Caſhell, and 85 S. of Dublin.

CAHIRCANAWAY DRUNGAND, a range of very high hills in the county of Kerry, Ireland, over which a road paſſes, hanging in a tremendous manner over the bay of Caſtlemayn, reſembling that on Penmanmawr in N. Wales, but more rocky and dangerous.

CAHIRCONCLISH, two villages of Ireland; 1. in King's County: and 2. in Limerick.

CAHIRCONRIGH, a conical mountain of Ireland, in Kerry, Munſter, more than 700 yards above the ſea level, and forms a ſort of peninſula between the Bays of Caſtlemayn and Tralee.

CAHIRDONEL, a town of Kerry, Ireland.

CAHIRELLY, a village in Limerick.

CAHIRKEGAN, CAHIRMEE, two towns of Ireland, in Cork, Munſter.

CAHIRMORRES, in Galway, Ireland.

CAHIR-TRANT, the W. point of Ventry harbour, in Kerry, Munſter.

CAHILLO, in ichthyology, a name given by ſome authors to the LUPUS MARINUS, or wolf fiſh.

CAHORS, a conſiderable town of France, in the department of Lot, and ci-devant province of Querci. It is ſeated on a peninſula made by the river Lot, and built partly on a craggy rock. The principal ſtreet is very narrow; and terminates in the market-place, in which is the town houſe. The cathedral is a Gothic ſtructure, and has a large ſquare ſteeple. It has an univerſity, and is 45 miles NW. of Touloufe. The fortifications are regular, and the town is ſurrounded with thick walls. Lon. 1. 32. E. Lat. 44. 26. N.

CAHYS, a dry meaſure for corn, uſed in ſome parts of Spain, particularly at Seville and at Cadiz. It is near a buſhel of our meaſure.

(1.) CAIA, in Roman antiquity, a common prænomen among the women, as Caius was among the men. Hence the cuſtom of the bride ſaying, on being introduced into her huſband's houſe, *Ubi tu Caius, ego Caia, i. e.* "Where you are maſter, I will be miſtreſs." See BRIDE, § 2.

(2.) CAIA, in the Turkiſh military orders, an officer ſerving in the poſt of a deputy or ſteward, and acting for the body of janizaries.

CAJANA, or CAJANABURG, the capital of Cajania, in Sweden, ſituated on the N. E. part of the lake Cajania, in Lon. 27. 45. E. Lat. 64. 13. N.

CAIANI, in eccleſiaſtical hiſtory, a ſect of heretics, thus denominated from one Caianus of Alexandria, their leader, otherwiſe called APHTHARTODOCETÆ.

(1.) CAJANIA, a lake in Sweden.

(2.) CAJANIA, a province of Sweden, the ſame with Eaſt Bothnia. See BOTHNIA.

CAIAPHAS, high prieſt of the Jews, ſucceeded Simon the Son of Camith about A. D. 16, or as Calmet thinks, in 25, and married the daughter of Annas, who was conjoined with him in the prieſtly office. His iniquitous conduct with regard to our Saviour, with his ſtrong, though undeſigned expreſſion of the neceſſity of one dying to ſave others, are recorded by the evangeliſts. About two years after our Saviour's death, Caiaphas and Pilate were both depoſed by Vitellius, then governor of Syria, and afterwards emperor: where upon Caiaphas, unable to bear this diſgrace, ſuperadded to the ſtings of his conſcience, killed himſelf, A. D. 35. See ANNAS.

CAJAZZO, anciently CALATIA, a town of Naples, in the province of Lavoro, 16 miles NE. of Naples. Lon. 15. 0. E. Lat. 41. 15. N.

CAIC, CAICA, or CAIQUE, in ſea language, is uſed to denote the ſkiff, or ſloop, belonging to a galley. The Coſſacks give the ſame name to

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to a small kind of bark used in the navigation of the Black Sea. It is equipped with 40 or 50 soldiers: their employment is a kind of piracy.

CAICOS, islands of America, lying N. of St Domingo; between Lon. 112. 10. and 113. 16. W. Lat. 21. 40. N.

CAICUS, a river of Asiatic Turkey, which falls into the Archipelago.

CAJEPUT, an oil brought from the East Indies resembling that of Cardamom.

CAIER, a river in Caermarthenshire.

(1.) CAIETA, in ancient geography, a port and town of Latium, so called from Æneas's nurse; now called GAETA.

(2.) CAIETA, a town in Naples.

CAJETAN, Cardinal, was born at Cajeta, in Naples, in 1469. His proper name was *Thomas de Vio*; but he adopted that of *Cajetan* from the place of his nativity. He defended the authority of the Pope, which suffered greatly at the council of Nice, in a work entitled *Of the Power of the Pope*; and for this work he obtained the bishopric of Cajeta. He was afterwards, raised to the archiepiscopal see of Palermo, and in 1517 was made a cardinal by Pope Leo X. The year after, he was sent as legate into Germany, to quiet the commotions raised against indulgences by Martin Luther; but Luther, under protection of Frederic elector of Saxony, set him at defiance; for though he obeyed the cardinal's summons in repairing to Augsburg, yet he rendered all his proceedings ineffectual. Cajetan was employed in several other negociations and transactions, being as ready at business as at letters. He died in 1534. He wrote commentaries upon Aristotle's philosophy, and upon Thomas Aquinas's theology; and made a literal translation of the Old and New Testament.

CAIFONG, or CAIFUM, a large, populous, and rich town of Asia, in China, seated in the middle of a large and well cultivated plain. It stands very low; and when besieged by the rebels in 1642, they ordered the dykes of the river Hohango, to be cut, which drowned the city, and destroyed 300,000 of its inhabitants. Lon. 113. 27. E. Lat. 35. 0. N.

CAILLE, Nicholas Louis DE LA, an eminent mathematician and astronomer, was born at a small town in the diocese of Rheims, in 1713. His father had served in the army, and in his retirement studied mathematics; and amused himself with mechanic exercises, wherein he proved the happy author of several inventions of considerable use to the public. Nicholas, almost in his infancy, took a fancy to mechanics, which proved of signal service to him in his maturer years. He was sent young to school at Mantes sur Seine, where he discovered early tokens of genius. In 1729, he went to Paris; where he studied the classics, philosophy, and mathematics. Afterwards he studied divinity at Navarre, was ordained a deacon, and officiated in the church of the college of Mazarin several years; but he never entered into orders, apprehending that his astronomical studies, might too much interfere with his religious duties. In 1739, he was conjoined with M. de Thury, son of M. Cassini, in verifying the meridian of the royal observatory through the whole kingdom of France. In November the same year, whilst he was engaged day and night in the operations which this grand undertaking required, and at a great distance from Paris, he was, without any solicitation, elected into the vacant mathematical chair, which the celebrated M. Varignon had so worthily filled. Here he began to teach about the end of 1740; and an observatory was erected for his use in the college, and furnished with the best instruments. In May, 1741, he was admitted into the royal academy of sciences as an adjoint member for astronomy. Besides many excellent papers in their memoirs, he published Elements of geography, mechanics, optics, and astronomy. He carefully computed all the eclipses of the sun and moon that had happened since the Christian æra, which were printed in a book published by two Benedictines, entitled *l'Art de verefier les dates*, &c. Paris, 1750, in 4to. Besides these, he compiled a volume of astronomical ephemerides, from 1745, to 1755; another from 1755 to 1765; a third from 1765 to 1775; an excellent work entitled *Astronomiæ fundamenta noviſſimis ſolis et ſtellarum obſervationibus ſtabilita*; and the most correct solar tables that ever appeared. Having gone through a seven years series of astronomical observations in his own observatory, he formed a project of going to observe the southern stars at the Cape of Good Hope. This was highly approved of by the academy, and by the prime minister Comte de Argenson, and readily agreed to by the states of Holland. Upon this, he drew up a plan of the method he proposed to pursue in his southern observations; setting forth, that, besides settling the places of the fixed stars, he proposed to determine the parallax of the moon, Mars, and Venus. But whereas this required correspondent observations to be made in the northern parts of the world, he sent to those of his correspondents who were expert in practical astronomy previous notice, in print, whatever observations he designed to make at such and such times for the said purpose. At length, on the 21st of Nov. 1759, he sailed for the Cape, and arrived there on the 19th April, 1751. He forthwith got his instruments on shore; and, with the assistance of some Dutch artificers, set about building an astronomical observatory, in which his instruments were properly disposed, as soon as it was fit to receive them. The sky at the Cape is generally pure and serene, unless when a SE. wind blows. But this often happens, and when it does, it is attended with some strange and terrible effects. The stars look bigger, and seem to caper; the moon has an undulating tremor; and the planets have a sort of beard like comets. Two hundred and twenty eight nights did our astronomer survey the face of the southern heavens; during which space, which is almost incredible, he observed more than 10,000 stars; and whereas the ancients filled the heavens with monsters and old wives tales, the abbe de la Baille chose rather to adorn them with the instruments and machines which modern philosophy has made use of for the discovery of nature. See the Planisphere in his *Calum Auſtrale Stelliferum*. With no less success did he attend to the parallax of the moon, Mars, Venus, and the sun. Having thus executed the pur-

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purpose of his voyage, and no present opportunity offering for his return, he thought of employing the vacant time in another arduous attempt; no less than that of taking the measure of the earth as he had already done that of the heavens. This indeed had, through the munificence of the French king, been done before by different sets of learned men both in Europe and America; some determining the quantity of a degree under the equator, and others under the arctic circle: but it had not as yet been decided whether in the southern parallels of latitude the same dimensions obtained as in the northern. His labours were rewarded with the satisfaction he wished for; having determined a distance of 410,814 feet from a place called *Klip Fontyn* to the Cape, by means of a base of 38,802 feet, 3 times actually measured; whence he discovered a new secret of nature, namely that the radii of the parallels in S. latitude are to the same as those of the corresponding parallels in N. latitude. About the 23d degree of S. lat. he found a degree on the meridian to contain 342,222 Paris feet. He returned to Paris the 27th Sept. 1754; having in his almost four years absence expended no more than 9144 livres on himself and his companion; and at his coming into port, he refused a bribe of 100,000 livres, offered by one that thirsted less after glory than gain, to be sharer in his immunity from custom house searchers. After receiving the congratulatory visits of his more intimate friends and the astronomers, he drew up a reply to some strictures, which professor Euler had published relative to the meridian, and then he settled the results of the comparison of his own with the observations of other astronomers for the parallaxes. That of the sun he fixed at 9¼″; of the moon, at 56′ 56″; of Mars in his opposition, 36″; of Venus 38″. He also settled the laws whereby astronomical refractions are varied by the different density or rarity of the air, by heat or cold, and dryness or moisture. And he showed an easy method practicable by common navigators, of finding the longitude at sea by means of the moon, which he illustrated by examples elected from his own observations during his voyages. His fame was now established upon a firm basis, and he was unanimously elected a member of the royal society at London; of the institute of Bologna; of the imperial academy at Petersburg; and of the royal academies of Berlin, Stockholm, and Gottingen. In 1760, he was attacked by a severe fit of the gout; which, however, did not interrupt his studies; for he then planned out a new and immense work, no less than a history of astronomy through all ages, with a comparison of the ancient and modern observations, and the construction and use of the instruments employed in making them. In order to pursue this task, in a suitable retirement, he obtained a grant of apartments in the royal palace of Vincennes; and whilst his astronomical apparatus was erecting there, he began printing his catalogue of the southern stars, and the 3d volume of his Ephemerides. The state of his health was, towards the end of 1763, greatly reduced. His blood grew inflamed; he had pains of the head, obstructions of the kidneys, loss of appetite, with an opposition of the whole habit. His mind remained unaffected, and he resolutely persisted in his studies as usual. In the month of March, medicines were administered to him, which rather aggravated than alleviated his symptoms; and he was now sensible, that the same distemper which in Africa, ten years before, yielded to a few simple remedies, did in his native country bid defiance to the best physicians. This induced him to settle his affairs; his MSS. he committed to the care and discretion of his esteemed friend M. Maraldi. It was at last determined that a vein should be opened: but this brought on an obstinate lethargy, of which he died, aged 49.

CAIMACAN, or CAIMACAM, in the Turkish affairs, a dignity in the Ottoman empire, answering to lieutenant, or rather deputy amongst us. There are usually two Caimacans; one resides at Constantinople, as governor thereof; the other attends the grand vizir in quality of his lieutenant, secretary of state, and first minister of his council, and gives audience to ambassadors. Sometimes there is a 3d caimacan, who attends the sultan; whom he acquaints with any public disturbances, and receives his orders concerning them.

(1.)* CAIMAN. *n. s.* The American name of a crocodile.

(2.) CAIMAN ISLANDS, American islands lying south of Cuba, and NW. of Jamaica, between 81° and 86° of lon. W. and in 21° of lat. N. They are most remarkable on account of the fishery of tortoise, which the people of Jamaica carry home alive, keeping them in pens for food, and killing them as they want them.

CAIN, the eldest son of Adam and Eve, and the first man born into this world. He is generally stiled the first *murderer*, but although it is certain, that he killed his brother Abel, it appears by no means equally certain that he intended it. Death, except that of the beasts sacrificed by Abel, was then hardly known; and the extent of suffering, which the human body could bear, without inducing death, was totally unknown. It seems therefore probable, that Cain had killed his brother in a fit of passion, when he intended nothing more than a severe drubbing. This seems farther confirmed by the punishment inflicted on him, by the Searcher of hearts; which was only banishment, a punishment often inflicted since for manslaughter. He is the first builder on record. Philo pretends that he built 7 cities. *Alsted. Chron.* p. 257.

(1.) CAINAN, or KENAN, the son of Enoch, great grandson of Adam, and the 4th of the Antediluvian patriarchs, was born A. M. 325: begat Mahalaleel in 395, and died in 1235, aged 910.

(2.) CAINAN, the name of an ideal personage, introduced into St Luke's genealogy of our Saviour, (ch. iii. 36.) probably by the mistake of some transcriber, as the son of Arphaxad. But that no such person ever existed appears evident from Gen. x, 24. xi, 12. and I Chron. i, 18.

CAINIANS, or CAINITES, } a sect of heretics in the 2d century, so called on account of their great respect for Cain. They pretended that the virtue which produced Abel was of an order inferior to that which had produced Cain, and that this was the reason why Cain had the victory over Abel and killed him; for they admitted a great number of genii, which they called

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led *virtues*, of different ranks and orders. They honoured thoſe who carry in Scripture the moſt viſible marks of reprobation; as the inhabitants of Sodom, Eſau, Korah, Dathan, and Abiram. They had, in particular, a very great veneration for the traitor Judas, under pretence, that through him the death of Jeſus Chriſt had ſaved mankind. They had a forged goſpel of Judas, to which they paid great reſpect.

CAINITO, in botany, the name given by Plumier to the ſtar-apple. See CHRYSOPHYLLUM.

CAINON, in ancient geography, a city of Syria, ſaid by St Auguſtine to have been named after Cain.

CAINS, in the iſland of Candia, denote Greeks revolted, and retired to the Venetians, either at Suda or Spina Longa; who, in time of war, burn, pillage, and commit all manner of cruelties on their ancient brethren under the Turks. When a cain is taken, there is no mercy for him; they either impale him, or put him to the ganche.

* *To* CAJOLE. *v. a.* [*cageoller*, Fr.] To flatter; to ſooth; to coax: a low word.—

Thought he, 'tis no mean part of civil
State prudence, to *cajole* the devil. *Hudibras.*

—The one affronts him, while the other *cajoles* and pities him; takes up his quarrel, ſhakes his head at it, claſps his hand upon his breaſt, and then proteſts and proteſts. *L'Eſtrange.*—

My tongue that wanted to *cajole*
I try'd, but not a word wou'd troll. *Rymer.*

* CAJOLER. *n. ſ.* [from *cajole*.] A flatterer; a wheedler.

* CAJOLERY. *n. ſ.* [*cajolerie*, Fr.] Flattery.

CAIOSTER, a town in Lincolnſhire, 55 miles from London.

CAJOU, CASHEW, or CASSU. See ANACARDIUM.

CAIOUS, a river of Turkey, in Aſia, which runs into the Mediterranean.

CAIQUE. See CAIC.

CA IRA, [Fr. pronounced *Sa ira*,] The name, or rather chorus, of a political French ſong, very popular all over France, in the beginning of the revolution. The words literally ſignify, *Come on, it will do*,—or *Come, it will go on*, and are ſaid to have been uſed almoſt proverbially by the late Dr Franklin, during and after the American revolution, every time he heard any piece of news favourable to liberty; from which circumſtance they were adopted as the chorus of the French revolution ſong. Songs, however as well as ſtates, are ſubject to revolutions. This ſong and the Marſeilloiſe hymn, another popular French ſong, were both prohibited from being ſung in public, by the French directory, ſoon after the laſt revolution in July 1794, in conſequence of the overheated zeal of ſome individuals, who had occaſioned riots about them, at the threatres in Paris, ſimilar to thoſe that took place in our own country about the King's Anthem.

CAIRINA, in ornithology, a name given by ſome authors to the Muſcovy duck. See ANAS, N° 29.

(1.) CAIRN, [Gael. a ſtone or rock,] a village of Scotland, in Wigtonſhire, about 4 miles from Lochryan.

(2.) CAIRN BAY, a ſafe and commodious bay on the coaſt of Wigtonſhire, contiguous to the village; (N° 1.) which has anchoring ground for ſhips of any burden. Veſſels entering or coming from the Frith of Clyde fly to it for ſhelter in ſtormy weather.

CAIRNGORM, a mountain of Scotland, in Strathſpey, Inverneſs-ſhire, famous for its rock cryſtals of various tints, from a dark brown to a fine yellow topaz colour.

CAIRNHILL, a hill of Ireland, in Meath.

CAIRNKINNOW, a high mountain of Scotland, in Dumfries-ſhire; from the top of which may be ſeen Airſhire, Clydeſdale, Annandale, Galloway, Cumberland, and Weſtmoreland.

CAIRNLOUGH, a town of Antrim, Ireland.

CAIRNPAT, a mountain of Scotland, 800 feet above the level of the ſea, ſuppoſed to be the 2d higheſt in Galloway. England, Ireland, Iſle of Man, and part of the Highlands of Scotland, are ſeen from the top of it.

CAIRNS, or CARNES, the vulgar name of thoſe heaps of ſtones which are to be ſeen in many places of Britain, particularly Scotland and Wales. They are compoſed of ſtones of all dimenſions thrown together in a conical form, a flat ſtone crowning the apex: ſee BARROWS, § 22, and *Plate* LIV. Various cauſes have been aſſigned by the learned for theſe heaps of ſtones. They have ſuppoſed them to have been, in times of inauguration, the places where the chieftain elect ſtood to ſhow himſelf to beſt advantage to the people; or the place from whence judgment was pronounced; or to have been erected on the road ſide in honour of Mercury; or to have been formed in memory of ſome ſolemn compact, particularly where accompanied by ſtanding pillars of ſtones; or for the celebration of certain religious ceremonies. Such might have been the reaſons, in ſome inſtances, where the evidences of ſtone cheſts and urns are wanting: but theſe are ſo generally found that they ſeem to determine the moſt uſual purpoſe of the piles in queſtion to have been for ſepulchral monuments. Even this deſtination might render them ſuitable to other purpoſes; particularly religious, to which by their nature they might be ſuppoſed to give additional ſolemnity. According to Toland, fires were kindled on the tops of flat ſtones, at certain times of the year, particularly on the eves of the 1ſt of May and the 1ſt of November, for the purpoſe of ſacrificing; at which time all the people having extinguiſhed their domeſtic fires rekindled them from the ſacred fires of the cairns. In general, therefore, theſe accumulations appear to have been deſigned for the ſepulchral protection of heroes and great men. The ſtone cheſts, the repoſitory of the urns and aſhes, are lodged in the earth: ſometimes only one, ſometimes more, are found thus depoſited; and Mr Pennant mentions an inſtance of 17 being diſcovered under the ſame pile. Cairns are of different ſizes, ſome of them very large. Mr Pennant deſcribes one in the iſland of Arran, 114 feet over, and of a vaſt height. They may juſtly be ſuppoſed to have been proportioned in ſize to the rank of the perſon, or to his popularity: the people of a whole diſtrict aſſembled to ſhow their reſpect to the deceaſed; and, by an active honouring of his memory, ſoon accumula-

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ted heaps equal to thoſe that aſtoniſh us at this time. But theſe honours were not merely thoſe of the day; as long as the memory of the deceaſed endured, not a paſſenger went by without adding a ſtone to the heap; they ſuppoſed it would be an honour to the dead, and acceptable to his manes. To this moment there is a proverbial expreſſion among the Highlanders alluſive to the old practice: a ſuppliant will tell his patron, *Curri mi cloch er do charne*, "I will add a ſtone to your cairn;" meaning, When you are no more, I will do all poſſible honour to your memory. Cairns are to be found in all parts of our iſlands, in Cornwall, Wales, and all parts of North Britain; they were in uſe among the northern nations; Dahlberg, in his 323 plate, has given the figure of one. In Wales they are called *carneddau*; but the proverb taken from them there, is not of the complimental kind: *Karn ar dy ben*, or, "A cairn on your head," is a token of imprecation.

CAIRNSAIGH, [Celtic. *i. e.* the hill of peace,] a mountain of Scotland, in Ayrſhire.

CAIRNY, a pariſh of Scotland, in Aberdeenſhire, conſiſting of the united pariſhes of BOTARY, RATHVEN, and part of DRUMDELGY. It is part of the lordſhip of Strathbegie, which king Robert Bruce took from the Cummins, and gave to Sir Adam Gordon. The population in 1792, as ſtated by the rev. Mr Alexander Chalmers, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 2600, which was 90 below the number in 1755. In winter it contains about 3000 black cattle, beſides ſome ſheep. The ſoil is good and would produce much corn, if farming were encouraged.

CAIRO, GRAND, (1.) CAIRO, or the capital of Egypt, ſituated in a plain at the foot of a mountain. It was founded by Jawhar, a Magrebain general, in the year of the Hegira 358. He had laid the foundation of it under the horoſcope of Mars; and for that reaſon gave his new city the name of *Al Kahirah*, or the *Victorious*, an epithet applied by the Arab aſtronomers to that planet. In 362 it became the reſidence of the kaliffs of Egypt, and of conſequence the capital of that country, and has ever ſince continued to be ſo. It is divided into the New and Old cities. See N° 1. and 2. Lon. 31. 23. E. Lat. 30. 3. N.

1. CAIRO, NEW, which is properly Cairo, is ſeated in a ſandy plain about two miles and a half from the old city. It ſtands on the weſtern ſide of the Nile, from which it is not ¼ of a mile diſtant. It is extended along the mountain on which the caſtle is built, for the ſake of which it was removed hither, to be under its protection. However the change is much for the worſe, as well with regard to air as water, and the pleaſantneſs of the proſpect. Bulac is the port of Cairo. See BULAC. Some travellers have made Cairo of a moſt enormous magnitude, by taking in Bulac, with the old city and the new; the real circumference of it, however, is not above ten miles, but it is extremely populous. The firſt thing that ſtrikes a traveller is the narrowneſs of the ſtreets, and the appearance of the houſes. Theſe are ſo daubed with mud on the outſide, that one would think they were built with nothing elſe. Beſides, as the ſtreets are unpaved, and always full of people, walking in them is very inconvenient, eſpecially to ſtrangers. To remedy this, there are a great number of aſſes, always ready to be hired for a penny a mile. The owners drive them along and give notice to the crowd to make way. The Chriſtians in this, as well as other parts of the Turkiſh dominions, are not permitted to ride upon horſes. The number of the inhabitants can only be gueſſed at; but it muſt be very great, for in ſome years the plague will carry off 200,000, without their being much miſſed. The houſes are from 1 to 2 or 3 ſtories high, and flat at the top; where they take the air, and often ſleep all night. The higher ranks have a court on the inſide, like a college. The common run of houſes have very little room, and even among great people it is uſual for 20 or 30 to lie in the ſame hall. Some houſes will hold 300 perſons of both ſexes, among whom are 20 or 30 ſlaves, and thoſe of ordinary rank have generally 3 or 4. There is a canal called HALIS, which runs along the city from one end to the other, with houſes on each ſide, which make a large ſtraight ſtreet. There are alſo ſeveral lakes, which are called *birks* in the language of the country. The principal of theſe, which is near the caſtle, is 500 paces in diameter. The moſt elegant houſes in the city are built on its banks; but what is extraordinary, eight months in the year it contains water, and the other four it appears with a charming verdure. When the quaintity of water is ſufficient, it is always crowded with gilded boats, barges, and barks, in which people of condition take their pleaſure towards night, at which time curious fire-works are exhibited with variety of muſic. New Cairo is ſurrounded with walls built with ſtone, on which are handſome battlements, and at every diſtance of a hundred paces, there are very fine towers, which have room for a great number of people. The walls were never very high, and are in many places gone to ruin. The baſha lives in the caſtle, which was built by Saladin 700 years ago. It ſtands in the middle of the famous mountain, MOKETAN, which terminates here, after ſtretching along the banks of the Nile from Ethiopia. This caſtle is the only place of defence in Egypt; and yet the Turks take no notice of its decay, inſomuch that in proceſs of time it will become a heap of rubbiſh. The principal part in it is a magnificent hall, environed with 12 columns of granite, of a prodigious height and thickneſs, which ſuſtain an open dome, under which Saladin diſtributed juſtice to his ſubjects. Round this dome there is an inſcription in relievo, which mentions the date and by whom it was built. From this place the whole city of Cairo may be ſeen, and above 30 miles along the Nile, with the fruitful plains near it; as well as the moſques, pyramids, villages, and gardens, with which theſe fields are covered. Theſe granite pillars were the work of antiquity, for they were got out of the ruins of Alexandria. There are likewiſe in the moſques and in the principal houſes no leſs than 40,000 more, beſides great magazines, where all kinds are to be had at very low rates. A janiſſary happened to find five in his garden, as large as thoſe in the caſtle; but could not find any machine of ſtrength ſufficient to move them, and therefore had them ſawed in pieces to make mill-ſtones!

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It is believed that there have been 30 or 40,000 of theſe pillars brought from Alexandria, where there are yet many more to be had. Cairo has 3 gates, which are very magnificent; and about 300 public moſques, ſome of which have ſix minarets. The moſque of Aſhar hath ſeveral buildings adjoining, which were once a famous univerſity, and 14,000 ſcholars and ſtudents were maintained on the foundation; but has now not above 1400, and thoſe are only taught to read and write. All the moſques are built upon the ſame plan, and differ only in magnitude. The entrance is through the principal gate into a large ſquare, open on the top, but well paved. Round this are covered galleries, ſupported by pillars; under which they ſay their prayers, in the ſhade. On one ſide of the ſquare there are particular places with baſons of water, for the conveniency of performing the ablutions injoined by the Koran. The moſt remarkable part of the moſque, beſides the minaret, is the dome. This is often bold, well proportioned, and of an aſtoniſhing magnitude. The inſide ſtones are carved like lace, flowers, and melons. They are built ſo firm, and with ſuch art, that they will laſt 600 or 700 years. About the outward circumference there are large Arabic inſcriptions, in relieve, which may be read by thoſe who ſtand below, though they are ſometimes of a wonderful height. The khanes or caravanſeras are numerous and large, with courts in the middle, like their houſes. Some are ſeveral ſtories high, and are always full of people and merchandiſe. The Nubians, the Abyſſinians, and other African nations, which come to Cairo, have one to themſelves, where they always meet with lodging. Here they are ſecure from inſults, and their effects are ſafe. Beſides theſe, there is a BAZAR, where all ſorts of goods are to be ſold. This is in a long broad ſtreet; and yet the crowd is ſo great, one can hardly paſs along. At the end of this ſtreet is another ſhort one, but pretty broad, with ſhops full of the beſt ſort of goods, and precious merchandiſe. At the end of this ſhort ſtreet there is a great khane, where all ſorts of white ſlaves are to be ſold. Farther than this is another khane, where a great number of blacks, of both ſexes, are expoſed to ſale. Not far from the beſt market-place is an hoſpital, and a moſque for mad people. They alſo receive and maintain ſick people into this hoſpital, but they are poorly looked after. The increaſe of the Nile generally begins in May, and in June the inhabitants proclaim about the city how much it is riſen. Over againſt old Cairo the baſha has a houſe, wherein the water enters to a column, which has lines at the diſtance of every inch, and marks at every two feet as far as 30. When the water riſes to 22 feet, it is thought to be of a ſufficient height; when it riſes much higher, it does a great deal of miſchief. There is much pomp and ceremony uſed in letting the water into the canal above mentioned. The baſha gives the firſt ſtroke towards the removal of the dike or dam. When the water has filled the canal and lakes in the city, and the numerous ciſterns that are in the moſques and private houſes, it is let into a vaſt plain, to the NE. the extent of which is 50 miles. When the country is covered with water, it is no unpleaſant ſight to view the towns appearing like little iſlands, and the people paſſing and repaſſing in boats. New Cairo lies 100 miles S. from the mouth of the Nile.

2. CAIRO, OLD, lies on the E. ſide of the Nile, and has ſcarce any thing remarkable but the granaries of Joſeph; which are nothing but a high wall, lately built, which includes a ſquare ſpot of ground, where they depoſite wheat, barley, and other grain, which is a tribute to the baſha, paid by the owners of land. This has no other covering but the heavens, and therefore the birds are always ſure to have their ſhare. There is likewiſe a tolerably handſome church, which is made uſe of by the Copts, who are Chriſtians, and the original inhabitants of Egypt. Joſeph's well is in the caſtle, and was made by Mohammed about 700 years ago. It is called JOSEPH'S WELL, becauſe they attribute every thing extraordinary to that great prime miniſter of Egypt. It is cut in a rock, and is 280 feet in depth. The water is drawn up to the top by oxen, placed on platforms, at proper diſtances, which turn about the machines that raiſe it. The deſcent is ſo gradual that, though there are no ſteps, the oxen can deſcend and aſcend with eaſe.

(II.) CAIRO, INHABITANTS, CUSTOMS, &c. OF. The inhabitants of Cairo are a mixture of Moors, Turks, Jews, Greeks, and Cophts, or Coptis. The only difference between the habit of the Moors and Coptis is their turbans; thoſe of the Moors being white, and of the Coptis white ſtriped with blue. The common people generally wear a long black looſe frock, ſewed together all down before. The Jews wear a frock of the ſame faſhion, made of cloth; and their caps are like a high crowned hat, without brims, covered with the ſame cloth, but not ſo taper. The Jewiſh women's are not very unlike the men's, but more light and long. The Greeks are habited like the Turks, only their turbans differ. Proviſions of all kinds are exceedingly plenty; for 20 eggs may be bought for a *parrah* or penny, and bread is ſix times as cheap as with us. They have almoſt all ſorts of fleſh and fiſh; particularly tame buffaloes, which are very uſeful. They bring goats into the ſtreets in great numbers, to ſell their milk. Their gardens are well ſtocked with fruit trees of various kinds, as well as roots, herbs, melons, and cucumbers. The moſt common animal food is mutton. The goats are very beautiful, and have ears two feet in length; but their fleſh is in no great eſteem.

CAIROAN, or CAIRWAN, a city of Africa, in the kingdom of Tunis, ſeated in a ſandy barren ſoil, about 5 miles from the gulph of Capres. It has neither ſpring, well, nor river; and therefore the inhabitants are obliged to preſerve rain water in tanks and ciſterns. It was built by the Aglabites; and is the ancient CYRENE, but hath now loſt its ſplendor. There is ſtill, however, a very ſuperb moſque, and the tombs of the kings of Tunis are yet to be ſeen. It lies 80 miles S. of Tunis. Lon. 9. 12. E. Lat. 35. 40. N.

CAISHOW, a diſtrict in Buckinghamſhire, ſo named from its ancient inhabitants the CASSII.

CAISSE D' ESCOMPTE, [Fr. *i. e.* box or office of diſcount,] a bank eſtabliſhed at Paris by the old government of France, with a view to reſtore public

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public credit, a ſhort time before the revolution. It was at firſt under the direction of the celebrated M. Neckar, in 1789; but was ſuppreſſed by the convention, on the motion of Cambon, 24th Aug. 1793.

(1.)* CAISSON. *n. ſ.* [Fr.] 1. A cheſt of bombs or powder, laid in the enemy's way, to be fired at their approach. 2. A wooden caſe in which the piers of bridges are built within the water.

(2.) CAISSON ſignifies alſo a covered waggon to carry bread, or ammunition.

CAISTOR, a town in Lincolnſhire.

CAITAIA, in zoology, the name of an American monkey, remarkable for its ſweet ſmell, having ſomewhat of a ſcent of muſk; its hair is long and of a whitiſh yellow colour; its head is round; its forehead depreſſed, and very ſmall; its noſe ſmall and flatted, and its tail arched. It is eaſily tamed, but very clamorous and quarreliſome.

CAITHNESS, otherwiſe called the county of WICK, is the moſt northern county of Scotland. It is bounded on the E. by the ocean, and by Strathnaver and Sutherland on the S. and SW. from theſe it is divided by the mountains Orde, and a continued ridge of hills as far as Knockſin, and thence by the whole courſe of the river Hallowdale. On the N. it is waſhed by the Pentland frith, which divides it from the Orkneys. It extends 35 miles from N. to S. and about 20 from E. to W. The coaſt is rocky, and remarkable for a number of bays and promontories. Of theſe, the principal are Sandſide head to the W. pointing to the opening of Pentland frith; Orcas, now Holborn head, and DUNNET HEAD, both pointing northward to the frith. SCRIBISTER bay, on the NW. is a good harbour, where ſhips may ride ſecurely. RICE bay, on the eaſt ſide, extends 3 miles in breadth; but is of dangerous acceſs, on account of ſome ſunk rocks at the entrance. At the bottom of this bay appear the ruins of two ſtrong caſtles, the ſeat of the Earl of Caithneſs, called *Caſtle Sinclair*, and Gernego, joined to each other by a draw-bridge. Duncan's bay, otherwiſe called *Dunſby-head*, is the NE. point of Caithneſs, and the moſt extreme promontory in Britain. At this place, the breadth of the frith does not exceed 12 miles. It is the ordinary ferry to the Orkneys. Here is likewiſe Clythneſs pointing E. and Noſſhead pointing NE. The ſea in this place is very impetuous, being in continual agitation from violent counter-tides, currents, and vortices. The only iſland belonging to this county is that of STROMA, in the Pentland frith, two miles from the main land. The county of Caithneſs, though chiefly mountainous, flattens towards the ſea coaſt, where the ground is arable, and produces good harveſts of oats and barley, ſufficient for the natives, and yielding a ſurplus for exportation. Caithneſs is well watered with ſmall rivers, brooks, lakes, and fountains, and affords a few woods of birch, but is in general bare of trees; and even thoſe the inhabitants plant are ſtunted in their growth. Lead is found at Dunnet, copper at Old Urk, and iron ore at ſeveral places; but theſe advantages are not improved. The air of Caithneſs is temperate, though in the latitude of 58°, where the longeſt day in ſummer laſts 18 hours; and when the ſun ſets, he makes ſo ſmall an arch of a circle below the horizon, that the people enjoy twilight until he riſes again. The fuel uſed by the inhabitants of Caithneſs conſiſts of peat and turf, which the ground yields in great plenty. The foreſts of Moravins and Berridale afford abundance of red deer and roe-bucks: the country is well ſtored with hares, rabbits, growſe, heathcocks, plover, and all ſorts of game; beſides a peculiar ſpecies of birds called SNOW-FLEETS; which are about the ſize of a ſparrow, exceedingly delicious, and come hither in large flights about the middle of February, and depart in April. The hills are covered with ſheep and black cattle; which are ſo numerous, that a fat cow has been ſold for 4s. ſt. The rocks along the coaſts are frequented by eagles, hawks, and all kinds of ſea fowl, whoſe eggs and young are taken in vaſt quantities by the natives. The rivers and lakes abound with trouts, ſalmon and eels; and the ſea affords a very advantageous fiſhery. Divers obeliſks and ancient monuments appear in this diſtrict, and ſeveral Romiſh chapels are ſtill ſtanding. The laſt private war in Scotland was occaſioned by a diſpute relating to this county. An earl of Breadalbane married an heireſs of Caithneſs: the inhabitants would not admit her title, but ſet up another perſon in oppoſition. The earl, according to the cuſtom of thoſe times, deſigned to aſſert his right by force of arms; he raiſed an army of 1500 men; but thinking the number too great, he diſmiſſed firſt one 500, and then another. With the remainder he marched to the borders of Caithneſs. Here he added ſtratagem to force. He knew that the enemy's army waited for him on the other ſide of the promontory of Ord. He knew alſo, that whiſky was then the nectar of Caithneſs; and therefore ordered a ſhip laden with that liquor to paſs round, and be purpoſely ſtranded on the ſhore. Theſe directions were punctually obeyed; and the crew in a ſeeming fright eſcaped in their boats to the invading army. The Caithneſs men made a prize of the ſhip; but making too free with the freight, became an eaſy prey to the earl, who attacked them during their intoxication, and gained the county, which he diſpoſed of very ſoon after his conqueſt. Caithneſs is well peopled with a race of hardy inhabitants, who employ themſelves chiefly in fiſhing, and breeding ſheep and black cattle. They are remarkably induſtrious; for between Wick and Dunbeath, one continued wack of rugged rocks, extending 12 miles, they have forced ſeveral little harbours for their fiſhing boats, and cut artificial ſteps from the beach to the top of the rocks, where they have erected houſes, in which they cure and dry the fiſh for market. This county ſends out in ſome years about 20,000 head of black cattle; but in bad ſeaſons the farmers kill and ſalt vaſt numbers for ſale. Great numbers of ſwine are alſo reared; but the rev. Dr Moriſon, miniſter of Canisbay, ſays "the damage they do in winter to the graſs and corn lands, as they are allowed to roam at large, far exceeds any advantages that can accrue from them." (*Sir J. Sinel. Stat. Acc.* viii. 130.) Theſe animals ſeem to be a peculiar ſpecies of ſwine. They are ſhort, high-backed, long-briſtled, ſharp, ſlender, and long-poſed; have long erect ears, and moſt ferocious looks.

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looks. Here are neither barns nor graharies: the corn is threſhed out, and preſerved in the chaff in byks; which are ſtacks, in the ſhape of bee hives, thatched quite round, where it will keep good for two years. Vaſt numbers of ſalmon are taken at Caſtle-hill, Dunnet, Wick, and Thurſo. A miraculous draught is ſaid to have occurred at this laſt place, when not leſs than 2500 were taken at one tide; and Mr Smollet informs us, that, in the neighbourhood, above 300 good ſalmon have been taken at one draught of the net. In November, great numbers of ſeals are taken in the caverns that open into the ſea, and run ſome hundreds of yards under ground. The entrances of theſe caverns are narrow, but the inſide lofty and ſpacious. The ſeal-hunters enter theſe in ſmall boats with torches, which they light as ſoon as they land, and then with loud ſhouts alarm the animals, which they kill with clubs as they attempt to paſs. This is a hazardous employment; for ſhould the wind blow hard from ſea, theſe adventurers are inevitably loſt. Sometimes a large ſpecies of ſeals, 12 feet long, have been killed on this coaſt. During the ſpring, great quantities of lump-fiſh reſort to this coaſt, and are the prey of the ſeals, as appears from the number of ſkins of thoſe fiſhes which at that ſeaſon float aſhore. At certain times alſo the ſeals ſeem to be viſited by a great mortality; for, at thoſe times, multitudes of them are ſeen dead in the water. Much limeſtone is found in this county, which when burnt is made into a compoſt with turf and ſea plants. Servitudes (which were formerly *unlimited*,) ſtill prevail leſs or more in many parts of this county, and till they be totally aboliſhed, muſt prove immenſe obſtructions to its improvement. Mr Gun, miniſter of Latheron, juſtly obſerves, they are "both flaviſh and detrimental to the tenants. They tend to hurt their morals, as well as to hinder induſtry and improvements." (*Stat. Acc.* xvii. 26.) What can be more diſgraceful than to ſee women trudging in droves of 60 or 70 to the fields with baſkets of dung on their backs, filled at pleaſure from the dunghills by their lords and maſters? Such at leaſt was the ſlavery the people were under within theſe 20 years. But the public-ſpirited exertions of Sir J. Sinclair are making rapid improvements in this county, and every where. "*Emancipation*, (ſays Dr Moriſon, above quoted,) is every where prevailing, and the monſter *Feudalism* is hiding his head in ſhame." *Stat. Acc.* viii. 148.

* CAITIFF. *n. ſ.* [*cattivo*, Ital. a ſlave; whence it came to ſignify a bad man, with ſome implication of meanneſs; as *knave* in Engliſh, and *fur* in Latin; ſo certainly does ſlavery deſtroy virtue.—

'Ημισυ γαρ αρετης αποαινυσι δουλιον ημαρ. *Homer.*

—A ſlave and a ſcoundrel are ſignified by the ſame words in many languages.] A mean villain; a deſpicable knave: it often implies a mixture of wickedneſs and miſery.—

Vile *caitiff*, vaſſal of dread and deſpair,
Unworthy of the common breathed air;
Why liveſt thou, dead dog, a longer day,
And doſt not unto death thyſelf prepare? *Spenſ.*

'Tis not impoſſible
But one, the wickedeſt *caitiff* on the ground
May ſeem as ſhy, as grave, as juſt, as abſolute,
As Angelo. *Shak.*

The wretched *caitiff*, all alone,
As he believ'd, began to moan,
And tell his ſtory to himſelf. *Hudibras.*

CAITIFNESS, *n. ſ. obſ.* Slavery. *Chauc.*

CAITISNED, *adj. obſ.* Chained. *Chauc.*

CAITIVE, *adj. obſ.* Miſerable.

(1.) CAIUS, a Roman prænomen. See CAIA.

(2.) CAIUS, Dr John. See KAYE.

(1.) * CAKE. *n. ſ.* [*cacb*, Teut.] 1. A kind of delicate bread.—You muſt be ſeeing chriſtenings! do you look for ale and *cakes* here, you rude raſcals? *Shakeſp.*—

My *cake* is dough, but I'll in among the reſt,
Out of hope of all, but my ſhare of the feaſt.
Shakeſp.

The diſmal day was come, the prieſts prepare
Their leaven'd *cakes*, and fillets for my hair.
Dryden.

2. Any thing of a form rather flat than high; by which it is ſometimes diſtinguiſhed from a loaf.—There is a *cake* that groweth upon the ſide of a dead tree, that hath gotten no name, but it is large and of a cheſnut colour, and hard and pithy. *Bacon's Nat. Hiſt.* 3. Concreted matter; coagulated matter.—

Then when the fleecy ſkies new clothe the wood,
And *cakes* of ruſtling ice come rolling down the flood. *Dryden.*

(2.) CAKES are of various compoſitions, ſuch as *ſeed-cakes*, made of flour, butter, cream, ſugar, coriander and caraway ſeeds, mace, and other ſpices and perfumes baked in the oven; *plum-cakes*, made much after the ſame manner, only with fewer ſeeds, and the addition of currants; *pan-cakes*, made of a mixture of flower, eggs, &c. fried; *cheeſe-cakes*, made of cream, eggs, and flour, with or without cheeſe curd, butter, almonds, &c. *oaten-cakes*, made of fine oaten flour, mixed with yeſt and ſometimes without, rolled thin, and laid on an iron or ſtone to bake over a ſlow fire; *ſugar-cakes*, made of fine ſugar beaten and ſearced with the fineſt flour, adding butter, roſe-water, and ſpices; *roſe-cakes*, *placentæ*, *roſaceæ*, leaves of roſes dried and preſſed into a maſs, ſold in the ſhops for epithems. The ancient Hebrews had ſeveral ſorts of cakes, which they offered in the temple. They were made of the meal either of wheat or barley; they were kneaded ſometimes with oil and ſometimes with honey. Sometimes they only rubbed them over with oil when they were baked, or fried them with oil in a frying pan upon the fire. In the ceremony of Aaron's conſecration, cakes unleavened, of fine wheated flour, tempered with oil, made part of the offering. *Exod.* xxix. 2.

* *To* CAKE. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To harden, as dough in the oven.—This burning matter, as it ſunk very leiſurely, had time to *cake* together, and form the bottom, which covers the mouth of that dreadful vault that lies underneath it. *Addiſon on Italy.*—

This is that very Mab,
That plaits the manes of horſes in the night,
And *cakes* the elflocks in foul ſluttiſh hairs. *Shak.*

He rins'd the wound,
And waſh'd away the ſtrings and clotted blood,
That *cak'd* within. *Addiſon.*

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CAKET, a town of Perſia, in the province of Gurgiſtan, near Mount Caucaſus. Its trade conſiſts chiefly in ſilks. Lon. 46. 15. E. Lat. 43. 32. N.

(1.) CALA, a ci-devant barony of France, in Maine.

(2.) CALA, or CALA, ST, } a town of France, in the department of Maine.

CALABA, in botany, a name given by Plumier to a genus of plants, called by Linnæus CARYOPHYLLUS.

(1.) CALABASH, in botany. See CUCURBITA.

(2.) CALABASH, in commerce, [from *Calabacca*, Span. which ſignifies the ſame,] a light kind of veſſel formed of the ſhell of a gourd, emptied and dried, ſerving to put divers kinds of goods in, as pitch, roſin, and the like. The Indians both of the North and South Sea, put the pearls they have fiſhed in calabaſhes, and the negroes on the coaſt of Africa do the ſame with their gold-duſt. The ſmaller calabaſhes are alſo frequently uſed by theſe people as a meaſure, by which they ſell theſe precious commodities to the Europeans. The ſame veſſels likewiſe ſerve to hold liquors; and anſwer as cups, and bottles, for ſoldiers and pilgrims.

(3.) * CALABASH TREE.—It hath a flower conſiſting of one leaf, divided at the brim into ſeveral parts; from whoſe cup riſes the pointal, in the hinder part of the flower; which afterwards becomes a fleſhy fruit, having an hard ſhell. They riſe to the height of twenty-five or thirty feet in the Weſt Indies, where they grow naturally. The ſhells are uſed by the negroes for cups, as alſo for making inſtruments of muſic, by making a hole in the ſhell, and putting in ſmall ſtones, with which they make a ſort of rattle. *Miller.*

(4.) CALABASH TREE. See CRESCENTIA.

CALABASH TREE, AFRICAN. See ADANSONIA.

CALABER, a ſpecies of ſquirrel.

CALABRIA, a country of Italy in the kingdom of Naples, which has been almoſt entirely deſolated by the earthquakes of 1783. The reiterated ſhocks extended from Cape Spartivento to Amantea above the gulf of St Eufemia, and alſo affected that part of Sicily which lies oppoſite to the ſouthern extremity of Italy. Thoſe of the 5th and 7th Feb. and 28th March, were the moſt violent, and completed the deſtruction of every building throughout the above-mentioned ſpace. Not one ſtone was left upon another ſouth of the narrow iſthmus of Squillace; and what is more diſaſtrous, a very large proportion of the inhabitants was killed by the falling of their houſes, near 40,000 lives being loſt. Some were dug out alive after remaining a ſurpriſing length of time buried among the rubbiſh. Meſſina became a maſs of ruins; its beautiful palazzata was thrown in upon the town, and its quay cracked into ditches full of water. Reggio almoſt deſtroyed; Tropea greatly damaged; every other place in the province levelled to the ground. Before and during the concuſſion the clouds gathered, and then hung immoveable and heavy over the earth. At Palmi the atmoſphere had ſo fiery an aſpect, that many people thought part of the town was burning. It was afterwards remembered, that an unuſual heat had affected the ſkins of ſeveral perſons juſt before the ſhock; the rivers aſſumed a muddy aſh-coloured tinge, and a ſulphureous ſmell was almoſt general. A frigate paſſing between Calabria and Lipari felt ſo ſevere a ſhock, that the ſteerſman was thrown from the helm, and the cannons were raiſed up to their carriages, while all around the ſea exhaled a ſtrong ſmell of brimſtone. Stupendous alterations were occaſioned in the face of the country; rivers choaked up by the falling in of the hills, were converted into lakes, which if not ſpeedily drained by ſome future convulſion, or opened by human labour, will ſtagnate and fill the air with peſtilential vapours, and deſtroy the remnants of population. Whole acres of ground, with houſes and trees upon them, were broken off from the plains, and waſhed many furlongs down the deep hollows which the courſe of the rivers had worn; there, to the aſtoniſhment and terror of beholders, they found a new foundation to fix upon, either in an upright or an inclining poſition. In ſhort, every ſpecies of phenomenon, incident to theſe deſtructive commotions of the earth, was to be ſeen in its utmoſt extent and variety in this ruinated country. Their Sicilian majeſties, with the utmoſt expedition, diſpatched veſſels loaded with every thing that could be thought of on the occaſion for the relief and accommodation of the diſtreſſed Calabrians; a general officer went from Naples with engineers and troops to direct the operations of the perſons employed in clearing away and rebuilding the houſes, and to defend the property of all the ſufferers. The king ordered this officer to take all the money the royal treaſures could ſupply or borrow; for, rather than it ſhould be wanting on this preſſing call, he was determined to part with his plate, nay, the very furniture of his palace. A meſſenger ſent off from a town near Reggio on the 8th Feb. travelled 4 days without ſhelter, and without being able to procure a morſel of bread; he ſupported nature with a piece of cheeſe which he had brought in his pocket, and the vegetables he was lucky enough to find near the road. To add to all their other ſufferings, the Calabrians found themſelves and the miſerable wreck of their fortunes expoſed to the depradations of robbers and pirates. Villains landed from boats and plundered ſeveral places, and thieves went even from Naples in ſearch of booty: In order to ſtrike a greater terror, they dreſſed themſelves like Algerines; but were dicovered and driven off. To this accumulated diſtreſs ſucceeded a moſt inclement ſeaſon, which obſtructed every effort made to alleviate it; and almoſt daily earthquakes kept the inhabitants in continual dread, not of being deſtroyed by the fall of houſes, for none were left, but of being ſwallowed up by the ſplitting of the earth, or buried in the waves by ſome ſudden inundation. See EARTHQUAKE. Calabria is divided into ULTERIOR and CITERIOR.

1. CALABRIA CITERIOR, or CITRA, *i. e.* HITHER CALABRIA is one of the 12 provinces of Naples; and is bounded on the S. by Calabria Ulterior, on the N. by Baſilicata, and on the W. and E. by the ſea: Coſenza is the capital.

2. CALABRIA ULTERIOR, or ULTRA, *i. e.* FARTHER CALABRIA, is waſhed by the Mediterranean ſea on the E. S. and W. and bounded by Calabria Citra on the N. Reggio is the capital.

CALA-

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CALABRIANS, the people of CALABRIA.

CALABRINI, in botany. See LONCHITIS.

CALACINE, or CALLACHENE, in ancient geography, an extenſive diſtrict of Aſſyria, NE. of the Tigris, and S. of the Gordian mountains of Armenia.

CALADE, in the menage, the ſloping declivity of a manege ground, upon which we ride down a horſe ſeveral times, putting him to a ſhort gallop, with his fore hams in the air, to learn him to ply or bend his haunches, and form his ſtop upon the aids of the calves of the legs, the ſtay of the bridle, and the caveſon ſeaſonably given.

CALAE, CALAEM, or CALAEMUM, a ſpecies of Indian tin, which, by force of fire, is tranſmutable into ceruſs, like that made of our lead.

CALAGORINA, or CALAGURIS, called alſo NASICA, in ancient geography, a city of the Vaſcones in the Hither Spain; now named CALAHORRA.

CALAH, an ancient city of Aſſyria, built ſoon after the deluge by Aſhur; from which the adjacent country was named CALACINE.

CALAHORRA, an epiſcopal town of Spain, in Old Caſtile, ſeated on a fertile ſoil, on the ſide of a hill which extends to the banks of the river Ebro. It is 60 miles NW. of Saragoſſa. Lon. 2. 7. W. Lat. 42. 12. N.

CALAINUS. See CALLIMUS.

(1.) CALAIS, a ſtrong town of France, in the department of the Straits of Calais, (N° 4.) and ci-devant province of Lower Picardy, with a citadel and a fortified harbour. It is built in the form of a triangle, one ſide of which is towards the ſea. The citadel is as large as the town, and has but one entrance. It is a trading place, with handſome ſtreets and ſeveral churches. The number of inhabitants is reckoned 4000. Calais was taken by Edward III. in 1347. Hither he marched his victorious army from Creſcy, and inveſted the town on the 8th Sept. But finding that it could not be taken by force without the deſtruction of great multitudes of his men, he turned the ſiege into a blockade; and having made ſtrong entrenchments to ſecure his army from the enemy, huts to protect them from the inclemency of the weather, and ſtationed a fleet before the harbour to prevent the introduction of proviſions, he reſolved to wait with patience till the place fell into his hands by famine. The beſieged, diſcovering his intention, turned 1700 women, children, and old people, out of the town, to ſave their proviſions; and Edward had the goodneſs, after entertaining them with a dinner, and giving them two-pence a piece, to ſuffer them to paſs. The garriſon and inhabitants of Calais having at length conſumed all their proviſions, and even eaten all the horſes, dogs, cats, and vermin, in the place, the governor John de Vienne appeared upon the walls, and offered to capitulate. Edward, greatly incenſed at their obſtinate reſiſtance, which had detained him 11 months under their walls, at an immenſe expence both of men and money, ſent Sir Walter Mauny, an illuſtrious knight, to acquaint the governor, that he would grant them no terms; but that they muſt ſurrender at diſcretion. At length, however, at the ſpirited remonſtrances of the governor, and the perſuaſions of Sir Walter Mauny, Edward conſented to grant their lives to all the garriſon and inhabitants, except ſix of the principal burgeſſes, who ſhould deliver to him the keys of the city, with ropes about their necks. When theſe terms were made known to the people of Calais, they were plunged into the deepeſt diſtreſs; and after all the miſeries they had ſuffered, they could not think without horror of giving up ſix of their fellow citizens to certain death. In this extremity, when the whole people were drowned in tears, and uncertain what to do, Euſtace de St Pierre, one of the richeſt merchants in the place, ſtepped forth, and voluntarily offered himſelf to be one of the 6 devoted victims. His noble example was ſoon imitated by other five of the moſt wealthy citizens. Theſe true patriots, barefooted and bareheaded, with ropes about their necks, were attended to the gates by the whole inhabitants, with tears, bleſſings, and prayers, for their ſafety. When they were brought into Edward's preſence, they laid the keys of the city at his feet, and falling on their knees implored his mercy in ſuch moving ſtrains, that all the noble ſpectators melted into tears. The king's reſentment was ſo ſtrong for the many loſſes he had ſuffered in this tedious ſiege, that he was in danger of forgetting his uſual humanity; when the queen, falling upon her knees before him, earneſtly begged and obtained their lives. This excellent princeſs conducted theſe virtuous citizens to her own apartment, entertained them honourably, and diſmiſſed them with preſents. Edward took poſſeſſion of Calais Aug. 4th; and to ſecure a conqueſt of ſo great importance, he found it neceſſary to turn out all the ancient inhabitants, who had diſcovered ſo ſtrong an attachment to their native prince, and to people it with Engliſh ſubjects. Calais remained ſubject to England till the inglorious reign of queen Mary, when it was retaken by the duke of Guiſe. This general began to inveſt Calais, Jan. 1, 1557; and, by various judicious manœuvres, recovered in 8 days, a fortreſs which coſt the victorious Edward III. a whole year's ſiege, and which had been now 210 years in the poſſeſſion of the Engliſh, without ſo much as a ſingle attempt to retake it. There are very different accounts given of this matter: Some Engliſh hiſtorians ſay, that king Philip penetrating the deſign of the French upon this fortreſs, gave notice of it in England, and offered to take the defence of it upon himſelf; but that this, out of jealouſy, was refuſed, it being believed to be only an artifice, to get a place of ſuch conſequence into his own hands. The truth ſeems to be this: The ſtrength of Calais conſiſted in its ſituation and outworks, which required a very numerous garriſon; and this being attended with a very large expence, the beſt part of the troops had been ſent to join Philip's army, ſo that the governor had not above 500 men, and there were not more than 250 of the townſmen able to bear arms. As to ammunition, artillery, and proviſions, the French found abundance there, but with ſo ſlender a garriſon, that it was impoſſible to make a better defence; and therefore, when lord Wentworth, the governor, was tried by his peers for the loſs of the place, he

was

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was acquitted. The duke obliged all the Engliſh inhabitants to quit Calais; and beſtowed the government of it upon des Termes. It was bombarded in 1696 by the Engliſh, but with little effect. The fortifications of Calais are good; but its greateſt ſtrength is its ſituation among the marſhes, which may be overflowed at the approach of an enemy. The harbour is not ſo good as formerly, nor will it admit veſſels of any great burden. In times of peace, there are packet-boats going twice a week between Dover and Calais. It is 21 miles ESE. of Dover, and 152 N. of Paris. Lon. 1. 56. E. Lat. 50. 58. N.

(2.) CALAIS, in fabulous hiſtory, the twin brother of ZETHES. They were ſaid to have been the ſons of Boreas and Orythyia, and to have had wings. They went on the voyage to Colchis with the Argonauts, delivered Phineus from the harpies, and were ſlain by Hercules.

(3.) CALAIS, ST, a town of France, in the department of Sarte. Lon. 0. 43. E. Lat. 47. 53. N.

(4.) CALAIS, STRAITS OF, a department of France, bounded on the E. by the department of the North; on the S. by that of Somme; on the W. by the Britiſh Channel, and on the N. by the Straits of Dover. It is formed partly out of the ci-devant province of Artois, and partly from that of Picardy. Calais, (N° 1.) St Omers, Bethune, Heſdin, Arras, and Bapaume, are its chief towns.

(1) * CALAMANCO. *n. ſ.* [a word derived, probably by ſome accident, from *calamancus*, Lat. which, in the middle ages, ſignified a hat.] A kind of woollen ſtuff.—He was of a bulk and ſtature larger than ordinary, had a red coat, flung open to ſhew a *calamanco* waiſtcoat. *Tatler.*

(2.) CALAMANCO is manufactured in England and Brabant. It has a fine gloſs; and is checkered in the warp, whence the checks appear only on the right ſide. Some calamancoes are quite plain, others have broad ſtripes adorned with flowers, ſome with plain broad ſtripes, ſome with narrow ſtripes, and others watered.

CALAMARIÆ. See BOTANY, *Index.*

CALAMATA, or CALAMETA, a conſiderable town of European Turky, in the Morea, and province of Belvedera. It was taken by the Venetians in 1685; but the Turks retook it with all the Morea. It ſtands on the river Spinarza, 8 miles from the ſea. Lon. 22. 15. E. Lat. 37. 8. N.

CALAMBA, or } in commerce, a kind of wood
CALAMBAC, } brought from China, uſually ſold under the denomination of AGALLOCHUM, or ALOES WOOD.

CALAMIANES, 3 ſmall iſlands of Aſia, between Borneo and the Philippines; remarkable for the birds neſts gathered there for food. See BIRDS-NESTS, § 4.

CALAMIFEROUS, *adj.* a denomination given by ſome to CULMIFEROUS plants.

CALAMINARIS LAPIS. See CALAMINE, § 2.

(1.) * CALAMINE, or *Lapis Calaminaris. n. ſ.* A kind of foſſile bituminous earth, which, being mixed with copper, changes it into braſs.—We muſt not omit thoſe, which, though not ſo much beauty, yet are of greater uſe, *viz.* loadſtones, whetſtones of all kinds, limeſtones, *calamine*, or *lapis calaminaris. Locke.*

(2.) CALAMINE, CALAMY, LAPIS CALAMINARIS, or CADMIA FOSSILIS is a ſtone or mineral, containing zinc, iron, and ſometimes other ſubſtances. It is conſiderably heavy, and the more ſo the better; moderately hard and brittle; of a conſiſtence between ſtone and earth: the colour is ſometimes whitiſh or grey: ſometimes yellowiſh, or of a deep yellow; ſometimes red; ſometimes brown or blackiſh. It is plentiful in ſeveral places of Europe, as Hungary, Tranſylvania, Poland, Spain, Sweden, Bohemia, Saxony, Goſlar, France, and England, particularly in Derbyſhire, Glouceſterſhire, Nottinghamſhire, and Somerſetſhire; alſo in Wales. The calamine of England, however, is by the beſt judges allowed to be ſuperior in quality to that of moſt other countries. It ſeldom lies very deep, being chiefly found in clayey grounds near the ſurface. In ſome places it is mixed with lead ores. It is the only true ore of zinc, and is uſed as an ingredient in making braſs. Newmann relates various experiments with this mineral, the only reſult of which was to ſhow, that it contained iron as well as zinc. The moſt remarkable are the following. A ſaturated ſolution of calamine in the marine acid, concentrated by evaporating part of the liquor, exhibits in the cold an appearance of fine cryſtals, which on the application of warmth diſſolve and diſappear. A little of this concentrated ſolution tinges a large quantity of water of a bright yellow colour; and at the ſame time depoſits by degrees a fine, ſpongy, browniſh precipitate. Glue diſſolved in this ſolution, and afterwards inſpiſſated, forms an extremely ſlippery tenacious maſs, which does not become dry, and, were it not too expenſive, might be of uſe for entangling flies, catterpillars, &c. Sulphur boiled in the ſolution ſeems to acquire ſome degree of tranſparency. This mineral is an article in the materia medica; but, before it comes to the ſhops, is uſually calcined, in order to ſeparate any arſenical or ſulphureous matter which in its crude ſtate it is ſuppoſed to contain, and to render it more eaſily reducible into a fine powder. In this ſtate it is employed in collyria againſt defluxions of thin acrid humours upon the eyes, for drying up the moiſt running ulcers, and healing excoriations. It is the baſis of an officinal epulotic CERATE. Though the lapis calaminaris is the only native ore of zinc, there is another ſubſtance from which that ſemi-metal is alſo obtained; called CADMIA FORNACUM. See CADMIA, N° 1. § i. 1—5.

(3.) CALAMINE, or CALAMO, in geography, an iſland in the Archipelago, near the coaſt of Aſia.

(1.) * CALAMINT. *n. ſ.* [*calamintha*, Latin.] The name of a plant.

(2.) CALAMINT. See MELISSA.

(3.) CALAMINT, WATER. See MENTHA.

CALAMIST. *n. ſ.* One who plays on a reed.

CALAMISTRUM. See PILULARICA.

(1.) CALAMITA, or CALAMITIS, is uſed to denote the magnet or loadſtone.

(2.) CALAMITA ALBA, in natural hiſtory, the name of an earth dug in Spain and Italy, of a hard texture, a white colour, and ſlyptic taſte. They pretend that this attracts fleſh as the magnet does iron, and thence call it MAGNES CARNEUS.

(1.) CALAMITIS, in natural hiſtory, the name given

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given by ſome to the oſteocolla, which, when in ſmall pieces, ſometimes pretty exactly reſembles the barrel of a quill; others have called ſome of the foſſile coralloides by this name, there being frequently in them the reſemblance of ſeveral quills cemented together, in ſtone.

(2.) CALAMITIS. See CADMIA, N° I. § i, 2.

* CALAMITOUS. *adj.* [*calamitoſus*, Lat.] 1. Miſerable; involved in diſtreſs; oppreſſed with infelicity; unhappy; wretched: applied to men. —This is a gracious proviſion God Almighty hath made in favour of the neceſſitous and *calamitous*; the ſtate of ſome, in this life, being ſo extremely wretched and deplorable, if compared with others. *Calamy.* 2. Full of miſery; diſtreſsful: applied to external circumſtances.—What *calamitous* effects the air of this city wrought upon us the laſt year, you may read in my diſcourſe of the plague. *Harvey on Conſumption.*—

Strict neceſſity
Subdues me, and *calamitous* conſtraint!
Leſt on my head both ſin and puniſhment,
However inſupportable, be all
Devolv'd. *Milton.*

Much rather I ſhall chuſe
To live the pooreſt in my tribe, than richeſt,
And be in that *calamitous* priſon left. *Milton.*

—In this ſad and *calamitous* condition, deliverance from an oppreſſour would have even revived them. *South.*

* CALAMITOUSNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *calamitous*.] Miſery; diſtreſs.

CALAMITUS, in old records, a gag for a dog.

* CALAMITY. *n. ſ.* [*calamitas*, Lat.] 1. Misfortune; cauſe of miſery; diſtreſs.—Another ill accident is drought, and the ſpindling of the corn, which with us is rare, but in hotter countries common; inſomuch as the word *calamity* was firſt derived from *calamus*, when the corn would not get out of the ſtalk. *Bacon.* 2. Miſery; diſtreſs.—

This infinite *calamity* ſhall cauſe
To human life, and houſhold peace confound. *Milton.*

From adverſe ſhores in ſafety let her hear
Foreign *calamity*, and diſtant war;
Of which, great heav'n, let her no portion bear. *Prior.*

CALAMO. See CALAMINE, N° 3.

(1.) * CALAMUS. *n. ſ.* [Lat.] A ſort of reed or ſweet-ſcented wood, mentioned in ſcripture with the other ingredients of the ſacred perfumes. It is a knotty root, reddiſh without, and white within, which puts forth long and narrow leaves, and brought from the Indies. The prophets ſpeak of it as a foreign commodity of great value. Theſe ſweet reeds have no ſmell when they are green, but when they are dry only. Their form differs not from other reeds, and their ſmell is perceived upon entering the marſhes. *Calmet.*—Take thou alſo unto thee principal ſpices of pure myrrh, of ſweet cinnamon, and of ſweet *calamus*. *Exodus*, xxx. 23.

(2.) CALAMUS, in botany, a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the hexandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 5th order, Tripetaloideæ. The calyx is hexaphyllous, there is no corolla, the fruit is a dry monoſpermous berry, imbricated backwards. There is but one ſpecies, viz.

CALAMUS ROTANG. The ſtem is without branches, has a crown at top, and is every where beſet with ſtraight ſpines. This is the true Indian cane, which is not viſible on the outſide; but the bark being taken off diſcovers the ſmooth ſtick, which has no marks of ſpine on the bark, and is exactly like thoſe which the Dutch ſell to us; keeping this matter very ſecret, leſt travellers going by ſhould take as many canes out of the woods as they pleaſe. Sumatra is ſaid to be the place where moſt of theſe ſticks grow. Such are to be choſen as are of proper growth between two joints, ſuitable to the faſhionable length of canes as they are then worn; but ſuch are ſcarce. The calamus rotang is one of ſeveral plants from which the drug called DRAGON'S BLOOD is obtained.

(3.) CALAMUS, in the ancient poets, denotes a ſimple kind of pipe, the muſical inſtrument of the ſhepherds, uſually made either of an oaten ſtalk or a reed.

(4.) CALAMUS, AROMATICUS, or SWEET-SCENTED FLAG, in the materia medica, a ſpecies of flag called *acorus* by Linnæus. See N° 1. and ACORUS.

(5.) CALAMUS SCRIPTORIUS, in antiquity, a reed or ruſh to write with. The ancients made uſe of ſtyles to write on tables covered with wax; and of reed, or ruſh, to write on parchment, or Egyptian paper.

(1.) CALAMY, Edmund, an eminent preſbyterian divine, born at London in 1600, and educated at Cambridge, where his attachment to the Arminian party excluded him from a fellowſhip. Dr Felton biſhop of Ely, however, made him his chaplain; and, in 1639, he was choſen miniſter of St Mary Aldermary, in London. Upon the opening of the long parliament, he diſtinguiſhed himſelf in defence of the Preſbyterian cauſe; and had a principal hand in writing the famous *Smectymnus*, which he ſays, gave the firſt deadly blow to epiſcopacy. The authors of this tract were 5, the initials of thoſe names formed the name under which it was publiſhed, viz. Stephen Marſhal, Edmund Calamy, Thomas Young, Matthew Newcomen, and William Sparſtow. He was afterwards an active member in the aſſembly of divines, was a ſtrenuous oppoſer of ſectaries, and uſed his utmoſt endeavours to prevent thoſe violences committed after the king was brought from the iſle of Wight. In Cromwell's time, he lived privately, but was aſſiduous in promoting the king's return; for which he was afterwards offered a biſhopric, but refuſed it. He was ejected for nonconformity in 1662; and died of grief at the ſight of the great fire of London, in 1666.

(2, 3.) CALAMY, Edmund, grandſon of the preceding, by his eldeſt ſon Mr Edmund Calamy, who was ejected out of the living of Moxton in Eſſex on St Bartholomew's day 1662. He was born in London, April 5th 1671. After having learned the languages, and gone through a courſe of natural philoſophy and logic, at a private academy in England, he ſtudied philoſophy and civil law, at the univerſity of Utrecht, and attended the lectures of the learned Grævius. While he reſided there, an offer of a profeſſor's chair in the univerſity

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university of Edinburgh was made him by principal Carstairs, sent over on purpose to find a person properly qualified for the office. This he declined, and returned to England in 1691, bringing with him letters from Grævius to professors Pocock and Bernard, who obtained leave for him to prosecute his studies in the Bodleian library. He entered into an examination of the controversy between the conformists and the nonconformists; which determined him to join the latter; and coming to London in 1692, he was unanimously chosen assistant to Mr Matthew Sylvester, at Blackfriars; and in 1674, ordained at Mr Annesly's meeting house. In 1702, he was chosen one of the lecturers in Salter's-hall; and in 1703, succeeded Mr Vincent Alsop in Westminster. He drew up the table of contents to Mr Baxter's history of his life and times, which was sent to the press in 1696; made some remarks on the work itself, and added to it an index; and, reflecting on the usefulness of the book, he saw the expediency of continuing it, as it came no lower than 1684. Accordingly he composed an abridgement of it, with an account of many other ministers who were ejected after the restoration; their apology, containing the grounds of their nonconformity; and a continuation of their history till 1691. This work was published in 1702. He afterwards published a moderate defence of nonconformity, in tracts, in answer to Dr Hoadley. In 1709, he made a tour to Scotland; and had the degree of D. D. conferred on him by the universities of Edinburgh, Aberdeen, and Glasgow. In 1713, he published a second edition of his Abridgement of Baxter's history, in which, among other additions, there is a continuation of the history through king William's reign, and queen Anne's down to the passing of the occasional bill; and in the close is subjoined the reformed liturgy, which was drawn up and presented to the bishops in 1661, "that the world may judge, (he says) how fairly the ejected ministers have been often represented as irreconcileable enemies to all liturgies." In 1718, he wrote a vindication of his grandfather and others, against certain reflections cast upon them by Mr Echard in his History of England; and in 1728, appeared the Continuation of the account of the ministers, lecturers, masters, and fellows of colleges, and schoolmasters, who were ejected, after the restoration. He died June 3d 1732, greatly regretted both by the dissenters, and members of the established church, with many of whom he lived in great intimacy. Besides the pieces already mentioned, he published many sermons. He was twice married, and had 13 children.

(4.) CALAMY. See CALAMINE, § 2.

CALANDRE, a name given by the French writers to an insect that does vast mischief in granaries. It is properly of the scarab or beetle class; it has two antennæ formed of many round joints, and covered with a soft and short down; from the anterior part of the head there is thrust out a trunk, which is so formed at the end, that the creature easily makes way with it through the coat or skin that covers the grain, and gets at the meal or farina on which it feeds; the inside of the grains is also the place where the female deposites her eggs, that the young progeny may be born with provision about them. When the female has pierced a grain of corn for this purpose, she deposites in it one egg, or at the utmost two, but she most frequently lays them single; these eggs hatch into small worms, which are usually found with their bodies rolled up in a spiral form, and after eating till they arrive at their full growth, they are changed into chrysales, and from these in about a fortnight comes out the perfect calandre. The female lays a considerable number of eggs; and the increase of these creatures would be very great; but while in the egg state, and even while in that of the worm, they are subject to be eaten by mites; these little vermin are always very plentiful in granaries, and they destroy the far greater number of the larger animals.

CALANGAY. See ABACAY.

CALANGIUM, in old records, a challenge.

CALAO. See BUCEROS, N° 1.

CALARY, a town of Ireland, in Wicklow.

CALAS, John, a most unfortunate Protestant merchant at Thoulouse, inhumanly butchered under form of law, cruelly prostituted to gratify the sanguinary impulse of ignorant Popish zeal. He had lived 40 years at Thoulouse. His wife was an English woman of French extraction: they had 5 sons; one of whom, Lewis, had turned Catholic, through the persuasions of a Catholic maid who had lived 30 years in the family. In October 1761, the family consisted of Calas, his wife, Mark Anthony their son, Peter their 2d son, and this maid. Anthony was educated for the bar; but being of a melancholy turn, was continually dweiling on passages from authors on the subject of suicide, and one night in that month hanged himself on a bar laid across two folding doors in their shop. The crowd collected by the confusion of the family on so shocking a discovery, took it into their heads, that he had been strangled by the family to prevent his changing his religion, and that this was a common practice among protestants. The officers of justice adopted the popular tale, and were supplied by the mob with what they accepted as evidences of the fact. The fraternity of white penitents got the body, buried it with great ceremony, and performed a solemn service for him as a martyr; the Franciscans did the same: and after these formalities no one doubted the guilt of the devoted heretical family. They were all condemned to the torture, to bring them to confession: they appealed to the parliament; who, as weak and as wicked as the subordinate magistrates, sentenced the father to the torture ordinary and extraordinary, to be broken alive upon the wheel, and then to be burned to ashes. A diabolical decree! which, to the disgrace of humanity, was actually carried into execution. Peter Calas, the other son was banished for life; and the rest were acquitted. The distracted widow found some friends, and among the rest M. Voltaire, who laid her case before the council of state at Versailles, and the parliament of Thoulouse were ordered to transmit the proceedings. These the king and council unanimously agreed to annul; the capitoul, or chief magistrate of Thoulouse, was degraded and fined; old Calas was declared to have been innocent; and every imputation of guilt

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guilt was removed from the family, who alſo received from the king and clergy conſiderable gratuities.

(1.) * CALASH. *n. ſ.* [*caleche*, Fr.] A ſmall carriage of pleaſure.—

Daniel, a ſprightly ſwain, that us'd to flaſh
The vig'rous ſteeds, that drew his lord's *calaſh*.
King.

—The ancients uſed *calyſhes*, the figures of ſeveral of them being to be ſeen on ancient monuments. They are very ſimple, light, and drove by the traveller himſelf. *Arbuthnot on Coins.*

(2.) CALASH, or CALESH, is made with very low wheels, and is for the moſt part richly decorated, and open on all ſides for the conveniency of the air and proſpect, or at moſt incloſed with light mantles of wax cloth to be opened and ſhut at pleaſure. In the Philoſophical Tranſactions there is a deſcription of a new ſort of calaſh going on two wheels, not hung on traces, yet eaſier than the common coaches, over which it has this further advantage, that whereas a common coach will overturn if one wheel go on a ſurface a foot and an half higher than the other, this will admit of a difference of 3½ feet without danger of overturning. It alſo turns over and over; that is, after the ſpokes being ſo turned, that they are parallel to the horizon, and one wheel flat over the head of him that rides in it, and the other flat under him, it will turn once more, by which the wheels are placed *in ſtatu quo*, without any diſorder to the horſe or rider.

CALASIO, Marius, a Franciſcan, and profeſſor of Hebrew at Rome. He publiſhed there, in 1621, a concordance of the Bible, which conſiſted of 4 great volumes in folio. This work has been highly approved and commended both by Proteſtants and Papiſts, and is indeed a moſt admirable work. For beſides the Hebrew words in the Bible, which are in the body of the book, with the Latin verſion over againſt them; there are, in the margin, the differences between the ſeptuagint verſion and the vulgate; ſo that at one view may be ſeen wherein the 3 Bibles agree, and wherein they differ. Moreover, at the beginning of every article there is a kind of dictionary, which gives the ſignification of each Hebrew word; affords an opportunity of comparing it with other oriental languages, viz. with the Syriac, Arabic, and Chaldee; and is extremely uſeful for determining more exactly the true meaning of the Hebrew words.

CALASIRIS, or CALASSIS, } in antiquity, a linen tunic fringed at the bottom, and worn by the Egyptians under a white woollen garment: which laſt they pulled off when they entered the temples being only allowed to appear there in linen.

CALATA-I'IMI, a town of Sicily in the valley of Mazara.

CALATA-GIRONA, a town of Sicily ſeated on a craggy mountain, in the valley of Noto, near the river Drillo.

CALATAJUD, or CALATAJUND, } a large and handſome town of Spain, in the kingdom of Arragon; ſituated at the confluence of the river Xalon and Xiloca, at the end of a very fertile valley, with a good caſtle on a rock. Lon. 2. 9. W. Lat. 41. 22. N.

CALATA-NICETTA, a town of Sicily, in the valley of Noto, ſeated on a mountain, near the river Salſo.

CALATA-XIBETO, a town of Sicily, in Noto, ſeated among the mountains, near the ſource of the river Ditana.

(1.) CALATHUS, in antiquity, a kind of hand baſket made of light wood or ruſhes; uſed by the women ſometimes to gather flowers, but chiefly, after the example of Minerva, to put their work in. The figure of the calathus, as repreſented on ancient monuments, is narrow at the bottom, and widening upwards like that of a top. Pliny compares it to that of a lily. The Calathus or work baſket of Minerva is no leſs celebrated among the poets than her diſtaff.

(2.) CALATHUS was alſo the name of a cup for wine uſed in ſacrifices.

CALATIA. See CAJAZZO.

CALATOR, [from καλεω, to call,] in antiquity, a cryer, appointed to publiſh any thing aloud, or call the people together. Such miniſters the pontifices had, whom they uſed to ſend before them, when they went to ſacrifice on holidays, to advertiſe the people to leave off work. The magiſtrates alſo uſed *calatores*, to call the people to the comitia, *curiata centuriata*. The officers in the army alſo had *calatores*; as had alſo many private families, to invite their gueſts to entertainments.

(1.) CALATRAVA, a city of Spain in New Caſtile, ſituated on the river Guadiana, 45 miles S. of Toledo. Lon. 4, 20. W. Lat. 39. 0. N.

(2.) CALATRAVA, KNIGHTS OF, a military order in Spain inſtituted under Sancho III. king of Caſtile, upon the following occaſion. When that prince took the ſtrong fort of Calatrava from the moors of Andaluſia, he gave it to the templars, who, wanting courage to defend it, returned it him again. Then Don Reymond, of the order of Ciſtercians, accompanied with ſeveral perſons of quality, made an offer to defend the place, which the king thereupon delivered up to them and inſtituted that order. It increaſed ſo much under the reign of Alphonſus, that the knights deſired to have a grand maſter, which was granted. Ferdinand and Iſabella afterwards, with the conſent of pope Innocent VIII. re-united the grand-maſterſhip of Calatrava to the Spaniſh crown; ſo that the kings of Spain are now become perpetual adminiſtrators thereof. The knights of Calatrava bear a croſs gules, flowerdeliſed with green, &c. Their rule and habit was originally that of the Ciſtercians.

CALATUM, the ancient name of TADCASTER.

CALAUREA, an epithet of Diana,

CALAURIA, in ancient geography, an iſland of Greece in the Saronic bay, over againſt the port of Troezen, at the diſtance of 40 ſtadia. Hither Demoſthenes went twice into baniſhment; and here he died. Neptune was ſaid to have accepted this iſland from Apollo in exchange for Delos. The city ſtood on a high ridge nearly in the middle of the iſland commanding an extenſive view of the gulph and its coaſts. There was

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his holy temple. The prieſteſs was a virgin, who was diſmiſſed when marriageable. Seven of the cities near the iſland held a congreſs at it, and ſacrificed jointly to the deity. Athens, Ægina, and Epidarus were of this number, with Nauplia, for which place Argos contributed. The Macedonians, when they had reduced Greece, were afraid to violate the ſanctuary, by forcing from it the fugitives, his ſuppliants. Antipater commanded his general to bring away the orators, who had offended him, alive; but Demoſthenes could not be prevailed on to ſurrender. His monument remained in the 2d century, within the incloſure of the temple. The city of Calauria has been long abandoned. Traces of buildings, and of ancient walls, appear nearly level with the ground; and ſome ſtones, in their places, each with a ſeat and back, forming a little circle, once perhaps a bath. The temple, which was of the Doric order, and not large, as may be inferred from the fragments, is reduced to an inconſiderble heap of ruins. The iſland is now called PORO.

CALAURITIS, in the ancient materia medica, a ſort of litharge, brought from Calauria.

CALBARI, or } the name of, 1. a river; 2. a
CALBARY, } territory; and 3. a village of Africa, in the kingdom of Benin.

CALBEN, a town of Germany, in the old march of Brandenburg, between Domitz and Magdeburg, 32 miles from each. It has a good caſtle.

CALBENDRA, a town in Cornwall, near Tregony.

CALCADA, or SANTO DOMINGO DE LA CALCADA, a town of Spain in old Caſtile, ſeated at the foot of a mountain, near Laglera, in a fruitful valley, 48 miles E. of Burgos. Lon. 3. 12. W. Lat. 42. 36. N.

CALCADIS, in the materia medica, a name given by the Arabians to white vitriol.

CALCAGIUM, in middle age writers, a tax paid towards making or repairing a common cauſeway.

CALCANEUM, } or CALCAR, the OS CAL-
CALCANEUS, } CIS, or heel bone. See ANATOMY, § 160.

CALCANTHUM, red vitriol. See VITRIOL.

(1.) CALCAR, a very ſtrong town of Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia, and duchy of Cleves. It belongs to the king of Pruſſia, and is ſeated near the Rhine. Lon. 5. 41. E. Lat. 51. 45. N.

(2.) CALCAR, in anatomy. See CALCANEUM.

(3.) CALCAR, in glaſs-making, a ſmall oven, or reverberatory furnace, in which the firſt calcination of ſand and ſalt of potaſhes is made for the turning them into what is called FRIT. This furnace is made in the faſhion of an oven 10 feet long, 7 broad in the wideſt part, and 2 deep. On one ſide of it is a trench ſix inches ſquare, the upper part of which is level with the calcar, and ſeparated only from it at the mouth by bricks 9 inches wide. Into this trench they put ſea coal, the flame of which is carried into every part of the furnace, and is reverberated from the roof upon the frit, over the ſurface of which the ſmoke flies very black, and goes out at the mouth of the calcar; the coals burn on iron grates, and the aſhes fall through.

(4.) CALCAR, John DE, a celebrated painter, was the diſciple of Titian, and perfected himſelf by ſtudying Raphael. Among other pieces he drew a nativity, repreſenting the angels around the infant Jeſus; and ſo ordered the diſpoſition of his picture, that the light all proceeds from the child. He died at Naples, in 1546, in the flower of his age. He deſigned the anatomical figures of Veſal, and the portraits of the painters of Veſari.

CALCAREOUS, *adj.* partaking of the nature and qualities of CALX or lime.

CALCAREOUS LAPIS, lime-ſtone. See CALX.

CALCEA, in old records, a road made with ſtones.

CALCEARIUM, in antiquity, a largeſs beſtowed on Roman ſoldiers for buying ſhoes. In monaſteries, *calcearium* denoted the daily ſervice of cleaning the ſhoes of the religious.

CALCEATA, in old records, a cauſeway.

* CALCEATED. *adj.* [*calceatus*, Lat.] Shod; fitted with ſhoes.

CALCEDEN, a town in Warwickſhire, near Coventry.

CALCEDON. See CHALCEDON.

CALCEDONIANS, a denomination given by Coptic writers to the MELCHITES, on account of their adherence to the council of Calcedon. See COPHTI, MONOPHYSITES, &c.

(1.) * CALCEDONIUS. *n. ſ.* [Lat.] A kind of precious ſtone.—*Calcedonius* is of the agate kind, and of a miſty grey, clouded with blue, or with purple. *Woodward on Foſſils.*

(2.) CALCEDONIUS LAPIS. See CHALCEDONY.

(3.) CALCEDONIUS or CALCEDON, is alſo a term uſed by the jewellers for a defect in ſome precious ſtones; when, in turning them, they find white ſpots, or ſtains, like thoſe of the calcedony. This defect is frequent in granates and rubies. The lapidaries uſually remedy it by hollowing the bottom of the ſtone.

CALCEDONY. See CHALCEDONY.

CALCENA, a term uſed by ſome medical writers for a morbid tartareous humour in the body.

CALCEOLUS, in botany, the name given by Tournefort to the lady's ſlipper. See CYPRIPEDIUM.

CALCEOLARIA, in botany; a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the diandria claſs of plants. The corolla is ringent and inflated; the capſule has two cells and two valves; the calyx is four-parted and equal.

CALCETUM, in old records, a cauſeway.

CALCHACCA, a name given by ſome botaniſts to the CASSIA LIGNEA. See LAURUS.

CALCHAS, in fabulous hiſtory, a famous diviner, who followed the Greek army to Troy. He foretold that the ſiege would laſt ten years; and that the fleet, which was detained in the port of Aulis by contrary winds, would not ſail till Agamemnon's daughter had been ſacrificed to Diana. After the taking of Troy, he retired to Colophon; where, it is ſaid, he died of grief, becauſe he could not divine what another of his profeſſion, called MOPSUS, had diſcovered.

CALCHOCRUM, in botany, a name by which ſome authors call the FUMARIA or FUMITORY.

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CALCHOPHONOS LAPIS, among the ancients, a name given to a ſtone of a black colour, and conſiderable hardneſs, which, when cut into thin plates, and ſtruck againſt by any other hard body, gave a ſound like that of braſs: it ſeems to have been one of the hard black marbles.

CALCIFRAGA, in botany, a name given by authors to ſamphire, and ſea fennel. See CRITHMUM.

CALCIFRAGUS, *i. e. ſtone-breaking*, an appellation given by ſome to the SCOLOPENDRIUM, by others to pimpernel, on account of their lithontriptic quality. See ANAGALLIS.

* *To* CALCINATE. See *To* CALCINE. In hardening, by baking without melting, the heat hath theſe degrees; firſt, it indurateth, then maketh fragile, and, laſtly it doth *calcinate*. *Bacon's Natural Hiſtory*.

(1.) * CALCINATION. *n. ſ.* [from *calcine*; *calcination*, Fr.] Such a management of bodies by fire, as renders them reducible to powder; wherefore it is called chymical pulverization. This is the next degree of the power of fire beyond that of fuſion; for when fuſion is longer continued, not only the more ſubtile particles of the body itſelf fly off, but the particles of fire likewiſe inſinuate themſelves in ſuch multitudes, and are ſo blended through its whole ſubſtance, that the fluidity, firſt cauſed by the fire, can no longer ſubſiſt. From this union ariſes a third kind of body, which, being very porous and brittle, is eaſily reduced to powder; for, the fire having penetrated every where into the pores of the body, the particles are both hindered from mutual contact, and divided into minute atoms. *Quincy*.—Divers reſidences of bodies are thrown away, as ſoon as the diſtillation or *calcination* of the body that yieldeth them is ended. *Boyle*.—This may be affected but not without a *calcination*, or reducing it by art into a ſubtile powder. *Brown's Vulgar Errours*.

(2.) CALCINATION. See CHEMISTRY, *Index*.

CALCINATO, a town of Italy, in Mantua, memorable for a victory gained over the Imperialiſts by the French in 1706. Lon. 9. 55. E. Lat. 45. 25. N.

* CALCINATORY. *n. ſ.* [from *calcinate*.] A veſſel uſed in calcination.

(1.) * *To* CALCINE. *v. a.* [*calciner*, Fr. from *calx*, Lat.] 1. To burn in the fire to a calx, or friable ſubſtance. See CALCINATION.—The ſolid bodies ſeem to be earth, bound together with ſome oil; for if a bone be *calcined*, ſo as the leaſt force will crumble it, being emerſed in oil, it will grow firm again. *Arbuthnot on Aliments*. 2. To burn up.—

Fiery diſputes that union have *calcin'd*,
Almoſt as many minds as men we find. *Denham*.

(2.) * *To* CALCINE. *v. n.* To become a calx by heat.—This chryſtal is a pellucid fiſſile ſtone, clear as water, and without colour, enduring a red heat without loſing its tranſparency, and, in a very ſtrong heat, *calcining* without fuſion. *Newton's Opticks*.

CALCIS os. See ANATOMY, § 160.

CALCITRAPA, and } in botany, ſynonimes
CALCITRAPOIDES, } of the CENTAUREA.

CALCOGRAPHIST. *n. ſ.* an engraver on braſs.

CALCOGRAPHY. *n. ſ.* [from χαλκος, braſs, and γραφω, to write,] the art of writing on braſs.

CALCUA. See ATREBATES, N° 2.

CALCULARII, in antiquity, a ſort of jugglers who practiſed ſlight of hand. Their art conſiſted in laying ſeveral calculi, or counters on the table, then covering them with cups, and ſhifting and changing them with dexterity, like what is practiſed by our jugglers.

CALCULARY, a congeries of little ſtrong knots diſperſed through the whole parenchyma, of a pear. The calculary is moſt obſerved in rough-taſted or choak-pears. The knots lie more contiguous and compact together towards the pear, where they ſurround the ACETARY. About the ſtalks they ſtand more diſtant; but towards the cork or ſtool of the flower they ſtill grew cloſer, and there at laſt gather into the firmneſs, of a plumb ſtone. The calculary is no eſſential part, but rather a diſeaſe of the fruit; the ſeveral knots whereof it conſiſts being only ſo many concretions or precipitations out of the ſap, as we ſee in urines, wines, and other liquors.

(1.) * *To* CALCULATE. *v. a.* [*calculer*, Fr. from *calculus*, Lat. a little ſtone or bead, uſed in operations of numbers.] 1. To compute; to reckon: as, he *calculates* his expences. 2. To compute the ſituation of the planets at any certain time.—

A cunning man did *calculate* my birth,
And told me that by water I ſhould die.
Shakeſ. Hen. VI.

Why all theſe fires, why all theſe gilding ghoſts,
Why old men fools, and children *calculate*,
Why all thoſe things change from their ordinance? *Shakeſ.*

—Who were there then in the world, to obſerve the births of thoſe firſt men, and *calculate* their nativities, as they ſprawled out of ditches? *Bentley*. 3. To adjuſt; to project for any certain end.—The reaſonableneſs of religion clearly appears, as it tends ſo directly to the happineſs of men, and is, upon all accounts *calculated* for our benefit. *Tillotſon*.

(2.) * *To* CALCULATE. *v. n.* To make a computation.

(1.) * CALCULATION. *n. ſ.* [from *calculate*.] 1. A practice, or manner of reckoning; the art of numbering.—Cypher, that great friend to *calculation*; or rather which changeth *calculation* into eaſy computation. *Holder on Time*. 2. A reckoning; the reſult of arithmetical operation.—If then their *calculation* be true, for ſo they reckon. *Hooker*.—Being different from *calculations* of the ancients, their obſervations confirm not ours. *Brown's Vulgar Errours*.

(2.) CALCULATION, (§ 1. *def.* 1.) See ARITHMETIC.

(3.) CALCULATION is particularly uſed for the computations in aſtronomy and geometry, for making tables of logarithms, ephemerides, finding the time of eclipſes, &c. See ASTRONOMY, GEOMETRY, and LOGARITHMS.

(1.) * CALCULATOR. *n. ſ.* [from *calculate*.] A computer; a reckoner.

(2.) CALCULATOR is alſo a name given to Mr Ferguſon's Orrery. See ASTRONOMY, *Index*.

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CALCULATORES. See CALCULUS, § 2.

* CALCULATORY. *adj.* [from *calculate.*] Belonging to calculation.

* CALCULE. *n. f.* [*calculus*, Lat.] Reckoning; compute: obſolete.—The general *calcule*, which was made in the laſt perambulation, exceeding eight millions. *Howel's Vocal Foreſt.*

CALCULONES, computiſts. See CALCULUS, § 2.

* CALCULOSE. } *adj.* [from *calculus*, Latin.]
* CALCULOUS. } Stony; gritty.—The volatile ſalt of urine will coagulate ſpirits of wine; and thus, perhaps, the ſtones, or *calculoſe* concretions in the kidney or bladder, may be produced. *Brown's Vulgar Errours.*—I have found, by opening the kidneys of a *calculous* perſon, that the ſtone is formed earlier than I have ſuggeſted. *Sharp.*

(1.) * CALCULUS. *n. f.* [Lat.] The ſtone in the bladder.

(2.) CALCULUS, in antiquity, [*i. e.* a little ſtone or pebble,] was uſed in making computations, taking ſuffrages, playing at tables, and the like. In after times, pieces of ivory, and counters ſtruck of ſilver, gold, &c. were uſed in lieu thereof, but ſtill retaining the ancient names. Computiſts were by the lawyers called CALCULONES, when they were either ſlaves or newly freed men; thoſe of a better condition were named CALCULATORES or NUMERARII: ordinarily there was one of theſe in each family of diſtinction. The Roman judges anciently gave their opinions by calculi, which were white for abſolution, and black for condemnation. Hence CALCULUS ALBUS, in ancient writers, denotes a favourable vote, either in a perſon to be abſolved and acquitted of a charge, or elected to ſome dignity or poſt; as CALCULUS NIGER did contrary. This uſage is ſaid to have been borrowed from the Thracians, who marked their happy or proſperous days by *white*, and their unhappy by *black*, pebbles, put each night into an urn. Beſides the diverſity of colour, there were ſome calculi alſo which had characters engraven on them, as thoſe which were in uſe in taking the ſuffrages in the ſenate and at aſſemblies of the people. Theſe calculi were made of thin wood, poliſhed and covered over with wax. Their form is ſtill ſeen in ſome medals of the Caſſian family; and the manner of caſting them into the urns, in the medals of the Licinian family. The letters marked upon theſe calculi were A, V.R—C, or N.L. See A, § 1. Calculus is alſo uſed in ancient grammatic writers for a kind of weight equal to two grains of cicer. Some make it equivalent to the ſiliqua, which is equal to 3 grains of barley. Two calculi made the CERATIUM.

(3.) CALCULUS, in medicine, implies a ſtone either in the kidneys or bladder: calculus in the bladder (§ 1.) is called LITHIASIS; and in the kidneys, NEPHRITIS. See MEDICINE and SURGERY. Human calculi are commonly formed of different ſtrata or incruſtations; ſometimes ſmooth and heavy like mineral ſtones; but oftener rough, ſpongy, light, and full of inequalities or protuberances: chemically analyſed, or diſtilled in an open fire, they nearly yield the ſame principles as urine itſelf, or at leaſt an empyreumatic volatile urinous matter, together with a great deal of air. They never have naturally, any foreign matter for a baſis, but they may by accident; an inſtance of which is related by Dr Percival. A bougie had unfortunately ſlipped into the bladder, and upon it a ſtone of a conſiderable ſize was formed in leſs than a year. This ſtone had ſo much the appearance of chalk, that the Doctor was induced to try whether it could be converted into quicklime. His experiment ſucceeded, both with that and ſome other calculi; from which he conjectures, that hard waters which contain calcareous earth may contribute towards the formation of theſe calculi. Dr Beddoes, in his *Obſerv. on the Nature and cure of Calculus*, &c. (p. 9, 10.) recommends the following formula as "extremely beneficial in calculous complaints;" and adds "that it may, without injury be taken in very large quantities, and continued for a great length of time.—Take natron or ſal ſodæ in cryſtals; pound it coarſely, and expoſe it to a warm dry air, till it entirely crumbles into a white powder: make this powder into pills with a quantity of ſoap, rather more than equal to the weight of the calcined alkali."

(4.) CALCULUS ALBUS. See § 2.

(5.) CALCULUS DIFFERENTIALIS is a method of differencing quantities, or of finding an infinitely ſmall quantity, which being taken infinite times, ſhall be equal to a given quantity; or, it is the arithmetic of the infinitely ſmall differences of variable quantities.—The foundation of this calculus is an infinitely ſmall quantity, or an infinitefimal, which is a portion of a quantity incomparable to that quantity, or that is leſs than any aſſignable one, and therefore accounted as nothing; the error accruing by omitting it being leſs than any aſſignable one. Hence two quantities, only differing by an infinitefimal, are reputed equal. Thus, in aſtronomy, the diameter of the earth is an infinitefimal, in reſpect of the diſtance of the fixed ſtars; and the ſame holds in abſtract quantities. The term, infinitefimal, therefore, is merely relative, and involves a relation to another quantity; and does not denote any real *ens*, or being. Now infinitefimals are called *differentials*, or *differential quantities*, when they are conſidered as the differences of two quantities. Sir Iſaac Newton calls them *moments*; conſidering them as the momentary increments of quantities, e. g. of a line generated by the flux of a point, or of a ſurface by the flux of a line. The differential calculus, therefore, and the doctrine of fluxions, are the ſame thing under different names; the former given by M. Leibnitz, and the latter by Sir Iſaac Newton: each of whom lay claim to the diſcovery. There is, indeed, a difference in the manner of expreſſing the quantities reſulting from the different views wherein the two authors conſider the infinitefimals; the one as moments, the other as differences: Leibnitz, and moſt foreigners, expreſs the differentials of quantities by the ſame letters as variable ones, only prefixing the letter *d*: thus the differential of x is called dx; and that of y, dy: now dx is a poſitive quantity, if x continually increaſe; negative, if it decreaſe. The Engliſh, with Sir Iſaac Newton, inſtead of dx write $\dot{x}$ (with a dot over it;) for dy, $\dot{y}$, &c. which foreigners object againſt, on account of that confuſion of points which they imagine

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imagine arises when differentials are again differenced; besides that the printers are more apt to overlook a point than a letter. The rules for differencing quantities are the very same as those for finding their fluxions. See FLUXIONS.

(6.) CALCULUS EXPONENTIALIS is a method of differencing exponential quantities, or of finding and summing up the differentials or moments of exponential quantities; or at least bringing them to geometrical constructions.—By exponential quantity, is here understood a power, whose exponent is variable; e. g. x^x. a^x. x^y. where the exponent x does not denote the same in all the points of a curve, but in some stands for 2, in others for 3, in others for 5, &c.—To difference an exponential quantity; is the same problem as to find its fluxion. See FLUXIONS.

(7.) CALCULUS INTEGRALIS, or SUMMATORIUS, is a method of integrating, or summing up moments, or differential quantities; i. e. from a differential quantity given, to find the quantity from whose differencing the differential results.—The integral calculus, therefore, is the inverse of the differential one: and is similar to the *inverse method of fluxions*, the rules of which also apply to the *calculus integralis*. See FLUXIONS.

(8.) CALCULUS LITERALIS, or LITERAL CALCULUS, is the same with specious arithmetic, or ALGEBRA, so called from its using the letters of the alphabet; in contradistinction to numeral arithmetic, which uses figures. See ALGEBRA.

(9.) CALCULUS MINERVÆ, among the ancient lawyers, denoted the decision of a cause, wherein the judges were equally divided. The expression is taken from the history of Orestes, represented by Æschylus and Euripides; at whose trial, before the Areopagites, for the murder of his mother, the votes being equally divided for and against him, Minerva interposed, and gave the casting calculus or vote in his behalf. M. Cramer, professor at Marpurg, has a discourse *De Calculo Minervæ*; wherein he maintains, that all the effect an entire equality of voices can have, is to leave the cause *in statu quo*.

(10.) CALCULUS NIGER. See § 2.

(11.) CALCULUS SUMMATORIUS. See § 7.

(12.) CALCULUS TIBURTINUS, a sort of figured stone, found in great plenty about the cataracts of the Anio, and other rivers in Italy; of a white colour, and in shape oblong, round, or echinated. There are a species of the *striæ lapideæ*, and so like sugar plums, that it is a common jest at Rome to deceive the unexperienced by serving them up at deserts.

(1.) CALCUTTA, the capital of Bengal, and the seat of the governor general of the British dominions in the East Indies; is situated on the river Hoogly, the W. arm of the Ganges, about 100 m. from the sea. It is a modern city, built on the site of a village called GOVINDPOUR. The English first obtained the Mogul's permission to settle in this place in 1690; and Mr Job Channock, the company's agent, chose the spot on which the city stands, on account of a large shady grove; though in other respects it was the worst he could have pitched upon; for 3 miles to the N. coast, there is a salt-water lake, which overflows in September, and when the flood retires in December, leaves behind such a quantity of fish and other putrescent matter, as renders the air very unhealthy. The custom the Gentoos have, of throwing the dead bodies of their poor people into the river, is also very disgustful, and undoubtedly adds to the unhealthiness of the place. Calcutta is now become a large and populous city, being supposed to contain at least 500,000 inhabitants. The part inhabited by the English is elegantly built, but the greatest part is built after the general fashion of the cities of India: their streets are exceedingly confined, narrow, and crooked, with a vast number of ponds, reservoirs, and gardens interspersed. A few of them are paved with brick. The houses are built, some with brick, others with mud, and a still greater number with bamboos and mats; all which different kinds of fabrics, intermixed, form a very uncouth appearance. The brick houses are seldom above two stories high, but those of mud and bamboos are only one storey, and are covered with thatch. The roofs of the brick houses are flat and terraced. These, however, are much fewer in number than the other two kinds; so that fires, which often happen, do not sometimes meet with a brick house to obstruct their progress in a whole street. Within these 35 years Calcutta has been greatly improved both in appearance and in the salubrity of its air: the streets have been properly drained, and the ponds filled; thereby removing a vast surface of stagnant water, the exhalations of which were particularly hurtful. The citadel is named FORT WILLIAM, and is superior as a fortress to any in India; but is now on too extensive a scale to answer the purpose for which it was intended, viz. the holding a post in case of extremity. It was begun on this extended plan by Lord Clive immediately after the battle of Plassey. The expence attending it was supposed to amount to two millions Sterling. Calcutta is the emporium of Bengal, Its flourishing state is in a great measure owing to the unlimited toleration of all religions; the Pagans being suffered to carry their idols in procession, the Mahommedans not being discountenanced, and the Roman Catholics being allowed a church. The mixture of European and Asiatic manners, that may be observed in Calcutta, is curious: coaches, phætons, single-horse chaises, with the pallankeens and hackeries of the natives, the passing ceremonies of the Hindoos, and the different appearances of the fakirs, from a sight more novel and extraordinary, perhaps, than any city in the world can present. Calcutta lies 1030 miles NE. by N. of Madras. Lon. 88. 28. E. Lat. 22. 23. N.

(2.) CALCUTTA, EXPIATORY PENNANCE PERFORMED IN. About a mile from the town is a plain, where the natives annually undergo a very strange kind of penance on the 9th of April; some for the sins they have committed, others for those they *may* commit, and others in consequence of a vow made by their parents. This ceremony is performed in the following manner. Thirty bamboos each about the height of 20 feet, are erected in the plain above mentioned. On the top of these they contrive to fix a swivel, and another bamboo of 30 feet or more crosses it, at both ends of which hangs a rope. The people pull down one end of this rope, and the devotee placing himself

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himſelf under it, the Brahmin pinches up a large piece of ſkin under both the ſhoulder blades, ſometimes in the breaſts, and thruſts a ſtrong iron hook through each. Theſe hooks have lines of Indian graſs hanging to them, which the prieſt makes faſt to the rope at the end of the croſs bamboo, and at the ſame time puts a ſaſh round the body of the devotee, laying it looſely in the hollow of the hooks, leſt, by the ſkin giving way, he ſhould fall to the ground. The people then haul down the other end of the bamboo; by which the devotee is immediately lifted up 30 feet or more from the ground, and they run-round as faſt as their legs can carry them. Thus the devotee is thrown out the whole length of the rope, where, as he ſwings, he plays a thouſand antic tricks; being painted and dreſſed in a very particular manner, on purpoſe to make him look more ridiculous. Some of them continue ſwinging half an hour, others leſs. The devotees undergo a preparation of four days for this ceremony. On the firſt and third they abſtain from all kinds of food; but eat fruit on the other two. During this time of preparation they walk about the ſtreets in their fantaſtical dreſſes, dancing to the ſound of drums and horns; and ſome, to expreſs the greater ardour of devotion, run a wire of iron quite through their tongues, and ſometimes through their cheeks.

(3.) CALCUTTA, HISTORY OF THE CAPTURE OF. Before the war of 1755, Calcutta was commonly garriſoned by 300 Europeans, who were frequently employed in conveying the company's veſſels from Patna, loaded with ſalt-petre, piece goods, opium, and raw ſilk. The trade of Bengal alone ſupplied rich cargoes for 50 or 60 ſhips annually, beſides what was carried on in ſmall veſſels to the adjacent countries. This flouriſhing ſtate of Calcutta probably was one motive for the Nabob Surajah Dowlah to attack it in 1756; when he marched againſt it with all his forces, amounting to 70,000 horſe and foot, with 400 elephants, and inveſted the place on the 15th of June. Previous to any hoſtilities, however, he wrote a letter to Mr Drake the governor, offering to withdraw his troops, on condition that he would pay him his duty on the trade for 15 years paſt, defray the expence of his army, and deliver up the black merchants who were in the fort. This being refuſed, he attacked one of the redoubts at the entrance of the town; but was repulſed with great ſlaughter. On the 16th he attacked another advanced poſt, but was likewiſe repulſed with great loſs. He renewed the attempt however on the 18th, when the troops abandoned theſe poſts, and retreated into the fort; on which the Nabob's troops entered the town, and plundered it for 24 hours. An order was then given for attacking the fort; for which purpoſe a ſmall breaſt-work was thrown up, and 2 twelve-pounders mounted upon it; but without firing oftener than two or three times an hour. The governor calling a council of war, was informed, that there was not ammunition in the fort to ſerve 3 days; in conſequence of which the principal ladies were ſent on board the ſhips lying before the fort. They were followed by the governor, who declared himſelf a quaker, and left the place to be defended by Mr John Zephaniah Holwell, the ſecond in council. Beſides the governor, 4 of the council, 8 gentlemen in the company's ſervice, 40 officers, and 100 ſoldiers, with 52 free merchants, captains of ſhips, &c. eſcaped on board the ſhips, where were alſo 59 ladies, with 33 children. The whole number left in the fort were about 250 effective men, with Mr Holwell, 4 captains, 5 lieutenants, 6 enſigns, and 5 ſerjeants; alſo 14 ſea captains, and 29 gentlemen of the factory. Mr Holwell then having held a council of war, divided 3 cheſts of treaſure among the diſcontented ſoldiers; making them large promiſes alſo, if they behaved with courage and fidelity; after which he boldly ſtood on the defence of the place, notwithſtanding the immenſe force which oppoſed him. The attack was very vigorous; the enemy having got poſſeſſion of the houſes, galled the Engliſh from thence, and drove them from the baſtions; but they themſelves were ſeveral times diſlodged by the fire from the fort, which killed upwards of 12,000 men, with the loſs of only 5 Engliſh ſoldiers the firſt day. The attack, however, was contiuued till the afternoon of the 20th; when many of the garriſon being killed and wounded, and their ammunition almoſt exhauſted, a flag of truce was hung out. Mr Holwell intended to have availed himſelf of this opportunity to make his eſcape on board the ſhips, but they had fallen ſeveral miles down from the fort without leaving a ſingle boat to facilitate the eſcape of thoſe who remained. In the mean time, the back gate was betrayed by the Dutch guard, and the enemy, entering the fort, killed all they firſt met, and took the reſt priſoners. The fort was taken before 9 in the evening; and, in an hour after, Mr Holwell had three audiences of the Nabob, the laſt being in the durbar or council. In all of theſe the governor had the moſt poſitive aſſurances that no harm ſhould happen to any of the priſoners; but the Nabob was ſurpriſed and enraged at finding only 5000 l. in the fort, inſtead of the immenſe treaſures he expected; and to this, as well as perhaps to the reſentment of the jemmidaars or officers, of whom many were killed in the ſiege, we may impute the ſhocking cataſtrophe that followed. See § 4.

(4.) CALCUTTA, HORRID CATASTROPHE AT THE BLACK HOLE OF. As ſoon as it was dark, the Engliſh priſoners, to the number of 146, were directed by the jemmidaars who guarded them, to collect themſelves into one body, and ſit down quietly under the arched veranda, or piazza, to the weſtward of the Black Hole priſon. Another guard was placed at the ſouth end of this veranda, to prevent the eſcape of any of them. About 500 gunmen, with lighted matches, were drawn up on the parade; and ſoon after the factory was in flames to the right and left of the priſoners, who had various conjectures on this appearance. The fire advanced with rapidity on both ſides; and the Engliſh began to ſuſpect that they were to be ſuffocated between the two fires. On this they ſoon came to a reſolution of ruſhing on the guard, ſeizing their ſcymitars, and attacking the troops upon the parade, rather than be thus tamely roaſted to death: but Mr Holwell advanced, and found the Moors were only ſearching for a place

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a place to confine them in. At that time Mr Holwell might have made his eſcape, by the aſſiſtance of Mr Leech, the company's ſmith, who had eſcaped when the Moors entered the fort, and returned juſt as it was dark, to tell Mr Holwell he had provided a boat, and would inſure his eſcape, if he would follow him through a paſſage few were acquainted with, and by which he then entered. This might eaſily have been accompliſhed, as the guard took little notice of it: but Mr Holwell told Mr Leech, he was reſolved to ſhare the fate of the gentlemen and the garriſon; to which Mr Leech gallantly replied, that "then he was reſolved to ſhare Mr Holwell's fate, and would not leave him." The guard on the parade advanced, and ordered them all to riſe and go into the barracks. Then, with their muſkets preſented, they ordered them to go into the Black Hole priſon; while others, with clubs and ſcymitars, preſſed upon them ſo ſtrong, that they were obliged to give way and enter; the reſt following like a torrent. Few among them, the ſoldiers excepted, had the leaſt idea of the dimenſions of the place; elſe they would at all events have ruſhed upon the guard, and been cut to pieces, as the leſſer evil. It was about 8 o'clock when theſe 146 unhappy perſons, exhauſted by continual action and fatigue, were thus crammed together in a cloſe ſultry night, into a dungeon about 18 feet ſquare, ſhut up to the E. and S. the only quarters from which air could reach them, by dead walls, and by a wall and door to the N. open only to the W. by two windows, ſtrongly barred with iron, from which they could receive ſcarce any circulation of freſh air. They had been but few minutes confined before every one fell into a perſpiration ſo profuſe, that no idea can be formed of it. This brought on a raging thirſt, which increaſed in proportion as the body was drained of its moiſture. Various expedients were thought of to give more air. Every man was ſtripped, and every hat put in motion: they ſeveral times ſat down on their hams; but each time ſeverals fell, and were inſtantly ſuffocated or trod to death. Before 9, their thirſt grew intolerable, and reſpiration difficult. Efforts were again made to force the door; but ſtill in vain. "Water, water," became the general cry. Some water was brought; but theſe ſupplies, like water ſprinkled on fire, only ſerved to raiſe and feed the flames. The confuſion became general and horrid, from the cries and ravings for water. This ſcene of miſery proved entertainment to the brutal wretches without, who ſupplied them with water, that they might have the ſatisfaction of ſeeing them fight for it, as they phraſed it; and held up lights to the bars, that they might loſe no part of the inhuman diverſion. Before 11 o'clock, one third of the whole were dead. Thirſt grew intolerable: but Mr Holwell kept his mouth moiſt by ſucking the perſpiration out of his ſhirt ſleeves, and catching the drops as they fell from his head and face. By half an hour after 11 moſt of the living were in an outrageous delirium. They found that water heightened their uneaſineſſes; "Air, air," was the general cry. Every inſult that could be deviſed againſt the guard, all the opprobrious names that the viceroy and his officers could be loaded with, were repeated, to provoke the guard to fire upon them. Every man had eager hopes of meeting the firſt ſhot. Then a general prayer to heaven, to haſten the approach of the flames to the right and left of them, and put a period to their miſery. Some expired on others; while a ſteam aroſe from the living as well as the dead, which was very offenſive. About two in the morning, they crowded ſo much to the windows, that many died ſtanding, being ſo preſſed all round, that they could not fall down. When the day broke, the ſtench ariſing from the dead bodies was intolerable. At that juncture, the Soubah, who had received an account of the havoc death had made among them, ſent one of his officers to enquire if the chief ſurvived. Mr Holwell was ſhown to him; and a little before 6 o'clock an order came for their releaſe. Thus they had remained in this infernal priſon from 8 at night until 6 in the morning, when the poor remains of 146 ſouls, only 23, came out barely alive, and moſt of them in a high putrid fever. The dead bodies were dragged out of the hole by the ſoldiers, and thrown promiſcuouſly into the ditch of an unfiniſhed ravelin, which was afterwards filled with earth.

(5.) CALCUTTA, IMPROVED STATE OF. The injuries which Calcutta ſuffered at this time, (§ 4.) were ſoon repaired. It was retaken by Admiral Watſon and Colonel Clive, early in 1757. The victory of Plaſſey followed: the inhuman Surajah Dowlah was defeated, depoſed, and put to death; and Meer Jaffier, who ſucceeded him in the Nabobſhip, engaged to pay an enormous ſum for the indemnification of the inhabitants. Since that time the immenſe acquiſition of territory by the Britiſh in this part of the world, with the conſtant ſecurity enjoyed by this city, have given an opportunity of embelliſhing and improving it very much. One of the greateſt of theſe improvements was that of Sir William Jones; who, on the 15th Jan. 1784, inſtituted a ſociety for inquiring into the hiſtory civil and natural, the antiquities, arts, ſciences, and literature of Aſia; and thus the literature of Europe, and along with it, it is to be hoped, the arts of humanity, beneficence, and peace, have at length attained a footing in the rich empire of Indoſtan, ſo long a prey to the rapine and violence of tyrants and uſurpers.

CALDA, [contract. for *calida aqua*,] hot water, anciently much uſed among the Romans, as a drink, partly for pleaſure, and partly for health.

CALDARIA JUDICIARIA, in our ancient barbarous cuſtoms, the method of trial by boiling water. See ORDEAL.

(1.) CALDARIUM, in the ancient baths, denoted, 1. A brazen veſſel or ciſtern, placed in the hypocauſtum, full of hot water, to be drawn thence into the *piſcina* or bath, to give it the neceſſary degree of heat: 2. A ſtove, or ſudatory, being a cloſe vaulted room, wherein by hot dry fumes, without water, people were brought to a profuſe ſweat.

(2.) CALDARIUM ÆS, denotes POT METAL.

CALDBECK, a village E. of Cumberland.

CALDCOT, the name of 11 Engliſh villages: viz. 1. in Bucks, in Newport pariſh: 2. 7 miles from Cambridge: 3. in Cheſhire, NW. of Malpas: 4. in Hertfordſhire, near Aſhwell and Hinxworth:

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worth: 5. in Glouceſterſhire: 6. in Monmouthſh. 7. in Northumberland: 8. in Rutlandſhire: 9. in Warwickſhire, near Granborough: 10. in ditto, near Weddington; and, 11. in Yorkſh. near Leeds.

(1.) CALDER, anciently called BORIVON, or *Brea Ewen*, now *Calder*, [from *caille*, a wood, and *dor*, water, Gael.] a pariſh of Scotland, in Inverneſs-ſhire, 4 miles long and 2 broad; except a part of it, which runs up from the centre to the high country, about 8 miles, and thus makes it reſemble the letter T. It is partly flat and partly hilly; and agreeable to its name abounds with wood and water. The climate is excellent: the ſoil is fertile, and produces almoſt all kinds of plants and vegetables, that grow by nature or cultivation in the N. of Scotland. The number of acres is eſtimated at 26,000, of which about 4500 are arable, 18,000 moor and moſs, and the remainder under wood, broom, and paſture. The population in 1791, according to the rev. Mr Alexander Grant's report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 1062, and had increaſed 180 ſince 1755. There were 420 horſes, 2100 black cattle, 6300 ſheep, and 400 goats in the pariſh, in 1791. Services are totally aboliſhed on the property of Mr Campbell of Calder, the chief heritor.

(2.) CALDER, a river in Lanarkſhire, which ſeparates the pariſhes of Blantyre and Kilbride. Its banks afford iron ſtone of an excellent quality.

(3.) CALDER, a rivulet in the above pariſh, (N° 1.) which runs through CALDER WOOD, (N° 19.) and ſometimes overflows its banks.

(4.) CALDER, a village in the pariſh, (N° 1.) containing about 20 families.

(5.) CALDER, a village in Cumberland.

(6.) CALDER, or CADDER. See CADDER.

(7—9.) CALDER, the name of 3 rivers in Lancaſhire: of which the 1ſt runs into the Ribble at Whaley: the 2d into the Wear, near Garſtang: and the 3d entering the SW. ſide of Yorkſhire, runs E. and joins the Aire.

(10.) CALDER COMITIS, the ancient name of that whole diſtrict, which then conſtituted but one pariſh, but is now divided into 3; viz. EAST, MID, and WEST CALDER. See N° 11, 14, 15, 17, 18.

(11, 12.) CALDER, EAST, 1. a pariſh of Scotland, in the county of Mid Lothian. It abounds in lime-ſtone. In one quarry belonging to the E. of Morton, the ſtratum is 60 feet thick. 2. A village in the pariſh.

(13.) CALDER HOUSE, the ſeat of Lord Torphichen, is ſituated a little W. of MID CALDER, (N° 15.) and is memorable in the eccleſiaſtical hiſtory of Scotland, as the place where the ſacrament of the Lord's ſupper was firſt diſpenſed after the Reformation, by the celebrated reformer, John Knox. Lord Torphichen has a picture of Mr Knox in his hall, with an inſcription on the back of it, mentioning this fact.

(14.) CALDER, MID, a pariſh of Scotland, in Mid Lothian, 7 miles long from N. to S. and not above 3 broad from E. to W. The climate is very healthy, and the ſoil light. It makes good returns of oats, barley, turnips, and potatoes, and produces luxuriant crops of hay. The population in 1792, as ſtated by the rev. Mr Wilſon in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 1251 ſouls, and had increaſed 491, ſince 1755. The pariſh feeds 200 horſes, 480 black cattle, and 2300 ſheep, beſides ſome ſwine. It abounds with free-ſtone, lime-ſtone, and iron-ſtone, and is ſuppoſed to contain coals. It has alſo a mineral ſpring.

(15.) CALDER, MID, a town in the above pariſh, (N° 14.) pleaſantly ſituated, 12 miles W. from Edinburgh. It contained 562 inhabitants, in 1791. It has 2 fairs, on the 2d Tueſ. of March and Oct. and a weekly market. It is well ſituated for manufactures, but has none at preſent except a paper mill.

(16.) CALDER WATER. See N° 2.

(17, 18.) CALDER, WEST: 1. a pariſh, and 2. a village of Scotland, lying W. of MID CALDER, (N° 14, 15.) but of which as well as of EAST CALDER, we have as yet ſeen no deſcription in the Statiſtical Account.

(19.) CALDER WOOD, a moſt romantic wood, in the pariſh of CALDER, (N° 1.) conſiſting of trees of all ſorts, and the moſt beautiful ſhrubbery; ſituated on the high, ſteep, and rocky banks of the rivulet, (N° 3.) which runs in a channel ſo dark and deep, as to be quite loſt to the ſight.

(20.) CALDER WOOD, a plantation ſtill very extenſive in the pariſh of MID CALDER, (N° 14.) but formerly ſtretching to the length of 7 miles. It conſiſts of oaks, birches, firs, and larches.

CALDERIA, a town of Italy, near Verona.

CALDERINUS, Domitius, a learned critic, born at Calderia. He read lectures upon polite literature at Rome with great reputation; and was the firſt who ventured to write upon the moſt difficult of the ancient poets. He died very young, in 1477.

CALDERON, Don Pedro, De la Barca, a Spaniſh officer, who, after having ſignalized himſelf in the military profeſſion, quitted it for the eccleſiaſtical, and then commenced dramatic writer. His dramatic works made 9 vols in 4to. Some Spaniſh writers have compared him to Shakeſpeare. He flouriſhed about 1640.

CALDERWOOD, David, a famous divine of the church of Scotland, and a diſtinguiſhed writer in behalf of the Preſbyterians, was deſcended of a good family in that kingdom. Being early deſigned for the miniſtry, he applied with great diligence to the ſtudy of the Scriptures in their original tongues, the works of the fathers, the councils, and the beſt writers on church hiſtory. He was ſettled about 1604 at Crelling near Jedburgh. King James I. of Great Britain, being deſirous of bringing the church of Scotland nearer to a conformity with that of England, laboured earneſtly to reſtore the epiſcopal authority, and enlarge the powers of the biſhops then in Scotland. This deſign was very warmly oppoſed by many of the miniſters, particularly by Mr Calderwood; who, when James Law, biſhop of Orkney, came to viſit the preſbyteries of Merſe and Teviotdale, declined his juriſdiction, by a paper dated May 5, 1608. But the king ſent the earl of Dunbar, then high treaſurer of Scotland, with Dr Abbot afterwards archbiſhop of Canterbury, and two other divines, into that kingdom, with inſtructions to employ every method to perſuade both the clergy and laity of his ſincere deſire to promote the good of the church, and of his zeal for the Proteſtant religion. Mr Calderwood did not aſſiſt at the general aſſembly

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assembly at Glasgow, June 8th, 1610, in which Lord Dunbar presided as commissioner; but considered every thing transacted in it as null and void. In May following, king James went to Scotland; and on the 17th June held a parliament at Edinburgh: when the clergy met in one of the churches, to advise with the bishops. This assembly was contrived in order to resemble the English convocation. Mr Calderwood was present at it, but declared publicly that he did not take any such meetings to resemble a convocation; and being opposed by Dr Whitford and Dr Hamilton, who favoured the bishops, he took his leave of them in these words: "It is absurd to see men sitting in silks and satins, and to cry poverty in the kirk, when purity is departing." The parliament proceeded in the mean while in the dispatch of business; and Mr Calderwood, with several other ministers, being informed that a bill was depending to empower the king, with the advice of the archbishops, bishops, and such a number of the ministry as he should think proper, to consider and conclude as to matters decent for the external policy of the church, not repugnant to the word of God; and that such conclusions should have the strength and power of ecclesiastical laws. Against this they protested, for 4 reasons: "1. Because the church was so perfect, that, instead of needing reformation, it might be a pattern to others: 2. General assemblies, as now established by law, and which ought always to continue, might by this means be overthrown: 3. Because it might be a means of creating schism, and disturb the tranquillity of the church: 4. Because they had received assurances, that no attempts should be made to bring them to a conformity with the church of England. They desire therefore, that all thoughts of passing such a law might be laid aside: but in case this be not done, they protest for themselves and their brethren who shall adhere to them, that they can yield no obedience to this law when it shall be enacted, because it is destructive of the liberty of the church; and therefore shall submit to such penalties, and undergo such punishments, as may be inflicted on them for disobeying that law." This protest was presented to the clerk register, who refused to read it before the states in parliament. However, though not read, it had its effect; for although the bill had the consent of parliament, yet the king caused it to be laid aside, and not long after called a general assembly at St Andrews. Soon after the parliament was dissolved, and Mr Calderwood was summoned to appear before the high commission court at St Andrews, on the 8th of July following, to answer for his mutinous and seditious behaviour. July 10th, the king came to that city in person; when Mr Calderwood, being called upon, and refusing to comply with what the king in person required of him, was committed to prison. Afterwards the privy council ordered him to banish himself out of the king's dominions before Michaelmas next; and not to return without licence. Having applied to the king for a prorogation of his sentence without success, because he would neither acknowledge his offence, nor promise conformity for the future, he retired to Holland, where, in 1623, he published his celebrated piece, entitled *Altare Damascenum*. Mr Calderwood having, in 1624, been afflicted with a long fit of sickness, and nothing having been heard of him for some time, one Patrick Scot, as Calderwood himself informs us, took it for granted that he was dead; and thereupon wrote a recantation in his name, as if, before his decease, he had changed his sentiments. This imposture being detected, Scot went over to Holland, and staid 3 weeks at Amsterdam, where he made a diligent search for the author of *Altare Damascenum*, with a design to have dispatched him. But Calderwood had privately retired into his own country, where he lived several years. Scot gave out that the king had furnished him with the matter for the pretended recantation, and that he only put it in order. During his retirement, he collected all the memorials relating to the ecclesiastical affairs of Scotland, from the beginning of the reformation to the death of king James; which collection is still preserved in the university library of Glasgow: that which was published under the title of "The true history of Scotland," is only an extract from it. In the advertisement prefixed to the last edition of his Altare Damascenum mention is made of his being minister of Pencaitland near Edinburgh in 1638; but we find nothing said there, or any where else, of his death. He was a man of sound learning and quick parts.

(1.) CALDEY, an island in Pembrokeshire, 2 miles SW. of Fenby.

(2.) CALDEY MAGNA, } two villages in Che-
(3.) CALDEY PARVA, } shire, seated on the Dee, near Hyle Lake.

CALDICOT, in the parish of Guiting-Power, Gloucestershire.

CALDMERTON, a town in Northumberland.

CALDMORE, in Staffordshire, N. of Walsal.

(1.) * CALDRON. *n. s.* [*chauldron*, Fr. from *calidus*, Lat.] A pot; a boiler; a kettle.—

In the midst of all
There placed was a *caldron* wide and tall,
Upon a mighty furnace, burning hot. *Fairy Q.*

Some strip the skin, some portion out the spoil;
The limbs, yet trembling, in the *caldrons* boil;
Some on the fire the reeking entrails broil.
Dryden's Æneid.

—In the late eruptions, this great hollow was like a vast *caldron*, filled with glowing and melted matter, which, as it boiled over in any part, ran down the sides of the mountain. *Addison.*

(2.) CALDRONS, are much larger than "pots, boilers, or kettles," (§ 1.) and are commonly made of copper; having a moveable iron handle, whereby to hang them on the chimney hook.

(3.) CALDRONS, BOILING IN, (*caldariis decoquere*,) is a capital punishment spoken of in writers of the middle age, decreed to divers sorts of criminals, but chiefly to debasers of the coin. One of the torments, inflicted on the ancient Christian martyrs, was boiling in caldrons of water, oil, &c.

CALDWALL, Richard, a learned English physician, born in Staffordshire about 1513. He studied physic at Oxford; and was examined, admitted into, and made censor of, the college of physicians at London, all in one day. Six weeks

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after he was chosen one of the elects; and in 1570, was elected president. He wrote several medical pieces, and translated a book on the art of surgery, written by one Horatio More, a Florentine physician. We learn from Cambden, that Caldwall founded a chirurgical lecture in the college of physicians, and endowed it with a handsome salary. He died in 1585.

CALDWELL, the name of 4 villages; viz. 1. near Bedford: 2. in Stapenhill parish, Derbysh. 3. in Worcestershire, near Kidderminster: and 4. in Yorkshire, near Forcet.

(1.) CALE, or KALE, a species of BRASSICA.

(2.) CALE, SEA. See CRAMBE.

CALEA, in botany, a genus of the polygamia æqualis order, belonging to the syngenesia class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 49th order, Compositæ. The receptacle is paleaceous, the pappus hairy, and the calyx imbricated. There are 3 species.

CALE-ACTE. See ARTEMISIUM, N° 1.

(1.) CALEB, the son of Jephunneh, of the tribe of Judah, one of the 12 spies who were sent to view the land of Canaan, and the only one who joined with Joshua in giving a favourable report of it. Num. xiii and xiv. His capture of Hebron, defeat of the Anakims, and portioning of his daughter Achsah, are recorded in Josh. xiv, 6–15. xv, 13–19, and Judg. i, 9–15. This hero had 3 sons and a numerous posterity. He is to be distinguished from the two following. See N° 2 & 3.

(2.) CALEB, or CHELUBAI, the son of Hezron, had 3 wives, 2 concubines, and a numerous posterity. 1 Chron. ii.

(3.) CALEB, the son of Hur, and grandson of Caleb, N° 2. His posterity peopled the whole country about Bethlehem, Kirjath-jearim, &c.

(4.) CALEB, or CALEB-EPHRATAH, a city of Judah, where Caleb, (N° 2.) and his wife Ephratah dwelt. To the elders of this town, David sent part of the spoils he took from the Amalekites. 1 Sam. xxx, 14.

* CALECHE. The same with CALASH.

(1.) CALEDONIA, the ancient name of Scotland. From the testimonies of Tacitus, Dio, and Solinus, we find, that the ancient Caledonia comprehended all that country lying N. of the Forth and Clyde. In proportion as the Silures or Cimbri advanced toward the N. the Caledonians, being circumscribed within narrower limits, were forced to emigrate into the islands on the western coasts of Scotland. It is in this period, probably, we ought to place the first great migration of the British Gael into Ireland; that kingdom being much nearer to the promontory of Galloway and Cantire, than many of the Scottish isles are to the continent of North Britain. To the country which the Caledonians possessed, they gave the name of *Cael-doch*; which is the only appellation the Scots, who speak the Gaelic language, know for their own division of Britain. *Cael-doch* is a compound made up of *Gael* or *Cael*, the first colony of the ancient Gauls who emigrated into Britain, and *doch*, a district or division of a country. The Romans, by transposing the letter *l* in *Cael*, and by softening into a Latin termination the *ch* of *doch*, formed the well known name of Caledonia. This appears to be a much more natural etymology than that of Camden, from the old British word *kaled*, *hard*, because the people were a hardy rustic race.

(2.) CALEDONIA, the name of a settlement made by the Scots on the W. side of the gulph of Darien, in 1698; out of which they were starved at the request of the East India company; for the English government who at first encouraged the settlement, afterwards prohibited the other colonies from sending them any provisions; so they were obliged to leave it in 1700. Such are the blessed fruits of monopolies. This piece of barbarous policy, with the massacre of Glenco, stamp indelible infamy on the reign and character of K. William III.

(3.) CALEDONIA, NEW, an island in the south sea, discovered by Captain Cook, and next to New Holland and New Zealand, the largest that has yet been discovered in that sea. It extends from 19° 37′ to 22° 30′ Lat. S. and from 163° 37′ to 167° 14′ Lon. E. Its length from NW. to SW. is about 80 leagues; but its greatest breadth does not exceed 10 leagues. This island is diversified by hills and valleys of various size and extent. From the hills issue abundance of rivulets, which contribute to fertilize the plains. Along its NE. shore the land is flat; and being well watered, and cultivated by the inhabitants after their manner, appeared to great advantage to captain Cook's people. Were it not, indeed, for those fertile spots on the plains, the whole country would be a dreary waste: the mountains and higher parts of the land are in general incapable of cultivation. They consist chiefly of rocks, many of which are full of mundie; the little soil that is upon them is scorched and burnt up by the sun; it is, however, covered with coarse grass and other plants, and here and there covered with trees and shrubs. The country in general bears a great resemblance to those parts of New South Wales, which lie under the same parallel of latitude. Several of its natural productions are the same, and the woods are without underwood, as in that country. The whole coast seems to be surrounded by reefs and shoals, which render all access to it extremely dangerous; but at the same time guard the coasts against the wind and sea; rendering it easily navigable along the coast by canoes, and causing it abound with fish. Every part of the coast seems to be inhabited; the plantations in the plains are laid out with great judgement, and cultivated with much labour. They begin their cultivation by setting fire to the grass, &c. with which the ground is covered, but have no notion of preserving its vigour by manure; they, however, recruit it by letting it lie for some years untouched. On the beach was found a large irregular mass of rock, not less than a cube of 10 feet, consisting of a close-grained stone, speckled full of granates somewhat bigger than pins heads, from whence it seems probable that some valuable minerals may be found on this island. It differs from all the other islands yet discovered in the South Sea, in being entirely destitute of volcanic productions. Several plants of a new species were found, particularly a new species of passion flower; and a few young bread fruit trees, not then sufficiently grown to bear fruit, seemed to have

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ave come up without culture: plantains and ſu-ar canes are here in ſmall quantity, and the co-oa nut trees are ſmall and thinly planted. Seve-al CAPUTI, or MELALEUCA trees were alſo found n flower. Muſquetos are very numerous. A great ariety of birds were ſeen of different claſſes, for he moſt part entirely new; particularly a beau-iful ſpecies of parrot before unknown to zoolo-iſts. A new ſpecies of fiſh, of the genus called y Linnæus TETRAODON, was caught; and its iver, which was very large, preſented at ſupper. ſeveral ſpecies of this genus being reckoned poi-onous, and this ſpecies being remarkably ugly, Meſſers Forſters hinted their ſuſpicions of its qua-ity; but the temptation of a freſh meal, and the aſſurances of captain Cook, that he had formerly aten this identical ſort of fiſh without harm, got he better of their ſcruples. Its oilineſs, however, hough it had no other bad taſte, prevented them rom taking above a morſel or two. In a few ours after they had retired to reſt, they were a-vakened by very alarming ſymptoms, being all eized with an extreme giddineſs: their hands and eet benumbed, ſo that they were ſcarcely able to rawl; and a great languor and oppreſſion fei-ing them. Emetics were adminiſtered with ſome ucceſs, but ſudorifices gave the greateſt relief. ome dogs who had eaten the remainder of the iver were likewiſe taken ill; and a pig which had aten the entrails died ſoon after, having ſwelled o an unuſual ſize. The effects of this poiſon did ot go entirely off in leſs than ſix weeks. There re great numbers of turtles on this iſland. The ouſes, or huts, are circular, ſomething like a ee-hive, and full as cloſe and warm; the entrance s by a long ſquare hole, juſt big enough to admit a man bent double: the ſide walls are about 4½ eet high: but the roof is lofty and peaked to a oint at the top. The framing is of ſmall ſpars, eeds, &c. and both ſides and roof are thick, and loſe covered with thatch made of coarſe long raſs. In the inſide of the houſe are ſet up poſts, o which croſs ſpars are faſtened, and platforms nade, for the conveniency of laying any thing on. ome houſes have two floors, one above another; he floor is laid with dried graſs and mats are ſpread for the principal people to ſit or ſleep on. In theſe their is no paſſage for the ſmoke but hrough the door; they were intolerably ſmoky, nd inſupportably hot to thoſe unaccuſtomed to hem: probably the ſmoke is intended to drive ut the muſquetos which ſwarm here. They ommonly erect 2 or 3 of theſe huts near each other under a cluſter of lofty fig-trees, whoſe leaves re impervious to the rays of the ſun. The ca-noes are heavy clumſy veſſels, made of two trees ollowed out, having a raiſed gunnel about two nches high, and cloſed at each end with a bulk ead of the ſame height; ſo that the whole is like long ſquare trough, about 3 feet ſhorter than he body of the canoe. Two canoes thus fitted re faſtened to each other about 3 feet aſunder, y means of croſs ſpars, which project about a oot over each ſide. Over theſe is laid a deck nade of plank and ſmall round ſpars, on which hey have a hearth, and generally a fire burning; hey are navigated by one or two latteen ſails, extended to a ſmall latteen yard the end of which is fixed to a notch in the deck.

(4.) CALEDONIA, NEW, INHABITANTS, CUSTOMS, &c. OF. The inhabitants are very ſtout, tall, and in general well proportioned; their features mild; their beards and hair black, and ſtrongly frizzled, ſo as to be ſomewhat woolly, in ſome individuals: their colour is a dark cheſnut brown. A few meaſured 6 feet 4 inches. They are remarkably courteous, not at all addicted to pilfering; in which character of honeſty they are ſingular, all the other nations in the South Sea being remarkably thieviſh. Some wear their hair long and tie it up to the crown of their heads; others ſuffer only a large lock to grow on each ſide which they tie up in clubs; many others as well as all the women wear it cropt ſhort. They uſe a kind of comb made of ſticks of hard wood, from 7 to 10 inches long, and about the thickneſs of knitting needles. Theſe combs they alſo wear in their hair on one ſide of their head. Some had a kind of concave cylindrical ſtiff black cap, which appeared to be a great ornament among them, and was ſuppoſed to be worn only by the chiefs and warriors. The men go naked; only tying a ſtring round their middle, and another round their neck. A little piece of a brown cloth made of the bark of a fig-tree, ſometimes tucked up to the belt, and ſometimes pendulous, ſcarcely deſerves the name of a covering; nor indeed does it ſeem intended for it. This piece of cloth is ſometimes of ſuch a length, that the extremity is faſtened to the ſtring round the neck; to this ſtring they likewiſe hang ſmall round beads of a pale green nephritic ſtone. They had alſo coarſe garments made of a ſort of matting; but they ſeemed never to wear them, except when in their canoes and unemployed. The women ſeemed to be in a ſervile ſtate? they were the only perſons who had any employment, and ſeveral of them brought bundles of ſticks and fuel on their backs: thoſe who had children carried them on their backs in a kind of ſatchel. The women alſo dig up the earth to plant it. They are in general of a dark cheſnut, and ſometimes mahogany brown; their ſtature middle-ſized, though ſome are tall, and their whole form rather ſtout, and ſomewhat clumſy. Their dreſs is a ſhort petticoat or fringe, conſiſting of filaments or little cords, about 8 inches long, faſtened to a very long ſtring, which they tie ſeveral times round their waiſt. Theſe filaments lie above each other in ſeveral layers, all round the body, but do not near cover the thigh: they were ſometimes dyed black; but frequently of a dirty grey. There was not a ſingle inſtance, during the ſhips ſtay at this iſland, of the women permitting any indecent familiarity with an European. The general ornaments of both ſexes are ear-rings, necklaces, amulets, and bracelets made of ſhells, ſtones, &c. Notwithſtanding the inoffenſive diſpoſition of the inhabitants of New Caledonia, they are well provided with offenſive weapons; as clubs, ſpears, darts, and ſlings.—Their clubs are about 2½ feet long, and variouſly formed; ſome like a ſcythe, others like a pick-ax; ſome with a head like a hawk, others with round heads; but all are neatly made, and orna-

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mented with carvings. The ſlings are ſimple, but they form the ſtones into a ſhape, ſomething like an egg. They drive the dart by the aſſiſtance of ſhort cords knobbed at one end and looped at the other, called by the ſeamen *beckets*. Theſe contain a quantity of red wool taken from the great Indian bat. Bows and arrows are wholly unknown among them. Their language bears no affinity to that ſpoken in the other South Sea iſlands, the word *arrekee* and one or two more excepted. This is the more extraordinary, as different dialects of one language were ſpoken not only in the eaſterly iſlands, but at New Zealand. Their only muſical inſtrument is a kind of whiſtle; a little poliſhed piece of brown wood about two inches long, ſhaped like a bell, though apparently ſolid, with a rope fixed at the ſmall end; two holes are made in it near the baſe, and another near the inſertion of the rope, all which communicate with each other; and by blowing in the uppermoſt, a ſhrill ſound like whiſtling is produced. Many of theſe people were obſerved to have prodigiouſly thick legs and arms, which ſeemed to be affected with a kind of leproſy; the ſwelling was extremely hard, but the ſkin was not alike harſh and ſcaly in all thoſe that were afflicted with the diſorder. The preternatural expanſion of the arm or leg did not appear to be a great inconvenience to them; and they very rarely felt any pain in it; but in ſome the diſorder began to form blotches, which are marks of a great degree of virulence. They bury their dead in the ground. The grave of a chief who had been ſlain in battle reſembled a large mole-hill, and was decorated with ſpears, darts, paddles, &c. all ſtuck upright in the ground about it. Lieutenant Pickerſgill was ſhowed a chief whom they named *Tea-beoma*, and ſtyled their *arrekee* or *king*; but nothing further is known of their government, and nothing at all of their religion. They had no idea of goats, hogs, dogs, or cats.

CALEDONIANS, one of the general names of the ancient inhabitants of Scotland, as well as of a particular tribe. When the tribes of North Britain were attacked by the Romans, they entered into aſſociations, that, by uniting their ſtrength they might be more able to repel the common enemy. The particular name of that tribe, which either its ſuperior power or military reputation placed at the head of the aſſociation, was the general name given by the Romans to all confederates. Hence the MOEATÆ, who with other tribes inhabited the diſtricts of Scotland lying S. of the Frith, and the CALEDONIANS, who inhabited the W. and NW. parts, (particularly Argyll, Lorn, Strathearn, and Perthſhire,) engroſſed all the glory which belonged in common though in an inferior degree, to all the other nations then ſettled in North Britain. For the ſame reaſon the name of *Mœatæ* was entirely forgotten by foreign writers after the 3d century, and even that of *Caledonians* but ſeldom mentioned after the 4th. *Britons*, *Caledonians*, *Mœatæ*, and *Barbarians*, are the names conſtantly given to the old inhabitants of North Britain, by Tacitus, Herodian, Dio, Spartian, Vopiſcus, and other ancient writers. The ſucceſſors of theſe people are called Picts, Scots, and Attacots, by ſome Roman writers of the 4th century. The origin of the appellation SCOTI and PICTI, introduced by later Roman authors, has occaſioned much controverſy among the antiquarians of theſe days. The diſpute ſeems now to be fully decided by ſome learned critics of the preſent century, whoſe knowledge of the Gaelic language aſſiſted their inveſtigation. See SCOTLAND, PICTS, and HIGHLANDERS.

CALEFACIENTIA, } in medicine, heating or
CALEFACIENTS, } warming medicines.

(1.) * CALEFACTION. *n. ſ.* [from *calefacio*, Lat.] 1. The act of heating any thing. 2. The ſtate of being heated.

(2.) CALEFACTION may be farther defined, the production of heat in a body from the action of fire, or that impulſe impreſſed by a hot body on others around it. It is uſed in pharmacy, by way of diſtinction from COCTION, which implies BOILING.

* CALEFACTIVE. *adj.* [from *calefacio*, Lat.] That which makes any thing hot; heating.

CALEFACTORINESS, *n. ſ.* Warmth. *Scott.*

* CALEFACTORY. *adj.* [from *calefacio*, Lat.] That which heats.

(1.) * *To* CALEFY. *v. a.* To make hot.

(2.) * *To* CALEFY. *v. n.* [*caleſio*, Latin.] To grow hot: to be heated.—Cryſtal will *calefy* unto electricity; that is, a power to attract ſtraws, or light bodies, and convert the needle, freely placed. *Brown's Vulgar Errours.*

CALE-HILL, a village near Charing, Kent.

(1.) CALENBERG, a caſtle of Germany, in the principality, N° 2. ſeated on the river Leine, 15 miles S. of Hanover, and ſubject to the Elector. Lon. 9. 43. E. Lat. 52. 20. N.

(2.) CALENBERG, a principality of Lower Saxony, and one of the 4 diviſions of Brunſwick; bounded on the N. by the duchy of Verden, on the E. by the principality of Zell, on the S. by thoſe of Grubenhagen and Wolfenbuttle, and on the W. by Weſtphalia. See BRUNSWICK, N° II, § 1.

(1.) * CALENDAR. *n. ſ.* [*calendarium*, Lat.] A regiſter of the year, in which the months, and ſtated times, are marked, as feſtivals and holidays.

> What hath this day deſerv'd? what hath it done,
> That it in golden letter ſhould be ſet
> Among the high tides, in the *calendar*?
> *Shakeſp. K. John.*

—We compute from *calendars* differing from one another; the compute of one anticipating that of the other. *Brown.*—

> Curs'd be the day when firſt I did appear;
> Let it bloted from the *calendar*.
> Leſt it pollute the month! *Dryden's Fables.*

(2.) CALENDAR, in aſtronomy and chronology. See KALENDAR.

(3.) CALENDAR, NEW FRENCH, a diſtribution of time entirely new, adopted by the French Convention, ſoon after the abolition of royalty, in 1792; and ſtill continued with very little alteration, by the preſent government of France. In this calendar, the year commences at midnight, on the beginning of that day, on which the true autumnal equinox falls, by the obſervatory of Paris. The year is divided into 12 equal months, of 30 days each; after which five ſupplementary days are added, to complete the 365 days of the ordinary

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nary year. These five days do not belong to any month. They were first named SANS-CULLOTTIDES, in honour of the *Sans-Culottes*, or inferior ranks of society; but this name was changed, (and it is the only change made in the calendar,) soon after the revolution in July 1794. Each month is divided into three decades of 10 days each; distinguished by 1st, 2d, and 3d decade. The years which receive an intercalary day, when the position of the equinox requires it, which we call emboliſmic, biſſextile, or leap years, the French call olympic; and the period of 4 years, ending with an olympic year, is called an olympiad. The intercalary day, on that occaſion, is placed after the ordinary 5 ſupplementary days, and, being the laſt day of the olympic year, is dedicated to olympic games to be celebrated in honour of the revolution; and to the renovation of the national oath, "To live free or die." The months have all new names, expreſſive of their reſpective relations, either to the ſeaſon of the year, the temperature of the air, or the ſtate of the vegetation, See the TABLE. Each day from midnight to midnight, is divided into 10 parts, each part into 10 others, and ſo on to the laſt meaſurable portion of time. The days of the decade are denominated from the firſt ten numbers, thus; Primdi, Duodi, Tridi, Quatridi, Quintidi, Sextidi, Septidi, Octidi, Nonidi, Decadi. In the almanac, or annual calendar, inſtead of the numerous names of ſaints, in the popiſh calendars, every day is inſcribed with the name of ſome animal, utenſil, work, fruit, flower, or vegetable, ſuited to the day or the ſeaſon. The following table exhibits the names of the months, with their ſignification and duration: and will ſuit any year except leap year; when by the intervention of the 29th Feb. the firſt of Germinal happens upon the 20th of March, and every day thereafter one day later than is ſtated in the table, till the 6th ſupplementary day, on the 21ſt Sept. brings the French calendar to its uſual equation with the Gregorian.

TABLE *of the* MONTHS *and* SUPPLEMENTARY DAYS, *according to the* NEW FRENCH CALENDAR.

	NAMES.	SIGNIFICATION.	DURATION.			
AUTUMN.	Vindemiaire,	Vintage month,	from	Sept. 22.	to	Oct. 21.
	Brumaire,	Fog month,	—	Oct. 22.	—	Nov. 20.
	Frimaire,	Sleet month,	—	Nov. 21.	—	Dec. 20.
WINTER.	Niyoſe,	Snow month,	—	Dec. 21.	—	Jan. 19.
	Pluuioſe,	Rainy month,	—	Jan. 20.	—	Feb. 18.
	Ventoſe,	Windy month,	—	Feb. 19.	—	March 20.
SPRING.	Germinal,	Sprout month,	—	March 21.	—	April 19.
	Floreal,	Flower month,	—	April 20.	—	May 19.
	Priarial,	Paſture month,	—	May 20.	—	June 18.
SUMMER.	Meſſidor,	Harveſt month,	—	June 19.	—	July 18.
	Thermidor	Hot month,	—	July 19.	—	Aug. 17.
	Fructidor,	Fruit month,	—	Aug. 19.	—	Sept. 16.

SUPPLEMENTARY DAYS, *dedicated as feaſts to*

Les Vertus,	The Virtues,	Sept. 17.	L'Opinion,	Opinion,	Sept. 20.
Le Génie,	Genius,	Sept. 18.	Les Recompenſes,	Rewards,	Sept. 21.
Le Travail,	Labour,	Sept. 19.			

(4.) CALENDAR OF NATURE. See NATURE, § 3.

(5.) CALENDAR OF PRISONERS, in law, a liſt of all the priſoners names in the cuſtody of each ſheriff. See EXECUTION.

CALENDARIS, an epithet of Juno.

(1.) CALENDARIUM FESTUM. The Chriſtians retained much of the ceremony and wantonneſs of the calends of January, which for many ages was held a feaſt, and celebrated by the clergy with great indecencies, under the names of *feſtum kalendarium*, or *hypodiaconorum*, or *ſtultorum*, *i. e.* the feaſt of fools. The people met maſked in the church, and in a ludicrous way proceeded to the election of a mock pope, who exerciſed a juriſdiction over them ſuitable to the feſtivity of the occaſion. Fathers, councils, and popes long laboured to reſtrain this licence, to little purpoſe. The feaſt of the calends was in uſe as low as the cloſe of the 15th century.

(2.) CALENDARIUM FLORÆ, in botany, a calendar containing an exact regiſter of the reſpective times in which the plants of any given province or climate germinate, expand, and ſhed their leaves and flowers, or ripen and diſperſe their ſeeds. See DEFOLIATIO, EFFLORESCENTIA, FRONDESCENTIA, FRUCTESCENTIA, GERMINATIO, and NATURE, § 3.

(1.) * CALENDER. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] A hot preſs; a preſs in which clothiers ſmooth their cloth.

(2.) CALENDER, in geography. See CALLANDER.

(3.) CALENDER, in manufactories, (§ 1.) is uſed to preſs woollen and ſilken ſtuffs and linens, to make them ſmooth, even, and gloſſy, or to give them waves, or water them, as in Mohairs and tabbies. This machine is compoſed of two thick cylinders or rollers, made of very hard and well poliſhed wood, round which the ſtuffs to be calendered are wound: Theſe rollers are placed a-croſs between two very thick boards, the lower ſerving as a fixed baſe, and the upper moveable by means of a thick ſcrew with a rope faſtened to a ſpindle which makes its axis: The uppermoſt board is loaded with large ſtones weighing 20,000 lb. or more. At Paris there is an extraordinary machine of this kind. The lower table or plank is made of a block of ſmooth marble, and the upper is lined with a plate of poliſhed copper. The alternate motion of the upper board ſometimes

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times one way and ſometimes another, together with the prodigious weight laid upon it, gives the ſtuffs their gloſs and ſmoothneſs; or gives them the waves, by making the cylinders on which they are put roll with great force over the undermoſt board. When they would put a roller from under the calender, they only incline the undermoſt board of the machine. The dreſſing alone, with the many turns they make the ſtuffs and linens undergo in the calender, gives the waves, or waters them, as the workmen call it. Mr Chambers is miſtaken, in ſuppoſing, that they uſe rollers with a ſhallow indenture or engraving cut into them.

* *To* CALENDER. *v. a.* [*calendrer*, F. *Skinner.*] To dreſs cloth; to lay the nap of cloth ſmooth.

CALENDERI, Santon, the founder of a ſect of Mahometan friars. He went bare-headed, without a ſhirt, and with the ſkin of a wild beaſt thrown over his ſhoulders. He wore a kind of apron before, the ſtrings of which were adorned with counterfeit precious ſtones. See next article.

CALENDERS, a ſect of Derviſes or Mahometan friars, the diſciples of Santon Calenderi. They are rather a ſect of Epicureans than a ſociety of religious. They honour a tavern as much as they do a moſque; and think they pay as acceptable worſhip to God by the free uſe of his creatures, as others do by the greateſt auſterities and acts of devotion. They are called, in Perſia and Arabia, ABDALS, or ABDALLAT, *i. e.* perſons conſecrated to the honour and ſervice of God. Their garment is a ſingle coat, made up of a variety of pieces, and quilted like a rug. They preach in the market places, and live upon what their auditors beſtow on them.

* CALENDRER. *n. ſ.* [from *calender.*] The perſon who calenders.

(1.) * CALENDS. *n. ſ.* [*calendæ*, Lat. It has no *ſingular.*] The firſt day of every month among the Romans.

(2.) CALENDS, in Roman antiquity. See KALENDS.

(3.) CALENDS, GREEK, a proverbial expreſſion among the Romans, adopted into moſt modern languages, ſignifying *never*, becauſe the Greeks had no calends.

(1.) CALENDULA, in botany, the MARIGOLD, a genus of the polygamia neceſſaria order, belonging to the ſyngeneſia claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 49th order, *Compoſitæ*. The receptacle is naked, there is no pappus, the calyx is polyphyllous and equal, the ſeeds of the diſk membranaceous. Of this there are 8 ſpecies, none of them natives of Europe. The common kind is ſo well known as to need no deſcription; and none of the others merit any, except

CALENDULA FRUCTICOSA, which has lately been introduced from the Cape of Good Hope. It has a ſlender ſhrubby perennial ſtalk, which riſes to the height of 7 or 8 feet, but requires ſupport: this ſends out a great number of weak branches from the bottom to the top, which hang downward unleſs they are ſupported: they are garniſhed with oval leaves, having ſhort flat footſtalks, of a ſhining green colour on their upper ſide, but pale underneath: the flowers come out at the end of the branches, on ſhort naked footſtalks. This is eaſily propagated by cuttings; which may be planted at any time in ſummer in a ſhady border, or ſhaded with mats in the heat of the day; in 5 or 6 weeks they will have taken root, when they ſhould be ſeparately taken up, each put in a ſeparate pot, and placed in the ſhade till they have taken freſh root; then they may be placed, with other hardy exotic plants, in a ſheltered ſituation, where they may remain till the froſt begins, when they muſt be removed into the green-houſe, placing them near the windows, that they may enjoy the free air; for this plant only requires protection from froſt. The ſeeds of the common ſort may be ſown in March or April, where the plants are to remain; and will require no other culture but to keep them clear of weeds, and to thin the plants where they are too thick. The flowers of the common marigold are ſuppoſed to be aperient, attenuating, cardiac, alexipharmac, and ſudorific; they are principally celebrated in uterine obſtructions, the jaundice, and for throwing out the ſmall pox. Their ſenſible qualities, however, give little foundation for theſe virtues: they have ſcarce any taſte, and have no conſiderable ſmell. The leaves of the plant diſcover a viſcid ſweetiſhneſs, accompanied with a more durable ſaponaceous pungency and warmth; theſe ſeem capable of anſwering ſome uſeful purpoſes as a ſtimulating, aperient, and antiſcorbutic medicine.

(II.) CALENDULA, in ornithology, a ſpecies of the MOTACILLA, found in Pennſylvania.

CALENTIUS, Eliſius, a Neapolitan poet and proſe author. He was preceptor to Frederic the ſon of Ferdinand king of Naples, and the earlieſt writer on the illegality of putting criminals to death, for any crime except murder. He died in 1503.

(1.) * CALENTURE. *n. ſ.* [from *calco*, Lat.] A diſtemper peculiar to ſailors in hot climates; wherein they imagine the ſea to be green fields, and will throw themſelves into it. *Quincy.*—

And for that lethargy was there no cure,
But to be caſt into a *calenture*. *Denham.*
So, by a *calenture* milled,
The mariner with rapture ſees,
On the ſmooth ocean's azure bed,
Enamell'd fields, and verdant trees;
With eager haſte, he longs to rove
In that fantaſtic ſcene, and thinks
It muſt be ſome enchanting grove;
And in he leaps, and down he ſinks. *Swift.*

(2.) CALENTURE has been cured by vomiting, bleeding, a ſpare diet, and the neutral ſalts; a ſingle vomit commonly removing the delirium, and the cooling medicines completing the cure. In ſome caſes, however, the ſtimulant plant of cure might be of ſervice.

CALENUS, an epithet applied by Horace and Juvenal to a generous wine, produced in Cales.

CALEPIN, Ambroſius, an Auguſtine monk of Calepio, whence he took his name, in the 16th century. He is author of a dictionary of 8 languages, ſince augmented by Paſſerat and others.

CALES, in ancient geography, a municipal city of ſome note in Campania near Caſilinum.

CALETES, a people of Gallia Celtica, on the confines

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confines of Belgica, fituated between the fea and the Sequana. They inhabited the country now called CAUX.

(1.) CALETURE, a fort in the iſland of Ceylon, at the mouth of the river, N° 2. The Dutch became maſters of it in 1655; but were afterwards obliged to leave it. Lon. 80. 51. E. Lat. 6. 38. N.

(2.) CALETURE, a river in Ceylon.

(1.) * CALF. *n. ſ. calves* in the *plural.* [*cealf*, Saxon; *kalf*, Dutch.] 1. The young of a cow. —The colt hath about four years growth; and ſo the fawn, and ſo the *calf. Bacon's Nat. Hiſtory.*—Acoſta tells us of a fowl in Peru, called condore, which will kill and eat up a whole *calf* at a time. *Wilkins.*—

Ah! Blonzelind, I love thee more by half
Than does their fawns, or cows the new fall'n *calf.* *Gay.*

2. *Calves* of the lips, mentioned by Hoſea, ſignify ſacrifices of praiſe and prayer, which the captives of Babylon addreſſed to God, being no longer in a condition to offer ſacrifices in his temple. *Calnet.*—Turn to the Lord, and ſay unto him, Take away all iniquity, and receive us graciouſly: ſo will we render the *calves* of our lips. *Hoſea*, xiv. 2. 3. By way of contempt and reproach applied to a human being; a dolt; a ſtupid wretch.—

When a child haps to be got,
That after proves an ideot;
When folk perceive it thriveth not,
Some ſilly doating brainleſs *calf*,
That underſtands things by the half,
Says, that the fairy left the oaf,
And took away the other. *Drayt. Nym.*

4. The thick plump, bulbous part of the leg. [*kalf*, Dutch.]—

Into her legs I'd have love's iſſue fall,
And all her *calf* into a gouty ſmall. *Suckling.*

—The *calf* of that leg bliſtered. *Wiſeman's Surg.*

(2.) CALF, in zoology. See BOS, N° IV. § 11. 1. A calf ſhould be allowed to ſuck and follow its mother during the firſt 6 or 8 days. After this it begins to eat pretty well, and two or three licks in a day will be ſufficient. But if the object be to have it quickly fattened for the market, a few raw eggs every day, with boiled milk, and a little bread, will make it excellent veal in 4 or 5 weeks. This management applies only to ſuch calves as are deſigned for the butcher. When intended to be brought up, they ought to have at leaſt two months ſuck; as the longer they ſuck, they grow the ſtronger and larger. Thoſe that are brought forth in April, May, or June, are the moſt proper for this purpoſe; when calved later in the ſeaſon, they do not acquire ſufficient ſtrength to ſupport them during the winter. There are two ways of breeding calves that are intended to be reared. The one is to let the calf run about with its dam all the year round; which is the method in the cheap breeding countries, and is generally allowed to make the beſt cattle. The other is to take them from the dam after they have ſucked about a fortnight; they are then to be taught to drink flat milk, which is to be made but juſt warm, it being very dangerous to give it them too hot. The beſt time of weaning calves is from January to May; they ſhould have milk for 12 weeks after; and a fortnight before that is left off, water ſhould be mixed with the milk in larger and larger quantities. When they have been fed on milk for a month, little wiſps of hay ſhould be placed about them, in cleft ſticks to induce them to eat. In the beginning of April they ſhould be turned out to the graſs: only for a few days they ſhould be taken in for the night, and have milk and water given them; the ſame may alſo be given them in a pale ſometimes in the field, till they are ſo able to feed themſelves that they do not regard it. The graſs they are turned into muſt not be too rank, but ſhort and ſweet, that they may like it, and yet get it with ſome labour. Calves ſhould always be weaned at graſs; for if it be done with hay and water, they often grow big belly'd, and rot. When thoſe among the males are ſelected which are to be kept as bulls, the reſt ſhould be gelded for oxen; the ſooner the better. Between 10 and 20 days is a proper age. About London, almoſt all the calves are fatted for the butcher, as there is a good market for them; and the lands there are not ſo profitable to breed upon as in cheaper countries. The way to make calves fat and fine is, to keep them very clean; give them freſh litter every day; and to hang a large chalk-ſtone, where they can eaſily get at it to lick it, but where it is out of the way of being fouled by the dung and urine. The coops are to be placed ſo as not to have too much ſun upon them, and ſo high above the ground that the urine may run off. Some bleed them once when they are a month old, and a 2d time before they kill them; which is a great addition to the beauty and whiteneſs of their fleſh; the bleeding is by ſome repeated much oftener, but this is ſufficient. Calves are very apt to be looſe in their bowels; which waſtes and very much injures them. The remedy is to give them chalk ſcraped among milk, pouring it down with a horn. If it does not ſucceed, give them bole armeniac in large doſes, and uſe the cold bath every morning. If a cow will not let a ſtrange calf ſuck her, the common method is to rub both her noſe and the calf's with a little brandy; which generally reconciles them.

(3.) CALF, GOLDEN, an idol ſet up and worſhipped by the Iſraelites at the foot of mount Sinai. Our verſion makes Aaron faſhion this calf with a graving tool after he had caſt it in a mould: the Geneva tranſlation makes him engrave it firſt, and caſt it afterwards. Others, render the whole verſe thus; "And Aaron received them (the golden earings), and tied them up in a bag, and got them caſt into a molten calf;" which verſion is authoriſed by the different ſenſes of the word *tzur*, which ſignifies to tie up or bind, as well as to ſhape or form; and of the word *cherret*, which is uſed both for a graving tool and a bag. See AARON. Some of the ancient fathers have been of opinion that this idol had only the face of a calf, and the ſhape of a man from the neck downwards, in imitation of the Egyptian Iſis. Others have thought it was only the head of an ox without a body. But the moſt general opinion is, that it was an entire calf in imitation of the Apis worſhipped by the Egyptians; among whom the Iſraelites had acquired their propenſity to idolatry. This calf Moſes is ſaid to have *burnt with fire*, grou[nd]

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ground to powder, and ſtrewed upon the water which the people were to drink. How this could be accompliſhed hath been a queſtion. Many have thought, that as gold is indeſtructible, it could only be burnt by the miraculous power of God; but M. Stahl conjectures, that Moſes diſſolved it by means of liver of ſulphur. See CHEMISTRY, *Index*. M. Voltaire, in his *Eſſay on Toleration*, (in other reſpects an excellent work,) argues much upon the *impoſſibility of grinding to powder* ſo ductile a metal as gold; but any goldſmith could have informed him, that nothing is eaſier; for the pureſt gold may at any time be made as brittle as glaſs, by mixing with it a ſmall quantity of braſs:—nay, ſuch an antipathy exiſts between the two metals, that gold, in working, will often become quite unmalleable, by only accidentally touching a piece of braſs, while it is warm. And if we ſuppoſe the Egyptian goldſmiths to have been as fond of profit, as the modern jewellers of Europe, it is probable they might have put braſs pins (a practice now not uncommon) in the joints of the gold ear-rings, which they had ſold or lent to the Hebrew ladies; in which caſe, the whole maſs being melted together, when the calf was made, Moſes would require no miraculous power to enable him to grind it to powder; nor would he even need to throw in any additional quantity of braſs, to render it brittle, when he *burnt*, or *melted* it, (as perhaps the word ſhould be rendered) *with fire*.

(4.) CALF, SEA. See PHOCA.

(1.) CALF-SKINS, in the leather manufacture, are prepared and dreſſed by the tanners, ſkinners, and curriers, who ſell them for the uſe of the ſhoe-makers, ſaddlers, book-binders, and other artificers, who employ them in their ſeveral manufactures. The Engliſh calf-ſkin is much valued abroad, and the commerce thereof very conſiderable in France and other countries; where divers attempts have been made to imitate it, but hitherto in vain. What baffles all endeavours for imitating the Engliſh calf in France is, the ſmallneſs and weakneſs of the calves about Paris; which at 15 days old are not ſo big as the Engliſh ones when newly calved.

(2.) CALF-SKINS DRESSED IN SUMACH are the ſkins of theſe animals curried black on the hair ſide, and dyed of an orange colour on the fleſh ſide, by means of ſumach, chiefly uſed in the making of belts.

CALF'S-SNOUT. See ANTIRRHINUM.

CALHOURN, a village in W. Medina, in the Iſle of Wight.

(1.) CALI, a town of South America, in Popayan, ſeated in the valley, (N° 2.) on the river Cauca. The governor of the province uſually reſides in it. Lon. 77. 5. W. Lat. 3. 15. N.

(2.) CALI, a valley in Popayan.

(3.) CALI. See KALI.

(1.) * CALIBER. *n. ſ.* [*calibre*, Fr.] The bore; the diameter of the barrel of a gun; the diameter of a bullet.

(2.) CALIBER, or CALIPER, properly denotes the diameter of any body; thus we ſay, two columns of the ſame caliber; the caliber of a bullet, &c.

(3.) CALIBER COMPASSES, CALIPER COMPASSES, or CALLIPERS, a ſort of compaſſes made with arched legs to take the diameter of round or ſwelling bodies. See COMPASSES. Caliber compaſſes, are chiefly uſed by gunners, for taking the diameters of the ſeveral parts of a piece of ordnance, or of the bombs, bullets, &c. See § 4, 5. Their legs are therefore circular; and move on an arch of braſs, whereon is marked the inches and half inches, to ſhow how far the points of the compaſſes are opened aſunder. The gaugers alſo ſometimes uſe calibers, to embrace the two heads of any caſk, in order to find its length. The calibers uſed by carpenters and joiners, are a piece of board notched triangular wiſe in the middle for taking meaſures.

(4.) CALIBER COMPASSES, CALIBER RULE, or GUNNER'S CALLIPERS, are inſtruments where, in a right line is ſo divided as that the firſt part being equal to the diameter of an iron or leaden ball of 1 lb. weight, the other parts are to the firſt as the diameters of balls of 2, 3, 4, &c. pounds are to the diameter of a ball 1 of lb. The caliber is uſed by engineers, from the weight of the ball given, to determine its diameter, or *vice verſa*. The gunner's callipers conſiſt of two thin plates of braſs joined by a rivet, ſo as to move quite round each other: the length from the centre of the joint is between ſix inches and a foot, and the breadth from one to two inches; that of the moſt convenient ſize is about 9 inches long. Many ſcales, tables, and proportions, &c. may be introduced on this inſtrument; but none are eſſential to it, except thoſe for taking the caliber of ſhot and cannon, and for meaſuring the magnitude of ſaliant and entering angles. The moſt complete and beſt ſort of callipers, however, uſually contain the following articles, viz. 1ſt, the meaſure of convex diameters in inches, &c. 2d, of concave diameters; 3d, the weight of iron ſhot of given diameters; 4th, the weight of iron ſhot for given gun bores; 5th, the degrees of a ſemicircle; 6th, the proportion of troy and averdupois weight; 7th, the proportion of Engliſh and French feet and pounds weight; 8th, factors uſed in circular and ſpherical figures; 9th, tables of the ſpecific gravities and weight of bodies; 10th, tables of the quantity of powder neceſſary for the proof and ſervice of braſs and iron guns; 11th, rules for computing the number of ſhot or ſhells in a complete pile; 12th, rules for the fall or deſcent of heavy bodies; 13th, rules for the raiſing of water; 14th, rules for firing artillery and mortars; 15th, a line of inches; 16th, logarithmetic ſcales of numbers, ſines, verſed ſines, and tangents; 17th, a ſectoral line of equal parts, or the line of lines; 18th, a ſectoral line of plants and ſuperficies; and 19th, a ſectoral line of ſolids.

(5.) CALIBER COMPASSES, DESCRIPTION OF. Theſe are fully exhibited in *Plate* L. *fig.* 1. The 4 faces of this inſtrument are diſtinguiſhed by the letters A, B, C and D.—A and D conſiſt of a circular head and leg; B and C conſiſt only of a leg. On the circular head adjoining to the leg of the face A, are diviſions denominated *ſhot diameters*; which ſhow the diſtance in inches and tenths of an inch of the points of the callipers when they are opened; ſo that if a ball not exceeding ten inches be introduced between them, the bevil edge E marks its diameter among theſe diviſions.

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Fig. 4. Certhia - *Cardinal.*

Fig. 5. *Hook-billed* Certhia.

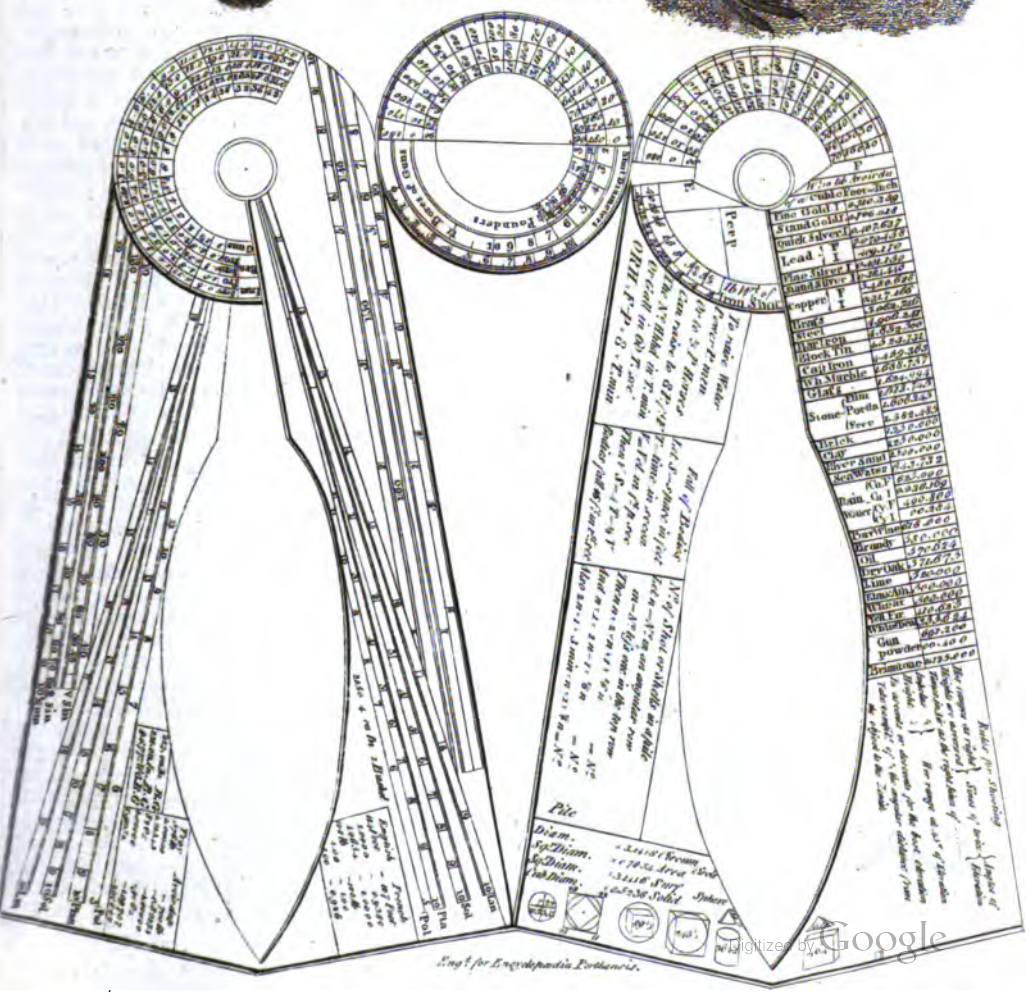
Fig. 7. Culex.

Fig. 6. Charadrius *New Zealand Plover.*

Fig. 3. Cafsida.

Fig. 2. Carabus.

Fig. 1.
Caliber Compafses.



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On the circular bevil part E of the face B is a ſcale of diviſions diſtinguiſhed by *lb. weight of iron ſhot.* When the diameter of any ſhot is taken between the points of the callipers, the inner edge of the leg A ſhows its weight in avoirdupoiſe pounds, provided it be lb. ½, 1, 1½, 2, 3, 4, 5½, 6, 8, 9, 12, 16, 18, 24, 26, 32, 36, or 42; the figures neareſt the bevil edge anſwering to the ſhort lines in the ſcale, and thoſe behind them to the longer ſtrokes. This ſcale is conſtructed on the following geometrical theorem, *viz.* that the weights of ſpheres are as the cubes of their diameters. On the lower part of the circular head of the face A is a ſcale of diviſions marked *bores of guns*; for the uſe of which, the legs of the callipers are flipped acroſs each other, till the ſteel points touch the concave ſurface of the gun in its greateſt breadth; then the bevil edge F of the face B will cut a diviſion in the ſcale ſhowing the diameter of the bore in inches and tenths. Within the ſcales of *ſhot* and *bore* diameters on the circular part of A, are diviſions marked *pounders*: the inner figures ½, 1½, 3, 5½, 8, 12, 18, 26, 36, correſpond to the longeſt lines; and the figures 1, 2, 4, 6, 9, 16, 24, 32, 42, to the ſhort ſtrokes. When the bore of a gun is taken between the points of the callipers, the bevil edge F will either cut or be near one of theſe diviſions, and ſhow the weight of iron-ſhot proper for that gun. On the upper half of the circular head of the face A are three concentric ſcales of degrees; the outer ſcale conſiſting of 180 degrees numbered from right to left 10, 20, &c. the middle numbered the contrary way, and the outer ſcale beginning at the middle with 0, and numbered on each ſide to 90 degrees. Theſe ſcales ſerve to take the quantity of an angle, either entering or ſalient. For an entering or internal angle, apply the legs of the callipers ſo that its outward edges coincide with the legs of the given angle, the degree cut by the bevil edge F in the outer ſcale ſhows the meaſure of the angle ſought: for a ſaliant or external angle, ſlip the legs of the callipers acroſs each other, ſo that their outward edges may coincide with the legs forming the angle, and the degree marked on the middle ſcale by the bevil edge E will ſhow the meaſure of the angle required. The inner ſcale will ſerve to determine the elevation of cannon and mortars, or of any oblique plane. Let one end of a thread be fixed into the notch on the plate B, and any weight tied to the other end: apply the ſtraight ſide of the plate A to the ſide of the body whoſe inclination is ſought; hold it in this poſition, and move the plate B, till the thread falls upon the line near the centre marked *Perp.* Then will the bevil edge F cut the degrees on the inner ſcale, ſhowing the inclination of that body to the horizon. On the face C near the point of the callipers is a little table ſhowing the proportion of troy and avoirdupoiſe weights, by which one kind of weight may be eaſily reduced into another. Near the extreme of the face D of the callipers are two tables ſhowing the proportion between the pounds weight of London and Paris, alſo between the lengths of the foot meaſure of England and France. Near the extreme on the face A is a table containing four rules of the circle and ſphere; and geometrical figures annexed to them; the firſt is a circle including the proportion in round numbers of the diameter to its circumference; the 2d is a circle inſcribed in a ſquare, and a ſquare within that circle, and another circle in the inner ſquare; the numbers 28, 22, above this figure exhibit the proportion of the outward ſquare to the area of the inſcribed circle; and the numbers 14, 11, below it ſhow the proportion between the area of the inſcribed ſquare and the area of its inſcribed circle. The 3d is a cube inſcribed in a ſphere; and the number 89¾ ſhows that a cube of iron, inſcribed in a ſphere of 12 inches in diameter, weighs 89¾. The 4th is a ſphere in a cube, and the 243 expreſſes the weight in pounds of a ſphere inſcribed in a cube whoſe ſide is 12 inches: the 5th repreſents a cylinder and cone of one foot diameter and height: the number in the cylinder ſhows, that an iron cylinder of that diameter and height weighs 364½ lb. and the number 121·5 in the cone expreſſes the weight of a cone, the diameter of whoſe baſe is 12 inches, and of the ſame height; the ſixth figure ſhows that an iron cube, whoſe ſide is 12 inches, weighs 464 lb. and that a ſquare pyramid of iron, whoſe baſe is a ſquare foot and height 12 inches, weighs 254½ lb. The numbers which have been hitherto fixed to the 4 laſt figures were not ſtrictly true; and therefore they have been corrected in the figure here referred to; and by theſe the figures on any inſtrument of this kind ſhould be corrected likewiſe. On the leg B of the callipers, is a table ſhowing the weights of a cubic inch or foot of various bodies in pounds avoirdupoiſe. On the face D of the circular head of the callipers is a table contained between five concentric ſegments of rings: the inner one marked *Guns* ſhows the nature of the gun or the weight of ball it carries; the two next rings contain the quantity of powder uſed for proof and ſervice to braſs guns, and the two outermoſt rings ſhow the quantity for proof and ſervice in iron cannon. On the face A is a table exhibiting the method of computing the *number of ſhot or ſhells* in a triangular ſquare, or rectangular pile. Near this is placed a table containing the principal rules relative to the *fall of bodies*, expreſſed in an algebraic manner: nearer the centre we have another table of rules for raiſing water, calculated on the ſuppoſition, that one horſe is equal in this kind of labour to 5 men, and that one man will raiſe a hogſhead of water to 8 feet of height in one minute, and work at that rate for ſome hours N. B. Hogſheads are reckoned at 60 gallons. Some of the leading principles in gunnery, relating to *ſhooting* in cannon and mortars, are expreſſed on the face B of the callipers. Beſides the articles already enumerated, the ſcales uſually marked on the ſector are laid down on this inſtrument: thus, the line of inches is placed on the edge of the callipers, or on the ſtraight borders of the faces C, D: the logarithmic ſcales of numbers, ſines, verſed ſines, and tangents, are placed along theſe faces near the ſtraight edges: the line of lines is placed on the ſame faces in an angular poſition, and marked *Lin.* The line of plains or ſuperfices are alſo exhibited on the faces C and D, tending towards

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the centre, and marked *Plan*. Finally, the lines of ſolids are laid on the ſame faces tending towards the centre, and diſtinguiſhed by *Sol*.

(6.) CALIBER RULE. See § 4.

CALICAPHA, in botany, a name uſed by ſome for the white thorn. See CRATÆGUS.

* CALICE. *n. ſ.* [*calix*, Lat.] A cup; a chalice.—There is a natural analogy between the ablution of the body and the purification of the ſoul: between eating the holy bread and drinking the ſacred *calice*, and a participation of the body and blood of Chriſt. *Taylor*.

* CALICO. *n. ſ.* [from *Calicut* in India.] An Indian ſtuff made of cotton; ſometimes ſtained with gay and beautiful colours.—I wear the hoop petticoat, and am all in *calicoes*, when the fineſt are in ſilks. *Addiſon's Spectator*.

CALICOULAN. See QUILON.

CALICULARIS, in botany, a name given by ſome to the henbane. See HYOSCIAMUS.

(1.) CALICUT, a kingdom of India, on this ſide the Ganges, upon the coaſt of Malabar. It is about 63 miles long, and equally broad. It has many woods, rivers, and marſhes, and is very populous; but does not produce much corn, abundance of rice being imported from Canara. The land along the ſea-coaſt is low and ſandy, and produces a number of cocoa trees. The higher grounds produce pepper and cardamom of a very good quality; various medical drugs; timber for building; white and yellow ſanders; caſſia lignea; caſſia fiſtula; nux vomica, and coccullus indicus. The woods abound with parrots and monkeys, as well as different kinds of game. The rivers abound with fiſh, and the mountains produce iron. The *ſamorin*, or king, of Calicut, was once maſter of the coaſt of Malabar; but at his death, he left it by will among 4 of his nephews. He who governs Calicut has a palace of ſtone, and there is ſome appearance of grandeur about his court. He carries on a conſiderable trade, which makes the people of Calicut richer than their neighbours. In former times they had ſeveral abſurd cuſtoms, ſome of which are ſtill kept up; particularly the ſamorin's wife muſt be firſt enjoyed by the high prieſt, who may have her 3 nights if he pleaſes. The nobles permit the other prieſts to take the ſame liberty, but the lower people cannot have that *honour*! A woman may marry any number of huſbands; each of whom has her ten days or more by turns, as they agree among themſelves; and provides her all things neceſſary during that time. When ſhe proves with child, ſhe names the father; who, after the child is weaned, takes care of its education. Theſe people have no pens, ink, or paper; but write with a bodkin on flags that grow by the ſides of the rivers. By this means the letters are in ſome ſenſe engraved; and ſo tough are the flags, that they will laſt for a great number of years. This was the firſt land diſcovered by the Portugueſe in 1498. Part of this territory was ceded to Britain in 1792 by Tippoo Saib.

(2.) CALICUT, a town of Aſia, in the above kingdom, N° 1. It was formerly the moſt flouriſhing city on the Malabar coaſt. It contains a great number of low houſes, each of which has a garden. The Engliſh had a factory here, but it is removed to Tilicherry. It lies 320 miles SW. of Fort St George. Lon. 74. 24. E. Lat. 11. 18. N.

* CALID. *adj.* [*calidus*, Lat.] Hot; burning; fervent.

CALIDÆ PLANTÆ, [from *calor*, heat,] plants that are natives of warm climates; ſuch as thoſe of the Eaſt Indies, South America, Egypt, and the Canary Iſlands. Theſe plants ſays Linnæus, will bear a degree of heat which is 40, on a ſcale in which the freezing point is 0, and 100 the heat of boiling water. In the 10th degree of cold they ceaſe to grow, loſe their leaves, become barren and periſh.

CALIDDON, a town of Northumberland.

* CALIDITY. *n. ſ.* [from *calid.*] Heat.—Ice will diſſolve in any way of heat; for it will diſſolve with fire, it will colliquate in water, or warm oil; nor doth it only ſubmit into an actual heat, but not endure the potential *calidity* of many waters. *Brown's Vulgar Errours*.

CALIDUCT, in antiquity, a kind of pipe or canal diſpoſed along the walls of houſes or apartments, uſed by the ancients for conveying heat to ſeveral remote parts of the houſe from one common furnace.

* CALIF. CALIPH. See CALIPH.

(1.) CALIFORNIA, the moſt northerly of all the Spaniſh dominions on the continent of America. It is ſometimes diſtinguiſhed by the name of NEW ALBION, and the ISLAS CARABIRAS: but the moſt ancient appellation is *California*. It was long ſuppoſed to be an iſland; but Caino, a German Jeſuit, diſcovered it to be a peninſula joining the coaſt of New Mexico, and the ſouthern parts of America. This peninſula extends from Cape St Sebaſtian, 43° 20′ to Cape St Lucar in lat. 22° 32′ N. and lies 116° and 138° Lon. W. It is divided from New Mexico by the gulph, or as ſome call it the *lake*, of California, or VERMILION SEA, on the E.; on the N. by that part of the continent of North America, which is leaſt known; and on the W. and S. by the Pacific Ocean. On the coaſts, eſpecially towards the Vermilion Sea, there are many inhabited iſlands, on ſome of which the Jeſuits have eſtabliſhed ſettlements, ſuch as St Clement, Paxaros, St Anne, Cedars, St Joſeph, and a multitude of others. But the iſlands beſt known are 3, lying off Cape St Lucar, towards the Mexican coaſt, called *Les Tres Maries*, the three Maries. They are ſmall, but have good wood and water, ſalt pits, and abundance of game. As California lies altogether within the temperate zone, the natives are neither chilled with cold nor ſcorched with heat; and indeed the improvements in agriculture made by the Jeſuits afford ſtrong proofs of the excellency of the climate. In ſome places, however, the air is extremely hot and dry; and the earth wild, rugged, and barren. In a country ſtretching about 800 miles in length, there muſt be conſiderable variations of ſoil and climate; and indeed we find California exhibits ſome of the moſt beautiful lawns, as well as many of the moſt inhoſpitable deſarts, in the univerſe. Upon the whole, although California is rather rough and craggy, with due culture it furniſhes every neceſſary and convenience of life: and even when the atmoſphere is hotteſt vapours riſing from the ſea, and diſperſed by pleaſant

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pleaſant breezes, render it of a moderate temperature.

(2.) CALIFORNIA, ANIMALS, &c. OF. This peninſula is ſtocked with all ſorts of domeſtic animals known in Spain and Mexico. Among the native animals is a ſpecies of deer of the ſize of a young heifer, and greatly reſembling it in ſhape; the head is like that of a deer, and the horns thick and crooked like thoſe of a ram. The hoof is large, round, and cloven, the ſkin ſpotted, but the hair thinner, and the tail ſharper than thoſe of a deer. Its fleſh is greatly eſteemed. There is another animal peculiar to this country, larger and more bulky than a ſheep, but greatly reſembling it in figure, and covered with a fine black or white wool. The fleſh is nouriſhing and delicious; and, nothing more is required than the trouble of hunting, as theſe animals wander about in droves in the foreſts and on the mountains. Torquemado deſcribes a ſpecies of large bear, ſomething like a buffalo, of the ſize of a ſteer, and nearly of the figure of a ſtag. Its hair is a quarter of a yard in length, its neck long and awkward, and on its forehead are horns branched like thoſe of a ſtag. The tail is a yard in length and half a yard in breadth; and the hoofs cloven like thoſe of an ox. Venegas tells us, that the coaſt is plentifully ſtocked with peacocks, buſtards, geeſe, cranes, and moſt of the birds common in other parts of the world. The quantity of fiſh which reſort to theſe coaſts are incredible. Salmon, turbot, barbel, ſkate, mackerel, &c. are caught with very little trouble; together with pearl and common oyſters, lobſters, and a variety of exquiſite ſhell-fiſh. Plenty of turtle are alſo caught on the coaſts. On the South Sea coaſts are ſome ſhell fiſh peculiar to it, and perhaps the moſt beautiful in the world; their luſtre ſurpaſſing that of the fineſt pearl, and parting their rays through a tranſparent varniſh of an elegant vivid blue, like the lapis lazuli. The fame of California for pearls ſoon drew forth great numbers of adventurers, who ſearched every part of the gulph; and many are ſtill employed in that ſearch, notwithſtanding faſhion has greatly diminiſhed the value of this elegant natural production. Torquemado obſerves that the ſea of California affords very rich pearl fiſheries; and that the HOSTIAS or beds of oyſters, may be ſeen in 3 or 4 fathoms water, almoſt as plain as if they were on the ſurface. The extremity of the peninſula towards Cape St Lucar is more level, temperate, and fertile, than the other parts, and conſequently more woody. In the more diſtant parts, even to the fartheſt miſſions on the E. coaſt, no large timber has yet been diſcovered. A ſpecies of manna is found in this country, which has all the ſweetneſs of refined ſugar, but without its whiteneſs. The natives firmly believe that this juice drops from heaven.

(3.) CALIFORNIA, HISTORY OF. In 1526, Ferdinand Cortez having reduced and ſettled Mexico, attempted the conqueſt of California; but was obliged to return, without even taking a ſurvey of the country, a report of his death having diſpoſed the Mexicans to a general inſurrection. Some other attempts were made by the officers of Cortez, but theſe were alſo unſucceſsful; and this valuable coaſt was long neglected by the Spaniards, who, to this day, have but one ſettlement upon it. In 1595, a galleon was ſent to make new diſcoveries on the Californian ſhore; but the veſſel was unfortunately loſt. Seven years after, the count de Monteroy, then viceroy of New Spain, ſent Sebaſtian Biſcayno on the ſame deſign with two ſhips and a tender; but he made no diſcovery of importance. In 1684, the marquis de Laguna, alſo viceroy of New Spain, diſpatched two ſhips with a tender to make diſcoveries on the lake of California. He returned with an indifferent account, but was one of the firſt who aſſerted that California was not an iſland. In 1697, the Spaniards being diſcouraged by their loſſes and diſappointments, the Jeſuits ſolicited and obtained permiſſion to undertake the conqueſt of California. They arrived among the ſavages with curioſities that might amuſe them, corn for their food, and clothes for which they could not but perceive the neceſſity. The hatred theſe people bore the Spaniſh name could not ſupport itſelf againſt theſe demonſtrations of benevolence. They teſtified their acknowledgments, as much as their want of ſenſibility would permit them. The Jeſuits purſued their projects with the warmth and reſolution peculiar to their ſociety. They commenced carpenters, maſons, weavers, and huſbandmen; and by ſuch means ſucceeded in imparting knowledge, and in ſome meaſure a taſte for the uſeful arts, to this ſavage people, who have been all ſucceſſively formed into one body. In 1745, they compoſed 43 villages, ſeparated from each other by the barrenneſs of the ſoil and the want of water. The inhabitants of theſe ſmall villages ſubſiſt principally on corn and pulſe, which they cultivate; and on the fruits and domeſtic animals of Europe, the breeding of which is an object of continual attention. The Indians have each their field, and the property of what they reap; but ſuch is their want of foreſight, that they would ſquander in a day what they had gathered, if the miſſionaries did not diſtribute it to them as they ſtand in need of it. They manufacture ſome coarſe ſtuffs; and the neceſſaries they need are purchaſed with pearls, and with wine nearly reſembling that of Madeira, which they ſell to the Mexicans and to the galleons, but which experience hath ſhown the neceſſity of prohibiting in California. A few ſimple laws are ſufficient to regulate this riſing ſtate. To enforce theſe, the miſſionary chooſes the moſt intelligent perſon of the village; who is empowered to whip and impriſon; the only puniſhments of which they have any knowledge. In all California there are only two garriſons, each conſiſting of 30 men and a ſoldier with every miſſionary. Theſe troops were choſen by the legiſlators, though they are paid by the government. Were the court of Madrid to puſh their intereſt with half the zeal of the Jeſuits, California might become one of the moſt valuable of their acquiſitions, on account of the valuable articles of commerce which it contains. At preſent the little Spaniſh town near Cape St Lucar is uſed for no other purpoſe, than as a place of refreſhment for the Manilla ſhips, and the head reſidence of the miſſionaries.

(4.) CALIFORNIA, INHABITANTS OF. The Ca-

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lifornians are well made, and very ſtrong. They are ſaid to be extremely puſillanimous, inconſtant, ſtupid, and even inſenſible. Before the Europeans penetrated into California, the natives had no form of religion. The miſſionaries indeed tell us many tales concerning them, but they evidently bear the marks of forgery. Each nation was then an aſſemblage of ſeveral cottages more or leſs numerous, all confederated by alliances, but without any chief. They were ſtrangers even to filial obedience. No kind of dreſs was uſed by the men; but the women made uſe of ſome coverings, and were even fond of ornamenting themſelves with pearls and ſuch trinkets as the country afforded. What moſtly diſplayed their ingenuity was the conſtruction of their fiſhing nets, which are ſaid by the Jeſuits to have even exceeded in goodneſs thoſe made in Europe. They were made by the women, of a coarſe kind of flax procured from ſome plants which grow there. Their houſes were built of branches and leaves of trees; nay, many of them were only incloſures of earth and ſtone, raiſed half a yard high, without any covering; and even theſe were ſo ſmall, that they could not ſtretch themſelves at length in them. In winter they dwelt in caves under ground.

(5.) CALIFORNIA, LAKE OF GULF OF. See § 1.

CALIFORNIANS. See CALIFORNIA, § 4.

CALIGÆ, in Roman antiquity, ſoldiers ſhoes, made like ſandals, without upper leather to cover the ſuperior part of the foot, though otherwiſe reaching to the middle of the leg, and faſtened with thongs. The ſole of the caliga was of wood, like the *ſabot* of the French peaſants, and its bottom ſtuck full of nails; which are ſuppoſed to have been very long in the ſhoes of the ſcouts and ſentinels; whence theſe were called *caligæ ſpeculatoriæ*; as if by mounting the wearer to a higher pitch, they gave a greater advantage to the ſight: though others will have the *caligæ ſpeculatoriæ* to have been made ſoft and woolly, to prevent their making a noiſe. From theſe *caligæ* the emperor Caligula took his name, as having been born in the army, and afterwards bred up in the habit of a ſoldier. According to Du Cange, a ſort of *caligæ* was alſo worn by monks and biſhops, when they celebrated maſs pontifically.

CALIGATI, an appellation given by ſome ancient writers to the common ſoldiers in the Roman armies, from the CALIGÆ which they wore.

CALIGATIO. See CALIGO.

* CALIGATION. *n. ſ.* [from *caligo*, Lat. to be dark.] Darkneſs; cloudineſs.—Inſtead of a diminution, or imperfect viſion, in the mole, we affirm an abolition, or total privation; inſtead of *caligation*, or dimneſs, we conclude a cecity, or blindneſs. *Brown.*

* CALIGINOUS. *adj.* [*caliginoſus*, Lat.] Obſcure; dim; full of darkneſs.

* CALIGINOUSNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *caliginous.*] Darkneſs; obſcurity.

CALIGO, or CALIGATIO, in medicine, an opacity, or cloudineſs of the anterior ſurface of the cryſtalline, cauſing a dimneſs or ſuffuſion of ſight.

* CALIGRAPHY. *n. ſ.* [καλλιγραφία.] Beautiful writing.—This language is incapable of *caligraphy*. *Prideaux.*

CALIGULA, the Roman emperor and tyrant, began his reign A. D. 37, with every promiſing appearance of becoming the real father of his people; but at the end of 8 months he was ſeized with a fever, which, it is thought, left a frenzy on his mind: for his diſpoſition totally changed, and he committed the moſt atrocious acts of impiety, cruelty, and folly; ſuch as proclaiming his horſe conſul, feeding it at his table, introducing it to the temple in the veſtments of the prieſts of Jupiter, &c. and cauſing ſacrifices to be offered to himſelf, his wife, and the horſe. After having murdered many of his ſubjects with his own hands, and cauſed others to be put to death without any juſt cauſe, he was aſſaſſinated by a tribune of the people as he came out of the amphitheatre, A. D. 41, in the 29th year of his age, and the 4th of his reign.

CALIN, a compound metal, whereof the Chineſe make tea caniſters, and the like. The ingredients ſeem to be lead and tin.

(1.) * CALIPERS. See CALLIPERS.

(2.) CALIPERS. See CALIBER, § 2—5.

(1.) * CALIPH. *n. ſ.* [*khaliſa*, Arab. an heir or ſucceſſor.] A title aſſumed by the ſucceſſors of Mahomet among the Saracens, who were veſted with abſolute power in affairs both religious and civil.

(2.) CALIPH. See KHALIF.

CALIPHATE. See KHALIFATE.

CALIPPIC PERIOD, in chronology, a ſeries of 76 years, perpetually recurring; which elapſed the middle of the new and full moons, as its inventor Calippus, an Athenian, imagined, return to the ſame day of the ſolar year. Meton, 100 years before, had invented the period, or cycle, of 19 years; aſſuming the quantity of the ſolar year $365d.\ 6h.\ 18'\ 56''\ 50'''\ 31''''\ 34'''''$; and the lunar month, $29d.\ 12h.\ 45'\ 47''\ 26'''\ 48''''\ 30'''''$: but Calippus, conſidering that the Metonic quantity of the ſolar year was not exact, multiplied Meton's period by 4, and thence aroſe a period of 76 years, called the *Calippic*. The Calippic period, therefore, contains 27,559 days; and ſince the lunar cycle contains 235 lunations, and the *Calippic period* is quadruple of this, it contains 940 lunations. This period began in the 3d year of the 112th Olympiad, or the 4384th of the Julian period. It is demonſtrated, however, that the Calippic period itſelf is not accurate; that it does not bring the new and full moons preciſely to their places: $8h.\ 5'\ 52''\ 60'''$, being the exceſs of 940 lunations above 76 ſolar years; but brings them too late, by a whole day in 225 years.

CALIPPUS. See laſt article.

CALISTA. See CALLISTO.

CALISTOBLE, a river of Florida, which runs into the Gulf of Mexico.

* CALIVER. *n. ſ.* [from *caliber.*] A handgun; a harquebuſe; an old muſket.—

Come, manage me your *caliver*. *Sh. Hen.* IV.

(1.) * CALIX. *n. ſ.* [Lat.] A cup: a word uſed in botany; as, the *calix* of a flower.

(2.) CALIX, or CALYX. See BOTANY, *Index.*

(1.) CALIXTINS, a name given to thoſe, among the Lutherans, who follow the ſentiments of Calixtus. See CALIXTUS and SYNCRETISTS.

(2.) CALIXTINS, [from *calix*, a cup,] a ſect in Bohemia, derived from the Huſſites, about the middle

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middle of the 15th century, who asserted the use of the cup, as essential to the eucharist. They are not ranked by Romanists in the list of heretics, as in the main they still adhered to the doctrine of Rome. The reformation they aimed at extended only to 4 articles: 1. To restore the cup to the laity: 2. To subject criminal clergymen to punishment by the civil magistrate: 3. To strip the clergy of their lands, lordships, and all temporal jurisdiction: 4. To grant liberty to all capable priests to preach the word of God.

CALIXTUS, George, a celebrated divine, and professor at Helmstadt, in the duchy of Brunswick, who died in 1656. He opposed the opinion of St Augustin, on predestination, grace, and free-will, and endeavoured to form an union among the various members of the Romish, Lutheran, and reformed churches; or, rather, to join them in the bonds of mutual forbearance and charity.

* *To* CALK. *v. a.* [from *calage*, Fr. hemp, with which leaks are stopped; or from *cæle*, Sax. the keel, *Skinner.*] To stop the leaks of a ship.—There is a great errour committed in the manner of *calking* his majesty's ships; which being done with rotten oakum, is the cause they are leaky. *Raleigh's Essays.*—

So here some pick out bullets from the side;
Some drive old oakum through each seam and rift;
Their left-hand does the *calking* iron guide,
The rattling mallet with the right they lift.
Dryden.

CALKA, a kingdom of Tartary, in Asia, E. of Siberia.

CALKE-ABBEY, a village near Derby.

* CALKER. *n. s.* [from *calk.*] The workman that stops the leaks of a ship.—The ancients of Gebal, and the wise men thereof, were in thee thy *calkers*; all the ships of the sea, with their mariners, were in thee to occupy thy merchandize. *Ezek.* xxvii. 9.

(1.) * CALKING. *n. s.* A term in painting, used where the back side is covered with black lead, or red chalk, and the lines traced through on a waxed plate, wall, or other matter, by passing lightly over each stroke of the design with a point, which leaves an impression of the colour on the plate or wall. *Chambers.*

(2.) CALKING. See CAULKING.

CALKINS, the prominent parts at the extremities of a horse-shoe, bent downwards, and forged to a sort of point. They are apt to make horses trip; they also occasion bleymes, and ruin the back sinews. If fashioned in form of a hare's ear, and the horn of a horse's heel be pared a little low, they do little damage; whereas, the great square calkins quite spoil the foot. Calkins are either single or double, that is, at one end of the shoe, or at both: these last are deemed less hurtful, as the horses can tread more even.

(1.) * CALL. *n. s.* [from the verb.] 1. A vocal address of summons or invitation.—

But death comes not at *call*, justice divine
Mends not her slowest pace, for pray'rs or cries.
Milton.

But would you sing, and rival Orpheus' strain,
The wond'ring forests soon should dance again:
The moving mountains hear the pow'rful *call*,
And headlong streams hang list'ning in their fall.
Pope.

2. Requisition authoritative and public.—It may be feared, whether our nobility would contentedly suffer themselves to be always at the *call*, and to stand to the sentence of a number of mean persons. *Hooker's Preface.* 3. Divine vocation; summons to true religion.—

Yet he at length, time to himself best known,
Rememb'ring Abraham, by some wond'rous *call*,
May bring them back repentant and sincere.
Milton.

4. A summons from heaven; an impulse.—

How justly then will impious mortals fall,
Whose pride would soar to heav'n without a *call*?
Roscommon.

Those who to empire by dark paths aspire,
Still plead a *call* to what they most desire. *Dryd.*

—St Paul himself believed he did well, and that he had a *call* to it, when he persecuted the christians, whom he confidently thought in the wrong: but yet it was he, and not they, who were mistaken. *Locke.* 5. Authority; command.—Oh! Sir, I wish he were within my *call*, or yours. *Denham.* 6. A demand; a claim.—Dependence is a perpetual *call* upon humanity, and a greater incitement to tenderness and pity, than any other motive whatsoever. *Addis. Spectator.* 7. An instrument to call birds.—For those birds or beasts were made from such pipes or *calls*, as may express the several tones of those creatures, which are represented. *Wilkin's Mathematical Magick.* 8. Calling; vocation; employment.—

Now through the land, his cure of souls he stretch'd,
And, like a primitive apostle, preach'd:
Still cheerful, ever constant to his *call*;
By many follow'd, lov'd by most, admir'd by all.
Dryden.

9. A nomination.—Upon the sixteenth was held the serjeants feast at Ely place, there being nine serjeants of that *call*. *Bacon.*

(2.) CALL, among fowlers, the noise or cry of a bird, especially to its young, or to its mate in coupling time. One method of catching partridges is by the natural call of a hen trained for the purpose, which drawing the cocks to her, they are entangled in a net. Different birds require different sorts of calls; but most of them are composed of a pipe or reed, with a little leathern bag or purse, somewhat in form of a bellows; which, by the motion given thereto, yields a noise like that of the species of bird to be taken. The call for partridges is formed like a boat bored through, and fitted with a pipe or swan's quill, &c. to be blown with the mouth, to make the noise of the cock partridge, which is very different from the call of the hen. Calls for quails, &c. are made of a leathern purse in shape like a pear, stuffed with horse-hair, and fitted at the end with the bone of a cat's, hare's, or coney's leg, formed like a flageolet. They are played, by squeezing the purse in the palm of the hand, at the same time striking on the flageolet part with the thumb, to counterfeit the call of the hen quail.

(3.) CALL,

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(3.) CALL, among hunters, a leſſon blown upon the horn, to comfort the hounds.

(4.) CALL, among ſailors, a ſort of whiſtle or pipe, of ſilver or braſs, uſed by the boatſwain and his mates to ſummon the ſailors to their duty, and direct them in the different employments of the ſhip. As the call can be ſounded to various ſtrains, each of them is appropriated to ſome particular exerciſe; ſuch as hoiſting, heaving, lowering, veering away, belaying, letting go a tackle, &c. The act of winding this inſtrument is called *piping*, which is as attentively obſerved by ſailors as the beat of the drum to march, retreat, rally, charge, &c. is by ſoldiers.

(5.) CALL, an Engliſh name for the mineral called Tungſten or Wolfram by the Germans.

(6.) CALL OF THE HOUSE, in the Britiſh Parliament, is the calling over the names of the members, either to diſcover whether there be any in the houſe not returned by the clerk of the crown; or what members are abſent without leave of the houſe, or juſt cauſe. In the former caſe, every perſon anſwers to his name, and departs out of the houſe, in the order wherein he is called. In the latter, each perſon ſtands up uncovered, at the mention of his name.

(1.) * *To* CALL. *v. a.* [*calo*, Lat. *kalder*, Dan.] 1. To name, to denominate.—And God *called* the light day, and the darkneſs he *called* night. *Gen.* i. 5. 2. To ſummon, or invite, to or from any place, thing or perſon. It is often uſed with local particles; as, *up*, *down*, *in*, *out*, *off*.—Be not amazed, *call* all your ſenſes to you, defend my reputation, or bid farewel to your good life for ever. *Shakeſp.* —Why came not the ſlave back to me when I *called* him? *Shakeſp. King Lear.*—

Are you *call'd* forth from out a world of men,
To ſlay the innocent? *Shakeſp. Richard* III.

—Lodronius, that famous captain, was *called up*, and told by his ſervants, that the general was fled. *Knolles's Hiſtory.*—

Or *call up* him that left half told
The ſtory of Cambuſcan bold. *Milton.*

—Drunkenneſs *calls off* the watchmen from their towers; and then evils proceeds from a looſe heart and an untied tongue. *Taylor's Holy Living.*—The ſoul makes uſe of her memory, to *call* to mind what ſhe is to treat of. *Duppa's Rules to Devotion.*

Such fine employments our whole days divide,
The ſalutations of the morning tide
Call up the ſun; thoſe ended, to the hall
We wait the patron, here the lawyers bawl.
Dryden.

Then, by conſent, abſtain from further ſpoils,
Call off the dogs, and gather up the ſpoils. *Addiſ.*

—By the pleaſures of the imagination or fancy, I mean ſuch as ariſe from viſible objects, when we *call up* their ideas into our minds by paintings, ſtatues, or deſcriptions. *Addiſon's Spectator.*—

Why doſt thou *call* my ſorrows *up* afreſh!
My father's name brings tears into my eyes.
Addiſon's Cato.

—I am *called off* from public diſſertations, by a domeſtic affair of great importance. *Tatler.*—Æſchylus has a tragedy entitled *Perſæ*, in which the ſhade of Darius is *called up*. *Broome on the Odyſſey.* —The paſſions *call away* the thoughts, with inceſſant importunity, toward the object that excited them. *Watts.* 3. To convoke; to ſummon together.—

Now *call* we our high court of parliament.
Shakeſpeare.

—The king being informed of much that had paſſed that night, ſent to the lord mayor to *call* a common council immediately. *Clarend.* 4. To ſummon judicially.—The king had ſent for the earl to return home, where he ſhould be *called* to account for all his miſcarriages. *Clarend.*—Once a day, eſpecially in the early years of life and ſtudy, *call* yourſelves to an account, what new ideas, what new propoſition or truth, you have gained. *Watts.* 5. To ſummon by command.—In that day did the Lord God of hoſts *call* to weeping, and to mourning, and to baldneſs, and to girding with ſackcloth. *Iſaiah* xxii. 12. 6. In the theological ſenſe, to inſpire with ardours of piety, or to ſummon into the church.—Paul, a ſervant of Jeſus Chriſt, *called* to be an apoſtle, ſeparated unto the goſpel of God. *Rom.* i. 1. 7. To invoke; to appeal to.—I *call* God for a record upon my ſoul, that, to ſpare you, I came not as yet unto Corinth. 2 *Cor.* i. 23. 8. To appeal to.—When that lord perplexed their counſels and deſigns, with inconvenient objections in law, the authority of the lord Mancheſter, who had trod the ſame paths, was ſtill *called* upon. *Clarend.* 9. To proclaim; to publiſh.—

Nor ballad-ſinger, plac'd above the croud,
Sings with a note ſo ſhrilling, ſweet, and loud,
Nor pariſh clerk, who *calls* the pſalm ſo clear.
Gay.

10. To excite; to put in action; to bring into view.—

He ſwells with angry pride,
And *calls* forth all his ſpots on every ſide. *Cowley.*

See Dionyſius Homer's thoughts refine,
And *call* new beauties forth from ev'ry line. *Pope.*

11. To ſtigmatize with ſome opprobrious denomination.—Deafneſs unqualifies me for all company, except friends; whom I can *call* names, if they do not ſpeak loud enough. *Swift to Pope.* 12. *To call back.* To revoke; to retract.—He alſo is wiſe, and will bring evil, and will not *call back* his words; but will ariſe againſt the houſe of the evil doers; and againſt the help of them that work iniquity. *Iſaiah* xxxi. 2. 13. *To call for.* To demand; to require; to claim.—

Madam, his majeſty doth *call for* you,
And *for* your grace, and you my noble lord.
Shakeſpeare.

—You ſee, how men of merit are ſought after; the undeſerver may ſleep, when the man of action is *called for*. *Shakeſpeare.*

Among them he a ſpirit of phrenſy ſent,
Who hurt their minds,
And urg'd you on with mad deſire,
To *call* in haſte *for* their deſtroyer. *Milt. Agon.*

For maſter, or *for* ſervant, here to *call*,
Was all alike, where only two were all.
Dryden's Fables.

—He commits every ſin that his appetite *calls for*, or perhaps his conſtitution or fortune can bear. *Rogers.* 14. *To call in.* To reſume money at intereſt.—Horace deſcribes an old uſurer, as ſo charmed with the pleaſures of a country life, that in order to make a purchaſe, he *called in* all his money;

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money; but what was the event of it? why, in a very few days after, he put it out again. *Addison's Spect.* 15. *To call in.* To resume any thing that is in other hands.—If clipped money be *called in* all at once, and stopped from passing by weight, I fear it will stop trade. *Locke.*—Neither is any thing more cruel and oppressive in the French government, than their practice of *calling in* their money, after they have sunk it very low, and then coining it anew, at a higher value. *Swift.* 16. *To call in.* To summon together; to invite.—

The heat is past, follow me no farther now;
Call in the pow'rs, good cousin Westmoreland.
Shakespeare.

He fears my subjects loyalty,
And now must *call in* strangers. *Denh. Sophy.* 17. *To call over.* To read aloud a list or muster-roll.

(2.) * *To* CALL. *v. n.* 1. To stop without intention of staying. This meaning probably rose from the custom of denoting one's presence at the door by a *call*; but it is now used with great latitude. This sense is well enough preserved by the particles *on* or *at*; but it is forgotten, and the expression made barbarous by *in*. 2. To make a short visit.—

And, as you go, *call on* my brother Quintus,
And pray him, with the tribunes, to come to me.
Ben Jonson.

—He ordered her to *call at* his house once a-week, which she did for some time after, when he heard no more of her. *Temple.*—That I might begin as near the fountain-head as possible, I first of all *called in* at St James's. *Addison's Spectator.*—We *called in* at Morge, where there is an artificial port. *Addison on Italy.* 3. *To call on.* To solicit for favour, or a debt.—I would be loth to pay him before his day; what need I be so forward with him, that *calls* not *on* me? *Shak. Henry IV.* 4. *To call on.* To repeat solemnly.—

Thrice *call upon* my name, thrice beat your breast,
And hail me thrice to everlasting rest. *Dryden.*

—The Athenians, when they lost any men at sea, went to the shores, and, *calling* thrice *on* their names, raised a cenotaph, or empty monument, to their memories. *Broome on the Odyssey.* 5. *To call out.* To challenge; to summon to fight.—

When their sov'reign's quarrel *calls* 'em *out*,
His foes to mortal combat they defy. *Dryd. Virg.* 6. *To call upon.* To implore; to pry to.—*Call upon* me in the day of trouble; I will deliver thee, and thou shalt glorify me. *Psalm* l. 15.

CALLA, AFRICAN or ETHIOPIAN ARUM: A genus of the polyandria order, in the gynandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 2d order, Piperitæ. The spatha is plain; the spadix covered with florets; there is no calyx; no petals; and the berries monosperm-ous. There is but one species. It has thick, fleshy, tuberous roots, which are covered with a thin brown skin, and strike down many strong fleshy fibres into the ground. The leaves have footstalks more than a foot long, which are green and succulent. The leaves are shaped like the point of an arrow; they are 8 or 9 inches long, ending in a sharp point, which turns backward; between the leaves arise the footstalk of the flower, which is thick, smooth, of the same colour as the leaves, rises above them, and is terminated by a single flower, shaped like those of the arum; the spatha is twisted at bottom, but spreads open at the top, and is of a pure white colour. When the flowers fade, they are succeeded by roundish fleshy berries, compressed on two sides, each containing 2 or 3 seeds. This plant grows naturally at the Cape of Good Hope. It propagates very fast by offsets, which should be taken off in the end of August, at which time the old leaves decay; for at this time the roots are in their most inactive state. They are so hardy as to live without any cover in mild winters, if planted in a warm border and dry soil; but, with a little shelter they may be preserved in full growth, even in hard frost.

CALLAA, a town of Barbary, in Tremesen.

CALLAGHANS MILLS, a village of Ireland, in Clare county, Munster.

CALLAGHENE, in Fermanagh, Ireland.

CALLALY HALL, a village of England, 4 m. W. of Alnwick, Northumberland.

(1.) CALLAN, a mountain of Clare, Ireland.

(2, 3.) CALLAN, two towns of Ireland; 1. in Kerry; and 2. in Kilkenny, 65 m. from Dublin.

(1.) CALLANDER, a parish of Scotland in Perthshire, of which the rev. Dr James Robertson, the minister, has given a very complete description, in Sir J. Sinclair's *Stat. Acc.* Vol. XI. The most probable etymology is from *Caldin-doiry* Gael. *i. e. a hazel grove*; these trees abounding in the parish. It consists of the two ancient parishes of LENEY and INCHMAHOMO. It extends from E. to W. about 24 miles in length, and its breadth at the E. end is about 15; resembling in form, a fan half spread. It is situated between 1° 0′ and 1° 24′ Lon. W. of Edinburgh, and between 56° 15′ and 56° 21′ Lat. N. Its surface is mountainous, and was formerly quite bleak with heath, but by the introduction of sheep, has assumed a verdant hue within these 36 years. The high grounds are also interspersed with thriving oak woods and plantations; and the bold stupendous rock above the village diversifies the scene and forms a fine contrast to the valley, and the meanderings of the river TEATH below. In a word, for beautiful scenery, romantic prospects, and diversified assemblage of the wildness and rude grandeur of nature, few, if any places in Britain, (perhaps in the world,) excel the parish of Callander. See BEN-LÉDI, and TROSACHS. It affords a fine field, both for the botanist and mineralogist; and abounds in lime-stone, marble, slates, free-stone, and a beautiful species of cemented rock, called the PLUMB-PUDDING stone. The climate is highly salubrious, and the people live to a great age. Instances of persons reaching 100 and upwards are not wanting. The population in 1791 was 2100, and had increased 350, since 1755, notwithstanding emigrations. At that period there were 350 horses, 18,000 sheep, and 2400 black cattle in the parish. Of the animals called game there are great numbers. The soil is a light gravel, not rich, but greatly improved, agriculture being in a very advanced state, and feudal services abolished. The roads and bridges are good; but manufactures are greatly wanted. There

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There are 9 mills of various kinds, and 3 kilns in the parish. Wood to the value of about L. 15,000 is cut once in 25 years. The inhabitants are industrious and extremely charitable. Their language is the Gaelic. English is spoken only by those of rank and education.

(2.) CALLANDER, a thriving village in the above parish, (N° 1.) containing 190 families, and about 1000 inhabitants, in 1791. The houses are built upon a regular plan, with stones and lime, and covered with blue slates. It is ornamented with an elegant church, which was built about 24 years ago, and has a spire. It has also a good school, where the learned languages, and all the useful sciences are taught, on moderate terms. About 80 scholars from all parts of Britain, and some from abroad, attend it. The prosperity of this village is greatly owing to Mr Drummond of Perth the proprietor, who has feued the ground to the inhabitants, in small lots of one rood each, at L. 7. 10s. premium, and 5s. yearly feu duty; and thus made the whole village the property of the inhabitants. He also allows them moss, thatch, and stones free; and has relieved them from imposts, &c. at the fairs; of which there are two great ones, held 21st March, O. S. and 16th May; besides 3 smaller, for country business. The only manufactures are the spinning of woollen and linen yarn. The village is protected from the blasts of Boreas, by a stupenduous rock, stuck full of firs and natural wood, growing in the soil between the shelves. Over this rock falls a cascade, several hundred feet high.

CALLAO, a strong town of South America, in Peru. It is the port of Lima, from which it is distant about 5 miles. The town is built on a low flat point of land on the sea-shore. It is fortified; but the fortifications were much damaged by the last great earthquake, and have not since been repaired. The town is not above 9 or 10 feet above the level of the sea. The tide does not commonly rise or fall above 5 feet. The streets are drawn in a line; but are full of dust, which is very troublesome. In a square near the sea-side are the governor's house, the viceroy's palace, the parish church, and a battery of 3 pieces of cannon. On the N. side are the warehouses for the merchandise brought from Chili, Mexico, Peru, and other places. The other churches are built with reeds, and covered with timber or clay, but they look tolerably neat. There are 5 monasteries and an hospital, though the number of families does not exceed 400. The trade of Callao is considerable. From Chili it imports cordage, leather, tallow, dried fish, and corn; from Chiloe, cedar planks, woollen manufactures, and carpets; from Peru, sugars, wines, brandy, masts, cordage, timber for shipping, cacao, tobacco and molasses; from Mexico, pitch, tar, woods for dyeing, sulphur and balsam of Peru; besides commodities from China. At the port of Callao the watering is easy, but the wood is a mile or two distant. Earthquakes are frequent and have done vast mischief to Lima and Callao. Lon. 76. 15. W. Lat. 12. 29. S.

CALLA-SUJUNG, or CALLA-SUSUNG, a town of Asia, in the island of Bouton, seated about a mile from the sea, on the top of a small hill surrounded with cocoa nut trees. See BOUTON.

* CALLAT, CALLET. *n. f.* a trull.—

He call'd her whore: a beggar, in his drink,
Could not have laid such terms upon his *callet*.
Shakespeare.

CALLE, in ancient geography, a town of Hither Spain, seated on an eminence, which hung over the river Durius. It is now called OPORTO.

CALLEN, a town of Ireland in Kilkenny, 10 m. SW. of Kilkenny. Lon. 7. 22. W. Lat. 52. 25. N.

* CALLET. See CALLAT.

CALLEVA, in ancient British geography, a town of the Attrebates; now called WALLINGFORD. See ATREBATES, N° 2.

CALLIAS, the cousin german of Aristides the Just, but of a character the very opposite of that disinterested hero. At the battle of Marathon, Callias being a torch-bearer, and in virtue of his office, having a fillet on his head, one of the Persians took him for a king, and, falling down at his feet, discovered to him a vast quantity of gold hid in a well. Callias not only seized, and applied it to his own use, but had the cruelty to kill the poor man who discovered it to him, that he might not mention it to others; by which infamous action he entailed on his posterity the name of LACCOPLUTI, or *enriched by the evil*. The only good action recorded of him is his generosity in relieving his brother-in-law, Cimon, from prison, by paying the heavy fine to which he was so unjustly and ungratefully subjected by the Athenians. See ATTICA, § 9, & 11.

CALLIBLEPHARA, [from καλλος, beauty, and βλεφαρον, eye-lid,] in ancient medical writers, a name given to certain compositions intended to make the eye-lids beautiful.

CALLICARPA. See JOHNSONIA.

CALLICHTHUS, in ichthyology, a name given to the ANTHIAS, a small, but beautiful fish caught in the Adriatic, and supposed to be a certain token of there being no voracious fishes near the place where it is found.

CALLICO, in commerce, a sort of cloth resembling linens made of cotton. The name is taken from that of CALICUT, the first place at which the Portuguese landed when they discovered the India trade. The Spaniards still call it *callicu*. Callicoes are of different kinds, plain, printed, painted, stained, dyed, chintz, muslins, and the like, all included under the general denomination of *callicoes*. Some of them are painted with various flowers of different colours: others are not stained, but have a stripe of gold and silver quite through the piece, and at each end is fixed a tissue of gold, silver, and silk, intermixed with flowers. The printing of callicoes was first set on foot in London about 1676, and have long been a most important article of commerce.

CALLICRATES, an ancient sculptor, who engraved some of Homer's verses on a grain of millet, made an ivory chariot that might be concealed under the wing of a fly, and an ant of ivory in which all the members were distinct. Ælian justly blames him for exerting his genius and talents in things so useless, and at the same time so difficult. He flourished about A. A. C. 472.

CALLI-

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CALLIDON, a town of Ireland, in Tyrone, Ulster, 70 miles from Dublin.

(1.) CALLIDRYS, in ornithology, a name given by Bellonius and others to the water bird called the *red-ſhank*.

(2.) CALLIDRYS NIGRA, in ornithology, a bird deſcribed by Bellonius, ſuppoſed to be the bird called the *knot*.

CALLIFORNIA. See CALIFORNIA.

CALLIGONUM, in botany, a genus of the digynia order, belonging to the polyandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 12th order, Holoraceæ. The calyx is pentaphyllous, without petals or ſtyles; the fruit hiſpid and monoſpermous. There is but one ſpecies which is found on Mount Ararat

CALLIGRAPHUS, [from καλλος, beauty, and γραφω, I write,] anciently denoted a copyiſt, or ſcrivener, who tranſcribed fair and at length what the notaries had taken down in notes or minutes. The minutes of acts, &c. were always taken in a kind of cypher, or ſhort-hand; ſuch as the notes of Tyro in Gruter: by which means the notaries, as the Latins called them, or the σημειογραφοι and ταχυγραφοι, as the Greeks called them, were enabled to keep pace with a ſpeaker. Theſe notes being underſtood by few, were copied over fair, and at full length, by *Calligraphi*, perſons who had a good hand for ſale, &c.

CALLIGRAPHY, the art of fair writing. Callicrates is ſaid to have written an elegant diſtich on a ſeſamum ſeed. Junius ſpeaks of a perſon, as very extraordinary, who wrote the apoſtles creed, and beginning of St John's goſpel, in the compaſs of a farthing. What would he have ſaid of our famous Peter Bale, who in 1575, wrote the Lord's prayer, creed, ten commandments, and two ſhort prayers in Latin, with his own name, motto, day of the month, year of the Lord, and reign of the queen, in the compaſs of a ſingle penny, inchaſed in a ring and border of gold, and covered with a cryſtal, all ſo accurately written as to be very legible with a magnifying glaſs?

(1.) CALLIMACHUS, a celebrated architect, painter, and ſculptor, born at Corinth, who having ſeen by accident a veſſel about which the plant called *acanthus* had raiſed its leaves, conceived the idea of forming the Corinthian capital. See ACANTHUS, and *Plate* XX. The ancients aſſure us, that he worked in marble with wonderful delicacy. He flouriſhed about A. A. C. 540.

(2.) CALLIMACHUS, a celebrated Greek poet, native of Cyrene in Libya, flouriſhed under Ptolemy Philadelphus and Ptolemy Euergetes kings of Egypt, about A. A. C. 280. He paſſed, according to Quintilian, for the prince of the Greek elegiac poets. His ſtyle is elegant, delicate, and nervous. He wrote a great number of ſmall poems, of which we have only ſome hymns and epigrams remaining. Catullus has cloſely imitated him, and tranſlated into Latin verſe his ſmall poem on the locks of Berenice. Callimachus was alſo a good grammarian and a learned critic. There is an edition of his remains, by Meſſ. Le Fevre, 4to, and another in 2 volumes 8vo with notes by Spanheim, Grævius, Bentley, &c. Dr Tytler of Brechin has tranſlated his poems into Engliſh verſe.

CALLIMUS, or CALAINUS, in phyſiology, a ſtony ſubſtance mentioned by Pliny, found in the cavity of the ÆTITES, or eagle ſtone. It fills the hollow of the ætites, much as the yoke does the white of an egg.

(1.)* CALLING. *n. ſ.* [from *call.*] 1. Vocation; profeſſion; trade.—If God has interwoven ſuch a pleaſure with our ordinary *calling*, how much ſuperiour muſt that be, which ariſes from the ſurvey of a pious life? Surely, as much as Chriſtianity is nobler than a trade. *South.*—We find ourſelves obliged to go on in honeſt induſtry in our *callings*. *Rogers.*—I cannot forbear warning you againſt endeavouring at wit in your ſermons; becauſe many of your *calling* have made themſelves ridiculous by attempting it. *Swift.*—

I left no *calling* for this idle trade,
No duty broke, no father diſobey'd. *Pope.*

2. Proper ſtation, or employment.—The Gauls found the Roman ſenators ready to die with honour in their *callings*. *Swift.* 3. Claſs of perſons united by the ſame employment or profeſſion.—It may be a caution to all chriſtian churches and magiſtrates, not to impoſe celibacy on whole *callings*, and great multitudes of men or women, who cannot be ſuppoſable to have the gift of continence. *Hammond.* 4. Divine vocation; invitation or impulſe to the true religion.—Give all diligence to make your *calling* and election ſure. 2 *Peter* i. 10.—St Peter was ignorant of the *calling* of the Gentiles. *Hakewill on Providence.*

(2.) CALLING THE HOUSE. See CALL, § 6.

CALLINICUS of Heliopolis, inventor of a compoſition to burn in the water, called the *Greek*, and ſince *Wild, Fire*. See FIRE, GRECIAN.

CALLINUS of Epheſus, a very ancient Greek poet, inventor of elegiac verſe; ſome ſpecimens of which are to be found in the collection of Stobeus. He flouriſhed A. A. C. 776.

CALLION, in botany, a name given by Pliny, and ſome other authors to the ALKEKENGI, or winter cherry.

CALLIONYMUM, in botany, a name given by ſome authors to the lily of the valley. See CONVALLARIA.

CALLIONYMUS, the DRAGONET, in ichthyology, a genus of fiſhes belonging to the order of jugulares. The upper lip is doubled up; the eyes are very near each other; the membrane of the gills has ſix radii; the operculum is ſhut; the body is naked; and the belly fins are at a great diſtance from each other. There are 3 ſpecies, viz.

1. CALLIONYMUS DRACUNCULUS, with the firſt bone of the back fin ſhorter than its body, which is of a ſpotted yellow colour. It frequents the ſhores of Genoa and Rome.

2. CALLIONYMUS INDICUS has a ſmooth head, with a longitudinal wrinkles; the lower jaw is a little longer than the upper one; the tongue is obtuſe and emarginated; the appertures of the gills are large: it is of a livid colour, and the anus is in the middle of the body. It is a native of Aſia.

3. CALLIONYMUS LYRA with the firſt bone of the back fin as long as the body of the animal, and a cirrhus at the anus. It is found as far N. as Norway and Spitzbergen and as far S. as the Mediterranean ſea. It is not unfrequent on the

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Scarborough coasts, where it is taken by the hook in 30 or 40 fathoms water. It is often found in the stomach of the cod.

CALLIOPE, [from καλλος, beauty, and ωψ, voice,] in the Pagan mythology, the muse who presides over eloquence and heroic poetry. She was fabled to have a very sweet voice, and was reckoned the first of the nine sisters. Horace stiles her *Regina*. Her distinguishing office was to record the worthy actions of the living; and accordingly she is represented with tablets in her hand.

CALLIPÆDIA, the art of getting or breeding beautiful children. We find divers rules relating to this art, in ancient and modern writers. Among the magi, a sort of medicine called *ermesia* was administered to pregnant women as a means of producing a beautiful issue. Of this kind were the kernels of pine nuts ground with honey, myrrh, saffron, palm wine, and milk. The Jews are said to have been so solicitous about the beauty of their children, that they had some very beautiful child placed at the door of the public baths, that the women at going out being struck with his appearance, and retaining the idea, might all have children as fine as he. The Chinese take still greater care of their breeding women, to prevent uncouth objects of any kind from striking their imagination. Musicians are employed at night to entertain them with agreeable songs and odes, in which are set forth all the duties and comforts of a conjugal and domestic life; that the infant may receive good impressions even before it is born, and not only come forth agreeable in form of body, but be well disposed in mind. Callipædia, seems to have been first erected into a just art by Claude Quillet de Chinon, a French abbot, who, under the fictitious name of *Calvidius Lætus*, published a fine Latin poem in 4 books under the title of *Callipædia, seu de pulchræ prolis habendæ ratione*; wherein are contained all the precepts of that new art. Mr Rowe translated it into English verse.

(1.) * CALLIPERS. *n. s.* [Of this word I know not the etymology, nor does any thing more probable occur, than that, perhaps, the word is corrupted from *clippers*, instruments with which any thing is *clipped*; inclosed or embraced.] Compasses with bowed shanks.—*Callipers* measure the distance of any round, cylindrick, conical body, so that, when workmen use them, they open the two points to their described width, and turn so much stuff off the intended place, till the two points of the *callipers* fit just over their work. *Moxon's Mechanical Exercises.*

(1.) CALLIPERS. See CALIBER, § 1—9.

CALLIPOLIS, in ancient geography, the name of several cities of antiquity, particularly one upon the Hellespont, next the Propontis, and opposite to Lampsacus, in Asia; now called GALLIPOLI.

CALLIPIC PERIOD. See CALIPPIC.

(1.) CALLIRRHOE, in ancient geography, called also ENNEACRUNOS, from its 9 springs, a fountain not far from Athens, greatly adorned by Pisistratus, where there were several wells, but this was only the running spring.

(2.) CALLIRRHOE was also the name of a very fine spring of hot water beyond Jordan near the Dead Sea, into which it runs.

CALLISIA, in botany: A genus of the monogynia order, in the triandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 6th order, Ensatæ. The calyx is triphyllous; the petals are three; the antheræ are double; and the capsule is bilocular. There is but one species, a native of America.

CALLISTHENES, the philosopher, disciple and relation of Aristotle, by whose desire he accompanied Alexander the Great in his expeditions: but proving too severe a censurer of that hero's conduct, he was put by him to the torture, on suspicion of a treasonable conspiracy, and died under it, A. A. C. 328.

CALLISTIA, in Grecian antiquity, a Lesbian festival, wherein the women presented themselves in Juno's temple, and the prize was assigned to the fairest. There was another of these contentions at the festival of Ceres Eleusinia among the Parrhasians; and another among the Eleans, where the most beautiful man was presented with a complete suit of armour, which he consecrated to Minerva; to whose temple he walked in procession, accompanied by his friends, who adorned him with ribbons, and crowned him with a garland of myrtle.

CALLISTO, in fabulous history, the daughter of Lycaon, king of Arcadia, and one of Diana's nymphs. Jupiter falling in love with her, and finding intreaty vain, assumed the form of Diana, and got her with child. In due time she was delivered of ARCAS. Juno enraged, turned her into a she bear. Mean time, Aarcas grew up, and became a famous hunter, when he was 15 years of age; but as he was just going to shoot his mother, not knowing her in her savage form, Jupiter interposed to prevent the parricide, and translated them both to the stars, where they became the constellations, called the *greater* and *lesser bear*. *Ovid. Metam. Lib. II. Fab. 5.*

CALLISTRATUS, an excellent Athenian orator, who was banished for having obtained too great an authority in the government. Demosthenes was so struck with the force of his eloquence, and the glory that it procured him, that he abandoned philosophy, and resolved from thenceforward to apply himself to oratory.

CALLISTUS, John Andronicus, one of those modern Greeks, to whom the world is indebted, for bringing learning into the West, after the Eastern empire was overturned by the Turks, in 1453. He was a native of Thessalonica, and professor of peripatetic philosophy in Constantinople, where he was much esteemed for his learning. When that city was taken he fled to Rome, where he read lectures on Aristotle, and afterwards moved to Florence, where he had a vast concourse of disciples: among whom were Angelus Politianus, Janus Pannonius, George Valla, and others. Towards the end of his life, he removed to France, where he died, in an advanced age, with the character of a learned and worthy man. He left some Greek MSS. particularly one, in the public library at Paris, entitled *A Monody on the Miseries of Constantinople.*

CALLITRICHE, or STAR-GRASS, in botany: A genus of the digynia order, in the monandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking

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ing under the 12th order, Holoraceæ. It has no calyx, but two petals, and the capsule is biloculär and tetraspermous.

CALLIVA. See ATREBATES, N° 2. and CALLEVA.

CALLOO, a fortress in the Netherlands, in the territory of Waes, on the Scheld. The Dutch were defeated here by the Spaniards in 1638. Lon. 4. 10. E. Lat. 51. 15. N.

CALLOSCOPIUM. See BELVEDERE, N° 1.

(1.) * CALLOSITY. *n. s.* [*callosité*, Fr.] A kind of swelling without pain, like that of the skin by hard labour; and therefore, when wounds, or the edges of ulcers, grow so, they are said to be callous. *Quincy.*—The surgeon ought to vary the diet of his patient, as he finds the fibres loosen too much, are too flaccid, and produce fungusses, or as they harden or produce *callosities*; in the first case, wine and spirituous liquors are useful, in the last hurtful. *Arbuthnot on Diet.*

(2.) CALLOSITY. See CALLUS, § 2.

CALLOSUM CORPUS. See ANATOMY, *Index.*

CALLOT, James, a celebrated engraver, born at Nancy, in 1593. In his youth he travelled to Rome to learn designing and engraving; and from thence went to Florence, where the grand duke took him into his service. After the death of that prince, Callot returned to his native country; when Henry, duke of Lorrain, settled a considerable pension upon him. His reputation being soon after spread all over Europe, the infanta of the Netherlands drew him to Brussels, where he engraved the siege of Breda. Lewis XIII. made him design the sieges of Rochelle, and Rhe. Having taken Nancy in 1631, he proposed that Callot should represent the new conquest, as he had already done the others: but Callot begged to be excused; and some courtiers resolving to oblige him to do it, he answered, that he would sooner cut off his thumb, than do any thing against the honour of his prince and country. This excuse the king accepted; and said, that the duke of Lorrain was happy in having such faithful and affectionate subjects. Callot followed his business so closely, that, though he died at 43 years of age, he is said to have left of his own execution 1500 pieces. The following are a few of the principal. 1. The *murder of the innocents*; 2. The *marraige of Cana in Galilee*; 3. The *passion of Christ*, on 12 very small upright plates: first impressions very scarce. 4. *St John in the island of Patmos*; 5. The *temptation of St Anthony*; 6. The *punishments*; the execution of several criminals. 7. The *miseries of wars*; in 18 small plates. 8. The *great fair of Florence*; 9. The *little fair, or players at bowls*; this is one of the scarcest of Callot's prints; and it is very difficult to meet with a fine impression of it. 10. The *tilting, or the new street of Nancy*; 11. The *Garden of Nancy*; 12. *View of the Port Neuf*; 13. *View of the Louvre*; 14. *Four landscapes.*

* CALLOUS. *n. s.* [*callus*, Lat.] 1. Indurated; hardened; having the pores shut up.—In progress of time, the ulcers became sinous and *callous*, with induration of the glands. *Wiseman.* 2. Hardened; insensible.—Licentiousness has so long passed for sharpness of wit, and greatness of mind, that the conscience is grown *callous*. *L'Estrange.*—

The wretch is drench'd too deep,
His soul is stupid, and his heart asleep:
Fatten'd in vice, so *callous* and so gross,
He sins, and sees not, senseless of his loss. *Dryd.*

* CALLOUSNESS. *n. s.* [from *callous.*] 1. Hardness; induration of the fibres.—The oftner we use the organs of touching, the more of these scales are formed, and the skin becomes the thicker, and so a *callousness* grows upon it. *Cheyne.* 2. Insensibility.—If they let go their hope of everlasting life with willingness, and entertain final perdition with exultation, ought they not to be esteemed destitute of common sense, and abandoned to a *callousness* and numbness of soul? *Bentley.*

(1.) * CALLOW. *adj.* Unfledged; naked; without feathers.—

Bursting with kindly rapture, forth disclos'd
Their *callow* young. *Milton.*

Then, as an eagle, who, with pious care,
Was beating widely on the wing for prey,
To her now silent airy does repair,
And finds her *callow* infants forc'd away. *Dryd.*

How in small flights they know to try their young,
And teach the *callow* child her parent's song. *Prior.*

(2.) CALLOW HILL, in Fermanagh, Ireland.

(3.) CALLOW HILL, near Blith, Stafford.

CALLOW-LAND, a village near Watford, Hertfordshire.

CALLOWS, near Chippenham, Wiltshire.

(1.) * CALLUS. *n. s.* [Latin.] 1. An induration of the fibres. 2. The hard substance by which broken bones are united.

(2.) CALLUS, or CALLOSITY, in a general sense, is any cutaneous, corneous, or osseous hardness, whether natural or preternatural; but most frequently it means the callus generated about the edges of a fracture, provided by nature to preserve the fractured bones, or divided parts, in the situation in which they are replaced by the surgeon. A callus, in this sense, is a sort of jelly, or liquid viscous matter, that sweats out from the small arteries and bony fibres of the divided parts, and fills up the chinks or cavities between them. It first appears of a cartilaginous substance; but at length becomes quite bony, and joins the fractured part so firmly together, that the limb will often make greater resistance to any external violence with this part, than with those which were never broken. Callus is also a hard, dense, insensible knob, rising on the hands, feet, &c. by much friction and pressure against hard bodies.

CALLYCHTHIS, in ichthyology, a species of the SILURUS.

(1.) * CALM. *adj.* [*calme*, Fr. *kalm*, Dutch.] 1. Quiet; serene; not stormy; not tempestuous: applied to the elements.—

Calm was the day, and, through the trembling air,
Sweet breathing Zephyrus did softly play
A gentle spirit that lightly did allay
Hot Titan's beams, which then did glister fair. *Spenser.*

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—So shall the sea be *calm* unto us. *Jonah.* 2. Undisturbed; unruffled: applied to the passions. —It is no ways congruous, that God should be frightning men into truth, who were made to be wrought upon by *calm* evidence, and gentle methods of persuasion. *Atterbury.*—

The queen her speech with *calm* attention hears,
Her eyes restrain the silver-streaming tears. *Pope.*

(2.) * CALM, *n. s.* 1. Serenity; stilness; freedom from violent motion: used of the elements. —It seemeth most agreeable to reason, that the waters rather stood in a quiet *calm*, than that they moved with any raging or overbearing violence. *Raleigh.*—

Every pilot
Can steer the ship in *calms*; but he performs
The skilful part, can manage it in *storms*. *Denh.*
Nor God alone in the still *calm* we find,
He mounts the *storm*, and walks upon the wind. *Pope.*

2. Freedom from disturbance; quiet; repose: applied to the passions.—Great and strange *calms* usually portend the most violent *storms*; and therefore, since *storms* and *calms* do always follow one another, certainly, of the two, it is much more eligible to have the *storm* first, and the *calm* afterwards: since a *calm* before a *storm* is commonly a peace of a man's own making; but a *calm* after a *storm*, a peace of God's. *South.*

(3.) CALM, the state of rest which appears in the air and sea when there is no wind stirring. A calm is more dreaded by a sea-faring man than a storm, if he has a strong ship and sea room; for under the line excessive heat sometimes produces such dead calms, that ships are obliged to stay 2 or 3 months without being able to stir one way or other. Two opposite winds will sometimes make a calm. This occurs frequently in the gulph of Mexico, at no great distance from the shore, where some gust or land wind will so poise the general easterly wind, as to produce a perfect calm. Calms are never so great on the ocean as on the Mediterranean, as the flux and reflux of the former keep the water in a continual agitation, even where there is no wind; whereas there being no tides in the latter, the calm is sometimes so dead, that the water is as clear as a looking-glass; but such calms are almost constant presages of an approaching storm. On the coasts about Smyrna, a long calm is reputed a prognostic of an earthquake. It is not uncommon for vessels to be becalmed, in the road of the constant Levantine winds, in places where they ride near the land. Thus between the two capes of Gartooche toward the main, and Cape Antonia in Cuba, the sea is narrow, and there is often a calm produced by some gust of a land wind, that poises the Levantine wind, and renders the whole perfectly still for 2 or 3 days. In this case, the current that runs here is of use to the vessels, if it sets right; when it sets easterly, a ship will have a passage in 3 or 4 days to the Havannah; but if otherwise, it is often a fortnight or 3 weeks sail, the ship being embayed in the gulf of Mexico. When the weather is perfectly calm, the sailors try which way the current sets, by sending out a boat, which will ride at anchor though there is no bottom to be found, as well as if fastened by the strongest anchor to the bottom. Their method is this: they row the boat to a little distance from the ship, and then throw over their plummet, which is about 40 lb. weight; they let this sink to about 200 fathom; and then, though it never reaches the bottom, the boat will turn head against the current, and ride as firmly as can be.

(4.) CALM LATITUDES, in sea language, are situated in the Atlantic ocean, between the tropic of Cancer and the latitude of 29° N. or they denote the space that lies between the trade and variable winds, because it is frequently subject to calms of long duration.

* *To* CALM. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To still; to quiet.—Neptune we find busy in the beginning of the Æneis, to *calm* the tempest raised by Æolus. *Dryden.* 1. To pacify; to appease.—Jesus, whose bare word checked the sea, as much exerts himself in silencing the tempests, and *calming* the intestine storms within our breasts. *Decay of Piety.* —Those passions, which seem somewhat *calmed*, may be entirely laid asleep, and never more awakened. *Atterbury.*—

He will'd to stay,
The sacred rites and hecatombs to pay,
And *calm* Minerva's wrath. *Pope.*

CALMAR, a strong sea-port of Sweden, in the province of Smaland, 150 m. SW. of Stockholm, and 40 from Carlscroon. It is divided into two towns, the old and the new; but of the former there remains only the church and a few houses. The new town is built a little way from the other, and has large handsome houses. Lon. 16. 15. E. Lat. 56. 48. N.

* CALMER. *n. s.* [from *calm.*] The person or thing which has the power of giving quiet.—Angling was, after tedious study, a rest to his mind, a cheerer of his spirits, a diverter of sadness, a *calmer* of unquiet thoughts, a moderator of passions, a procurer of contentedness. *Walton.*

CALMET, Augustine, one of the most learned and laborious writers of the 18th century, was born at Mesnil le Horgue, in France, in 1672, and took the habit of the Benedictines in 1688. Among the many works he published are, 1. A literal expolition, in French, of all the books of the Old Testament, in 9 vols folio. 2. An historical, critical, chronological, geographical, and literal, dictionary of the Bible; in 4 vols folio, enriched with many figures of Jewish antiquities. 3. A civil and ecclesiastical history of Lorrain; 3 vols folio. 4. A history of the Old and New Testament, and of the Jews, in 2 vols folio, and 7 vols 12mo. 5. An universal sacred and profane history in several vols 4to. He died in 1757.

* CALMLY. *adv.* [from *calm.*] 1. Without storms, or violence; serenely.—In nature, things move violently to their place, and *calmly* in their place; so virtue in ambition is violent, in authority settled and calm. *Bacon.*—

His curled brows
Frown on the gentle stream, which *calmly* flows. *Denham.*

2. Without passions; quietly.—

The nymph did like the scene appear,
Serenely pleasant, *calmly* fair;
Soft fell her words, as slew the air. *Prior.*

* CALM-

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* CALMNESS. *n. f.* [from *calm.*] 1. Tranquillity; ſerenity; not ſtorminess.—

While the ſteep horrid roughneſs of the wood
Strives with the gentle *calmneſs* of the flood.
Denham.

3. Mildneſs; freedom from paſſion.—

Sir, 'tis fit
You have ſtrong party, to defend yourſelf
By *calmneſs*, or by abſence: all's in anger.
Shakeſpeare.

I beg the grace,
You would lay by thoſe terrours of your face;
Till *calmneſs* to your eyes you firſt reſtore,
I am afraid, and I can beg no more. *Dryden.*

CALMUCKS. See KALMUCKS.

* CALMY. *adj.* [from *calm.*] Calm; peaceful. Not uſed.—

And now they nigh approached to the ſted,
Where as thoſe mermaides dwelt: it was a ſtill
And *calmy* bay, on the one ſide ſheltered
With the broad ſhadow of an hoary hill.
Fairy Queen.

(1.) CALNE, a river in Wiltſhire.

(2.) CALNE, a town of Wiltſhire, ſeated on the river, N° 1. It had a palace of the W. Saxon kings. Its chief manufacture is cloth. It ſends two members to parliament; and lies 12 m. W. of Marlborough, 25 E. of Briſtol, and 88 W. of London. Lon. 1. 59. W. Lat. 51. 30. N.

CALNEA, in ancient geography, a city in the land of Shinar, built by Nimrod, and the laſt city mentioned (Gen. x. 10.) as belonging to his kingdom. It is believed to be the ſame with CALNO mentioned in Iſaiah (x. 9.) and with CANNEH in Ezekiel (xxvii. 23.) It is obſerved, that it muſt have been ſituated in Meſopotamia, ſince theſe prophets join it with Haran, Eden, Aſſyria, and Chilmad, which carried on a trade with Tyre. It is ſaid by the Chaldee interpreters, as well as by Euſebius and Jerom, to be the ſame with CTESIPHON, upon the Tigris, about 3 miles diſtant from Seleucia, and that for ſome time it was the capital city of the Parthians.

CALNO. See the laſt article.

CALODENDRUM, in botany, a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the petandria claſs of plants.

CALOGERI, [καλογεροι,] in church hiſtory, monks of the Greek church, divided into 3 degrees: viz. the *archari*, or novices; the *microchemi*, or the ordinary profeſſed; and the *megolochemi*, or more perfect: they are likewiſe divided into cænobites, anchorites, and recluſes. The cænobites are employed in reciting their offices from midnight to ſun-ſet; they are obliged to make three genuflexions at the door of the choir, and, returning, to bow to the right and to the left, to their brethren. The anchorites retire from the world, and live in hermitages in the neighbourhood of the monaſteries; they cultivate a little ſpot of ground, and never go out but on Sundays and holidays to perform their devotions at the next monaſtery. The recluſes ſhut themſelves up in grottos and caverns on the tops of mountains, which they never go out of, abandoning themſelves entirely to Providence: they live on the alms ſent them by the neighbouring monaſteries. Some reckon the CALOYERS, a branch of the Calogeri.

CALOMBAC, in the materia medica. See EXCOECANA.

(1.) * CALOMEL. *n. f.* [*calomelas*, a chymical word.] Mercury ſix times ſublimed.—He repeated lenient purgatives with *calomel*, once in 3 or 4 days. *Wiſeman's Surgery.*

(2.) CALOMEL, or dulcified ſublimate of mercury. See PHARMACY, *Index.*

CALOPHYLLUM, in botany: A genus of the monogynia order, in the polyandria claſs of plants: and in the natural method claſſed under the *Dubius ordo* by Linnæus. The corolla is tetrapetalous; the calyx tetraphyllous and coloured; the fruit a globoſe plum. There are two ſpecies, both natives of India.

* CALORIFICK. *adj.* [*calorificus*, Lat.] That which has the quality of produing heat; heating. —A *calorifick* principle is either excited within the heated body, or transferred to it, through any medium, from ſome other. Silver will grow hotter than the liquor it contains. *Grew.*

* CALOTTE. *n. f.* [French.] 1. A cap or coif, worn as an eccleſiaſtical ornament in France. 2. [In architecture.] A round cavity or depreſſure, in form of a cap or cup, lathed and plaiſtered, uſed to diminiſh the riſe or elevation of a chapel, cabinet, alcove, *&c. Harris.*

CALOW, two villages; 1. in Derbyſh. SW. of Wirkſworth; 2. near Hereford.

(1.) * CALOYERS. *n. f.* [καλογερος.] Monks of the Greek church.—Temp'rate as *caloyers* in their ſecret cells. *Madden on Boulter.*

(2.) CALOYERS are of the order of St Baſil. A numerous body of them live on mount Athos, and never marry, though others of that church do. They abſtain from fleſh, and fare very hardly, their ordinary meals being olives pickled when they are ripe. They are about 6000 in all, and inhabit ſeveral parts of the mountain. They are ſo reſpected, that the Turks themſelves will often ſend them alms. Theſe monks are not idle like many others; but labour with the ax, ſpade, and ſickle, dreſſing themſelves like hermits. Formerly they had fine Greek M. SS; but they are now become ſo illiterate, that they can ſcarce read or write. They live to a great age. See CALOGERI.

CALPE, a mountain of Andaluſia in Spain; at the foot of which, towards the ſea, ſtands GIBRALTAR. It is half a league in height towards the land, and ſo ſteep that there is no approaching it on that ſide. It was anciently reckoned one of the pillars of Hercules.

CALPHURNIA, a female orator of ancient Rome, who pled her own cauſes before the ſenate; but is ſaid to have proved ſo troubleſome, that they made a law, that thence forward no woman ſhould be allowed to plead.

CALPHURNIUS, Titus, a Latin poet of Sicily, who lived under the emperor Carus and his ſon. Seven of his eclogues are extant.

CALQUING, or CALKING, in painting. See CALKING, § 1.

CALSHOT CASTLE, in Hampſhire, at the entrance of Southampton Bay.

CALSTOCK, a village in Cornwall, between Exeter and Truro.

CALSTON, near Market-Lavington, Wilts.

CALTHA, in botany, MARSH MARYGOLD; a genus

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a genus of the monogynia order, in the polyandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 26th order, *Multiſiliquæ*. There is no calyx; there are five petals; no nectaria; the capſules are many, and polyſpermous. There is only one ſpecies known, which grows naturally in moiſt boggy lands in many parts of England and Scotland. There is a variety with double flowers, which for its beauty is preſerved in gardens. It is propagated by parting the roots in autumn. It ſhould be planted in a moiſt ſoil and ſhady ſituation; and as there are often ſuch places in gardens where few other plants will thrive, ſo theſe may be allowed room, and during their ſeaſon of flowering will afford an agreeable variety. The flowers gathered before they expand, and preſerved in ſalted vinegar, are a good ſubſtitute for capers. The juice of the petals, boiled with alum, ſtains paper yellow. The remarkable yellowneſs of the butter in ſpring is ſuppoſed to be cauſed by this plant: but cows will not eat it, unleſs compelled by extreme hunger; and then, Boerhaave ſays, it occaſions ſuch an inflammation, that they generally die. Upon May-day, the country people ſtrew the flowers upon the pavement before their doors. Goats and ſheep eat this plant; horſes, cows, and ſwine, refuſe it.

CALTHORP, a town in Norfolkſhire, near Erpingham.

(1.) CALTON, a village in the ſuburbs of Edinburgh, immediately adjoining to the NE. of that metropolis, and partly ſeated on the hill, (N° 3.) but very abſurdly included in the pariſh of S. Leith, from which it is a mile diſtant. By Mr Creech's report to Sir J. Sinclair, it contained 1497 inhabitants, in 1792.

(2.) CALTON, a town in Yorkſh. E. of Settle.

(3.) CALTON HILL, a hill on the NE. of Edinburgh, on which part of the village, (N° 1.) is built, and an elegant obſervatory is erected. See EDINBURGH.

CALTRAGH, a town in Galway, Ireland.

(1.) CALTROP, in botany. See TRIBULUS.

(2.) * CALTROPS. *n. ſ.* [*caltræppe*, Sax.] 1. An inſtrument made with three pikes, ſo that which way ſoever it falls to the ground, one of them points upright, to wound horſes feet.—The ground about was thick ſown with *caltrops*, which very much incommoded the ſhoeleſs Moors. *Dr Addiſon's Account of Tangiers.* 2. A plant common in France, Spain, and Italy, where it grows among corn, and were very troubleſome; for the fruit being armed with ſtrong prickles, run into the feet of the cattle. This is certainly the plant mentioned in Virgil's Georgicks, under the name of *tribulus. Miller.*

(3.) CALTROPS, in military affairs, have *four* iron points, diſpoſed in an angular form, ſo that 3 of them are always on the ground, and the 4th pointing upwards. It is evident that with only 3 ſpikes (as Dr Johnſon deſcribes them, § 1. *def.* 2.) they could not anſwer. They are ſcattered over the ground where the enemy's cavalry is to paſs, in order to embarraſs them.

CALVA, or CALVARIA, [from *calvus*, bald,] the ſkull. See CALVARIA.

(1.) CALVADOS, a department of France, bounded on the E. by that of Eure; on the S. by that of Orne; on the W. by that of the Channel; and on the N. by the Britiſh Channel. It is formed out of the ci-devant province of Lower Normandy. Its chief towns are Caen, Bayeux, Pont-l'Eveque, Liſieux, Falaiſe and Vire.

(2.) CALVADOS, a rocky hill in the department, N° 1. to which it gives name.

CALVARIA, in anatomy, the hairy ſcalp or upper part of the head, which, either by diſeaſe or old age, grows bald firſt.

CALVART, Denis, a celebrated painter, born at Antwerp, in 1552. He ſtudied painting under Fontana and Sabbatini. He opened a ſchool at Bologna, which became celebrated; and from which proceeded Guido, Albani, and other great maſters. Calvart was well ſkilled in architecture, perſpective, and anatomy, which he conſidered as neceſſary to a painter, and taught to his pupils. His principal works are at Bologna, Rome, and Reggio. He died at Bologna in 1619.

(1.) CALVARY, [from CALVARIA,] i. e. *the place of a ſkull*, called alſo GOLGOTHA, which ſignifies the ſame, a hill of Judea, W. of Jeruſalem, on the out ſide of the city, where our Saviour was crucified, and where malefactors were commonly executed. Some derive the name from the reſemblance of the hill to a man's head; others from its baldneſs, as it was ſaid to be deſtitute of verdure; but it is more probable, that the hill got its name from the many ſkulls of thoſe executed, being careleſly toſſed about upon it. Tradition ſays, Adam was buried upon it. Be that as it may, our Britiſh princeſs Helena, the mother of Conſtantine the Great, about A. D. 330, erected a magnificent church over our Saviour's ſepulchre, near it, which is ſtill viſited by ſuperſtitious pilgrims.

(2.) CALVARY, a term uſed in Catholic countries for a kind of chapel of devotion raiſed on a hillock near the city, in memory of the place where Jeſus Chriſt was crucified, N° 1. Such was the Calvary of St Valerian near Paris; which was accompanied with ſeveral little chapels, in each of which was repreſented in ſculpture one of the myſteries of the paſſion; if they are not ſo ſtill.

(3.) CALVARY, in heraldry, a croſs ſo called, becauſe it reſembles the croſs on which our Saviour ſuffered. It is always ſet upon ſteps.

* *To* CALVE. *v. n.* [from *calf.*] 1. To bring a calf; ſpoken of a cow.—

When ſhe has *calv'd*, then ſet the dam aſide,
And for the tender progeny provide. *Dryden.*

2. It is uſed metaphorically for any act of bringing forth; and ſometimes of men, by way of reproach.—

I would they were barbarians, as they are,
Though in Rome litter'd; not Romans: as they are not;
Though *calv'd* in the porch o' the' capitol.
Shakeſpeare.

The graſſy clods now *calv'd*, now half appear'd
The tawny lion pawing to get free
His hinder parts. *Milton.*

CALVER, a town on the Peak of Derby.

CALVERLEY, two villages: 1. in Cheſhire, near Minſhul; 2. in Yorkſhire, near Bradford.

CALVERSTOWN, in Kildare, Ireland,

(1.) CAL-

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(1.) CALVERT, a county of the United States, in the Western Shore of Maryland; bounded on the E. by the Chesapeak; on the N. by Anne-Arundel county; and on the S. and W. by the river Patuxent. It is 33½ m. long from the mouth of the Patuxent to Lion's Creek, and 19½ broad. It contains 4347 free inhabitants and 4305 slaves. The surface is hilly and the soil sandy; but it produces good crops of Indian corn, though the tobacco is of an inferior quality. Prince-Frederick is the chief town.

(2.) CALVERT, George, afterwards Lord Baltimore, was born at Kiplin, in Yorkshire, about 1582, and educated at Oxford, where he took the degree of B. A. and afterwards travelled. At his return, he was made secretary to Sir Robert Cecil; he was afterwards knighted, and in 1618, appointed one of the principal secretaries of state. But after he had enjoyed that office about 5 years, he resigned it, telling king James, that he was become a Roman catholic, so that he must either be wanting to his trust, or violate his conscience in discharging his office. This ingenious confession so affected the king, that he continued him privy counsellor all his reign, and created him baron Baltimore. He afterwards obtained a grant of a country on the N. part of Virginia from Charles I. who called it MARYLAND, in honour of his queen; but he died in April 1632, aged 50, before the patent was made out. It was, however, filled up to his son Cecil, lord Baltimore; and bears date June 20th 1632. It is held from the crown as part of the manor of *Windsor*, on one singular condition, viz. to present two Indian arrows yearly, on Easter Tuesday, at the castle, where they are kept and shown to visitors. His lordship wrote, 1. A Latin poem on the death of Sir Henry Upton. 2. Speeches in parliament. 3. Various letters of state. 4. The answer of Tom Tell-Truth. 5. The practice of princes. And, 6. The lamentation of the Kirk.

CALVERTHORP, a village in Lincolnshire, W. of Sleaford.

CALVERTON, two small towns: 1. in Bucks, one m. from Stony-Stratford: 2. in Nottinghamshire, S. of Sherwood Forest.

CALVES ISLANDS, three isles of Ireland, on the coast of the county of Cork, between Cape Clear and the Main.

(1.) * CALVES SNOUT. [*antirrhinum.*] A plant Snapdragon.

(2.) CALVES SNOUT. See ANTIRRHINUM.

CALVET HEATH lies in Staffordshire.

CALVET-HOUSE, near Mucker, Yorkshire.

(1.) CALVI, a sea port of Corsica, seated on a mountain, on the bay, (N° 3.) 30 m. SW. of Bastia. It was taken by Gen. Stuart, Aug. 10. 1794, after a siege of 51 days. Lon. 9. 15. E. Lat. 42. 26. N.

(2.) CALVI, a town of Naples, in Lavoro, situated near the sea, about 15 m. N. of Naples. Lon. 14. 45. E. Lat. 41. 15. N.

(3.) CALVI BAY, or GULF, is situated on the W. side of the Island of Corsica.

* CALVILLE. *n. s.* [French.] A sort of apple.

CALVIN, John, the celebrated reformer of the Christian church from Romish superstitions and doctrinal errors, and founder of the sect since called CALVINISTS, was born in 1509. He was the son of a cooper of Noyon in Picardy; and his real name was CHAUVIN, which he latinized into *Calvinus*, styling himself in the title-page to his first work, (a Commentary on *Seneca de clementia*,) "Lucius Calvinus, Civis Romanus." This trifling circumstance some have represented as "an early proof of his *pride*;" but it seems rather an evidence of his *modesty*, in thus concealing his name under an anonymous title. At the worst, it was but a pardonable piece of vanity, in a young author, as he was then only 24 years of age. In 1529, he was rector of Pont l'Eveque; and in 1534 he threw up this benefice, separating himself entirely from the Romish church. The persecution against the Protestants in France, with whom he was now associated, obliged him to retire to Basle in Switzerland: Here he published his famous *Institutes of the Christian Religion*, in 1535. The following year, he was chosen professor of divinity, and one of the ministers of the church, at Geneva. In 1537, he made all the people solemnly swear to a body of doctrines; but finding that religion had not yet had any great influence on the morals of the people, he, assisted by other ministers, declared, that since all their admonitions and warnings had proved unsuccessful, they could not celebrate the holy sacrament as long as these disorders reigned; he also declared, that he could not submit to some regulations made by the synod of Berne. Upon which the Syndics having summoned the people, it was ordered that Calvin and two other ministers should leave the city within two days. Upon this Calvin retired to Strasburg, where he established a French church, of which he was the first minister, and was also chosen professor of divinity there. Two years after, he was chosen to assist at the diet appointed by the emperor to meet at Worms at Ratisbon, in order to appease the troubles occasioned by the new doctrines. He went with Bucer, and entered into a conference with Melancton. The people of Geneva now entreated him to return; to which he consented, and arrived at Geneva, Sept. 13th, 1541. He began with establishing a form of ecclesiastical discipline, and a consistorial jurisdiction, with the power of inflicting all kinds of canonical punishments. This was disliked by many, who imagined that the papal tyranny would soon be revived. Calvin, however, asserted on all occasions the rights of his consistory with inflexible strictness; and he caused Michael Servetus to be burnt at the stake for writing against the doctrine of the Trinity. But though the rigour of his proceedings sometimes occasioned great tumults in the city, yet nothing could shake his steadiness. Among all the disturbances of the commonwealth, he took care of the foreign churches in England, France, Germany, and Poland; and did more by his pen than his presence, sending his advice and instructions by letter, and writing a great number of books. This great reformer died May 27, 1564, aged 55. His works were printed together at Amsterdam in 1671, in 9 vols. folio: the principal of which are his Institutions in Latin; (the best edit. is that of Robert Stephens in 1553, in folio;) and his Commentaries on the Holy Scriptures. Calvin is universally allowed to have had great talents, an excellent genius, and profound learning. His

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style is grave and polite. His morals were exemplary; for he was pious, ſober, chaſte, laborious, and diſintereſted. But his enemies alledge, that "his memory can never be purified from the ſtain of burning Servetus." We plead not for perſecution. We grant, that "it ill became a reformer to adopt the moſt odious practice of the corrupt church of Rome." But let the age, in which he lived, plead ſome excuſe for the exceſs of his zeal. Reformation was but in its commencement. Mankind had not got rid of the idea, that *heretics* ought to be burnt. Even in our own country, in the preſent enlightened age, we find this principle is not wholly extinguiſhed. Let the people of *Birmingham* plead the cauſe of honeſt Calvin: Let the perſecutors of Prieſtley contribute at leaſt to mitigate modern obloquy, againſt the deſtroyer of the equally honeſt, but unfortunate Servetus. While we regret the fatal effects of that bigotry, from which our firſt reformers were not able entirely to diveſt themſelves, we ought never to forget, that, to theſe men we owe the dawn of that light and liberality of ſentiment, which we now enjoy; and which is daily ſpreading far and wide, to illuminate and humanize the world.

CALVINISM, the doctrine and ſentiments of Calvin and his followers. Calviniſm ſubſiſts in its greateſt purity in the city of Geneva; and from thence it was firſt propagated into Germany, France, the United Provinces, and Britain. In France it was aboliſhed by the revocation of the edict of Nantz, in 1685. It has been the prevailing religion in the United Provinces ever ſince 1571. The theological ſyſtem of Calvin was adopted, and made the public rule of faith in England, under the reign of Edward VI. and the church of Scotland was modelled by John Knox, the diſciple of Calvin, agreeably to the doctrine, rites, and form of eccleſiaſtical government, eſtabliſhed at Geneva. In England it has declined ſince the time of Queen Elizabeth; though it ſtill ſubſiſts, a little allayed, in the articles of the eſtabliſhed church. In Scotland, it continues to exiſt in its original vigour, as the eſtabliſhed religion, illuſtrated by the Confeſſion of Faith and Catechiſms; although many of the eſtabliſhed clergy, (thanks to the liberality of the age;) are far from adhering to it ſtrictly in their ſermons. The diſtinguiſhing theological tenets of Calviniſm reſpect the doctrines of PREDESTINATION, or particular ELECTION and REPROBATION, original SIN, particular REDEMPTION, effectual GRACE in regeneration, JUSTIFICATION by faith, PERSEVERANCE, and the TRINITY. See theſe articles in their order. Beſides the doctrinal part of Calvin's ſyſtem, which, ſo far as it differs from that of other reformers of the ſame period, principally regarded the abſolute decrees of God, it extends likewiſe to the diſcipline and government of the Chriſtian church, the nature of the Euchariſt, and the qualification of thoſe who were intitled to the participation of it. Calvin conſidered every church as a ſeparate and independent body, inveſted with the power of legiſlation for itſelf. He propoſed that it ſhould be governed by preſbyteries and ſynods, compoſed of clergy and laity, without biſhops, or any clerical ſubordination; and maintained, that the province of the civil magiſtrate extended only to its protection and outward accommodation. In order to facilitate an union with the Lutheran church, he acknowledged a real, though ſpiritual, preſence of Chriſt, in the Euchariſt; that true Chriſtians were united to the man Chriſt in this ordinance, and that divine grace was conferred upon them, and ſealed to them, in the celebration of it; and he confined the privilege of communion to pious and regenerate believers. In France the Calviniſts are diſtinguiſhed by the names of HUGUENOTS, and PARPAILLOTS. In Germany they are confounded with the Lutherans, under the general title, *Proteſtants*; only ſometimes diſtinguiſhed by the epithet *Reformed*.

CALVINISTIC, *adj.* belonging to, or favouring of Calviniſm.

CALVINISTS, in church-hiſtory, thoſe who follow the opinions of Calvin. See CALVIN, CALVINISM, and CRYPTO-CALVINISTS.

CALVISIUS, Seth, a celebrated German chronologer in the beginning of the 17th century. He wrote *Elenchus calendarii Gregoriani, et duplex calendarii melioris forma*, and other learned works, together with ſome excellent treatiſes on muſic. He died in 1617, aged 61.

CALVITIUM, } *n. ſ.* Baldneſs; want of hair.
CALVITY, } See ALOPECIA, and BALDNESS, § 2.

(1.) CALUMET, a ſymbolical inſtrument of great importance among the American Indians. It is a pipe, whoſe bowl is generally made of a ſoft red marble: the tube of a very long reed, ornamented with wings and feathers of birds. No affair of conſequence is tranſacted without the calumet. It appears in meetings of commerce or exchanges: in congreſſes for determining peace or war; and even in the very fury of a battle. The acceptance of the calumet is a mark of concurrence with the terms propoſed; as the refuſal is a certain mark of rejection. Even in the rage of a conflict this pipe is ſometimes offered; and if accepted, the weapons of deſtruction inſtantly drop from their hands, and a truce enſues. It ſeems the ſacrament of ſavages; for no compact is ever violated which is confirmed by a whiff from this holy reed. When they treat of war, the pipe, and all its ornaments are uſually red, or ſometimes red only on one ſide. The ſize and decorations of the calumet are for the moſt part proportioned to the quality of the perſons to whom they are preſented, and to the importance of the occaſion. The calumet of peace is different from that of war. They make uſe of the former to ſeal their alliance and treaties, to travel with ſafety, and to receive ſtrangers; but of the latter to proclaim war. It conſiſts of a red ſtone, like marble, formed into a cavity reſembling the head of a tobacco pipe, and fixed to a hollow reed. They adorn it with feathers of various colours; and name it the calumet of the ſun, to which luminary they preſent it, in expectation of thereby obtaining a change of weather as often as they deſire. From the winged ornaments of the calumet, and its conciliating uſes, writers compare it to the caduceus of Mercury, which was carried by the caduceatores of peace, with terms to the hoſtile ſtates. It is ſingular, that the moſt remote nations, and the moſt oppoſite in their o-

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her cuſtoms and manners, ſhould in ſome things have, as it were, a certain conſent of thought. The Greeks and the Americans had the ſame idea, in the invention of the caduceus and the calumet.

(2.) CALUMET, DANCE OF THE, is a ſolemn rite among the Indians on various occaſions. They dare not waſh themſelves in rivers in the beginning of ſummer, nor taſte of the new fruits, without performing it; and the ſame ceremony always confirms a peace or precedes a war. It is performed in winter in their cabins, and in ſummer in the open fields. For this purpoſe they chooſe a ſpot among trees to ſhade them from the heat of the ſun, and lay in the middle a large mat, as a carpet, ſetting upon it the god of the chief of the company. On the right hand of this image they place the calumet, as their great deity, erecting around it a kind of trophy with their arms. The hour of dancing being come, thoſe who are to ſing take the moſt honourable ſeats under the ſhade of the trees. The company is then ranged round, every one, before he ſits down, ſaluting the monitor, which is done by blowing upon it the ſmoke of their tobacco. Each perſon next receives the calumet in rotation, and holding it with both hands, dances to the cadence of the vocal muſic, which is accompanied with the beating of a ſort of drum. During this exerciſe, he gives a ſignal to one of their warriors, who takes a bow, arrow, and axe, from the trophies already mentioned, and fights him; the former defending himſelf with the calumet only, and both of them dancing all the while. This mock engagement being over, he who holds the calumet makes a ſpeech in which he gives an account of the battles he has fought, and the priſoners he has taken, and then receives a cloak, or ſome other preſent, from the chief of the ball. He then reſigns the calumet to another, who, having acted a ſingular part, delivers it to a 3d, and he to a 4th, &c. till at laſt the inſtrument returns to the perſon who began the ceremony, and who preſents it to the nation invited to the feaſt, as a mark of their friendſhip, and a confirmation of their alliance.

CALUMNIÆ, JUDICIUM, was an action brought againſt the plaintiff in a court for a falſe and malicious accuſation. When an accuſer did not prove his charge, nor ſeemed to have ſufficient or probable grounds for bringing any, the judges in pronouncing ſentence uſed the formula *calumnioſus es:* which gave the defendant a right to bring an action of calumny; the penalty of which was *frontis inuſtio*, or burning on the forehead.

CALUMNIÆ JURAMENTUM. See CALUMNY, § 2.

(1.) * *To* CALUMNIATE. *v. a.* [*calumnior*, Lat.] To ſlander.—One trade or art, even thoſe that ſhould be the moſt liberal, make it their buſineſs to diſdain and *calumniate* another. *Spratt.*

(2.) * *To* CALUMNIATE. *v. n.* To accuſe falſely; to charge without juſt ground.—

Beauty, wit, high birth, deſert in ſervice,
Love, friendſhip, charity, are ſubject all
To envious and *calumniating* time. *Shakeſpeare.*

—He mixes truth with falſehood, and has not forgotten the rule of *calumniating* ſtrongly, that ſomething may remain. *Dryden's Fables, Preface.*—

Do I *calumniate!* thou ungrateful Vanoc!—
Perfidious Prince!—Is it a calumny
To ſay, that Gwendolen betroth'd to Yver,
Was by her father firſt aſſur'd to Valens.
A. Philips.

* CALUMNIATION. *n. ſ.* [from *calumniate.*] That which we call *calumniation*, is a malicious and falſe repreſentation of an enemy's words or actions, to an offenſive purpoſe. *Ayliffe.*

* CALUMNIATOR. *n. ſ.* [from *calumniate.*] A forger of accuſation; a ſlanderer.—He that would live clear of the envy and hatred of potent *calumniators*, muſt lay his finger upon his mouth, and keep his hand out of the ink-pot. *L'Eſtrange.*—At the ſame time that Virgil was celebrated by Gallus, we know that Bavius and Mœvius were his declared foes and *calumniators. Addiſon.*

* CALUMNIOUS. *adj.* [from *calumny.*] Slanderous; falſely reproachful.—

Virtue itſelf, 'ſcapes not *calumnious* ſtrokes.
Shakeſpeare.

With *calumnious* art
Of counterfeited truth, thus held their ears. *Milt.*

(1.) * CALUMNY. *n. ſ.* [*calumnia*, Lat.] Slander; falſe charge; groundleſs accuſation: with *againſt*, or ſometimes *upon*, before the perſon accuſed.—

Be thou as chaſte as ice, as pure as ſnow,
Thou ſhalt not eſcape *calumny. Shakeſpeare.*

—It is a very hard *calumny upon* our ſoil or climate, to affirm, that ſo excellent a fruit will not grow here. *Temple.*

(2.) CALUMNY, OATH OF, JURAMENTUM, or rather *Juſjurandum*, CALUMNIÆ, among civilians and canoniſts, was an oath which both parties in a cauſe were obliged to take; the plaintiff that he did not bring his charge, and the defendant that he did not deny it, with a deſign to abuſe each other, but becauſe they believed their cauſe was juſt and good; that they would not deny the truth, nor create unneceſſary delays, nor offer the judge or evidence any gifts or bribes. If the plaintiff refuſed this oath, the complaint was diſmiſſed; if the defendant, it was taken *pro confeſſio.* The *juramentum calumniæ* is much diſuſed, as a great occaſion of perjury. Anciently the advocates and proctors alſo took this oath; but of late it is diſpenſed with, and thought ſufficient that they take it once for all at their firſt admiſſion to practice. See LAW, *Index.*

CALVUS, Cornelius Licinius, a celebrated Roman orator, was the friend of Catullus; and flouriſhed about A. A. C. 64. He is mentioned by Catullus, Ovid, and Horace.

(1.) * CALX. *n. ſ.* [Lat.] Any thing that is rendered reducible to powder by burning.—Gold, that is more denſe than lead, reſiſts peremptorily all the dividing power of fire; and will not be reduced into a *calx*, or lime, by ſuch operation as reduces lead into it. *Digby.*

(2.) CALX properly ſignifies LIME, but is uſed by chemiſts and phyſicians for a fine powder remaining after the calcination or corroſion of metals and other mineral ſubſtances. All metallic calces, at leaſt all thoſe made by fire, are found to weigh more than the metal from which they were originally produced. See FIRE.

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(3.) CALX ANTIMONII, a name given in the late London Diſpenſatory to the preparation formerly called *antimonium diaphoreticum*.

(4.) CALX JOVIS, the calx of tin or putty.

(5.) CALX LUNÆ, the calx of ſilver.

(6.) CALX MARTIS, the crocus of iron.

(7.) CALX MERCURII, precipitated mercury.

(8.) CALX NATIVA, in natural hiſtory, a kind of marly earth, of a dead whitiſh colour, which, if thrown into water, makes a conſiderable bubbling and hiſſing noiſe, and has, without previous burning, the quality of making a cement like lime or plaſter of Paris. It is found in England.

(9.) CALX OF BRASS. See ÆS USTUM.

(10.) CALX SATURNI denotes, 1. Ceruſs calcined with ſpirit of vinegar: 2. Red lead.

(11.) CALX SOLIS, calcined gold.

(12.) CALX VENERIS, verdigriſe.

(13.) CALX VIVA, or QUICK-LIME, that whereon no water has been caſt, in contradiſtinction to lime which has been ſlacked. See LIME.

(14.) CALX VIVA PHILOSOPHORUM, denotes that made of quickſilver.

CALYBITES, [*i. e.* the inhabitant of a cottage, from καλύβη, a little cot,] an appellation given to divers ſaints, on account of their long reſidence in ſome hut, by way of mortification.

CALYCANTHEMÆ. See BOTANY, *Index*.

CALYCANTHUS, in botany: A genus of the polygynia order, in the icoſandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranked among the *Plantæ dubii ordinis*. The calyx is monophyllous, urceolate, ſquarroſe, with ſmall coloured leaves, the corolla conſiſting of the leaves on the calyx; the ſtyles are numerous, each with a glandular ſtigma; the ſeeds are many, each with a train, within a ſucculent calyx. There are two ſpecies: viz.

1. CALYCANTHUS FLORIDUS, flowering calycanthus, or Carolina allſpice tree, a native of Carolina. It ſeldom grows, at leaſt with us, to more than 5 feet high. It divides into many branches irregularly near the ground. It is of a brown colour, and when bruiſed emits a moſt agreeable odour. The leaves that garniſh this delightful aromatic are of an oval figure, pointed, near 4 inches long, and at leaſt 2½ broad, placed oppoſite by pairs on the branches. At the end of theſe ſtand the flowers of a kind of chocolate purple colour, and poſſeſſed of the oppoſite qualities of the bark on the branches. They ſtand ſingle on their ſhort footſtalks, come out in May and June, and are ſucceeded by ripe ſeeds in England. The propagation of this ſhrub is not very difficult; though more than common care muſt be taken, after ſmall plants are obtained, to preſerve them till they are of a ſize to be ventured abroad. The laſt year's ſhoots, if laid in the ground, the bark being a little bruiſed, will ſtrike root within a year, particularly if the layers are ſhaded, and watered in ſummer. In ſpring they ſhould be taken off, and planted in pots; and if theſe are afforded a ſmall degree of heat in a bed, they will ſtrike ſo much the ſooner and ſtronger. After they have been in this bed a month or ſix weeks, they ſhould be taken out. In the heat of ſummer they ſhould be placed in the ſhade; and if the pots are plunged into the natural ground, ſo much the better. At the approach of the ſucceeding winter's bad weather, the pots ſhould be removed into the green-houſe or ſome ſhelter, and in the ſpring may reſume their old ſtations: and this ſhould be repeated till they are of a proper ſize and ſtrength to be planted out to ſtand. If the pots in which they were firſt planted were ſmall, they may be ſhifted into larger a ſpring or two after; and, when pretty ſtrong, may be turned out, mould and all, into the places where they are to remain. By this care of potting them, and houſing them during the ſevere weather in winter, the young crop will be preſerved; otherwiſe, if they were planted immediately abroad, the firſt hard froſt would deſtroy them all: Tanner's bark about their roots will be the moſt proper ſecurity; as they are at beſt, when full grown, but tender plants, and muſt have the warmeſt ſituation and the drieſt ſoil.

2. CALYCANTHUS PRÆCOX. This ſpecies is not inured to the climate of Britain.

CALYCIFLORÆ. See BOTANY, *Index*.

CALYCINA, METHODUS, CALYCINE METHOD, a ſyſtem of botanical claſſification, founded upon the calyx, and publiſhed by Linnæus at Leyden, in 1738, in his *Claſſes Plantarum*. See BOTANY, § 48.

CALYCISTÆ. See BOTANY, *Index*.

*CALYCLE. *n. ſ.* [*calyculus*, Lat.] A ſmall bud of a plant. *Diſt.*

CALYCULATED, an appellation given to the fruit of thoſe trees or plants, whoſe calyx does not fall, and whoſe fruit ſtands as in a cup.

CALYCULATUS CALYX. See BOTANY, *Gloſſ.*

CALYCULUS, in ancient naturaliſts, denotes a ſiliqua, or ſeed-caſe.

CALYDON, in ancient geography, a town of Æolia, ſituated 7½ miles from the ſea, and divided by the river Evenus.

CALYDONIAN BOAR. See MELEAGER.

CALYPSO, in fabulous hiſtory, a goddeſs, the daughter of Oceanus and Tethys, and queen of the iſland, Ogygia. According to Homer, Ulyſſes ſuffered ſhipwreck on her coaſt, and ſtaid with her ſeveral years.

CALYPSUS. See OGYGIA.

CALYPTRA. See BOTANY, *Gloſſary* & *Index*.

CALYX. See BOTANY, *Index*.

CALZADA, a town of Spain, in Old Caſtile, ſeated on the river Leglera. Lon. 2. 47. W. Lat. 42. 10. N.

(1.) CAM, [old Brit. *i. e.* crooked,] a fine winding river in Cambridgeſhire, which divides the city.

(2.) CAM, a village in Glouceſterſhire, one mile from Durſley, inhabited chiefly by clothiers.

CAMA, a conſiderable river of European Ruſſia, which runs into the Wolga.

CAMACE. See CAMASSEI.

CAMÆA, in natural hiſtory, a genus of the ſemi-pellucid gems approaching to the onyx ſtructure, being compoſed of zones, and formed on a cryſtalline baſis; but having their zones very broad and thick, and laid alternately one on another, with no common matter between; uſually leſs tranſparent, and more debaſed with earth, than the onyxes. There are four ſpecies; viz. 1. The dull-looking-onyx, with broad black and white zones; the camæa of the moderns, and the Arabian onyx. It is found in Egypt, Arabia, Perſia,

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Perſia, and the Eaſt Indies. 2. The duſky broad-zoned, green and white camæa, or the jaſpi-cameo of the Italians; found in the Eaſt Indies, and in ſome parts of America. 3. The hard camæa, with broad white and cheſnut coloured veins. 4. The hard camæa, with bluiſh, white, and fleſh-coloured broad veins, being the ſardonyx of Pliny's time, only brought from the Eaſt Indies.

CAMAHA, in the materia medica, a name given by Avicenna and others to the large muſhrooms found in the deſarts of Numidia, and many other parts of Africa. They are white, on the outſide: the modern Africans call them TERFON, and are very fond of them; they eat them with milk, water, and ſpices, and account them wholeſome and nutritive.

(1.)* CAMAIEU. *n. ſ* [from *camachuia*, which name is given by the orientals to the onyx, when, in preparing it, they find another colour.] 1. A ſtone with various figures and repreſentations of landſkips, formed by nature. 2. [In painting.] A term uſed where there is only one colour, and where the lights and ſhadows are of gold, wrought on a golden or azure ground. This kind of work is chiefly uſed to repreſent baſſo relievos. *Chamb.*

(2—4.) CAMAIEU, or CAMAY-EU, is alſo uſed to expreſs, 1. A peculiar ſort of onyx; 2. Thoſe precious ſtones, as onyxes, cornelians, and agates, whereon the lapidaries employ their art to aid nature, and perfect thoſe repreſentations. See CAMÆA. 4. Any kind of gem, whereon figures may be engraven either indented, or in relievo. In this ſenſe the lapidaries of Paris were called in the old ſtatutes, *cutters of camayeux*. A ſociety of learned men at Florence undertook to procure all the *cameos* or *camayeus*, and intaglios in the great duke's gallery to be engraven; and began to draw the heads of divers emperors in *cameos*.

(1.) CAMALDOLI, Ambroſe DE, general of the order of CAMALDOLITES, was born about A. D. 1387; entered that order at 14 years of age; and was elected general in 1431. He ſtudied Greek at Venice; and in 1437, harangued the emperor John Palæologus, in good Greek, upon a propoſed union between the two churches. He wrote many religious pieces: among which Mr Bayle ſays, "his *Hodeporicon* equally proves him to have been a very honeſt man, and to have lived in a very corrupt age." In this work he tells, that in viſiting the monaſteries he found that "moſt of the convents were *direct brothels*," and conſiſted of *whores* inſtead of *nuns*."

(2.) CAMALDOLI, or CAMPO MALDULI, a horrible deſart of Florence, among the Apennine mountains.

CAMALDOLITES, CAMALDULIANS, or CAMALDUNIANS, } an order of religious, founded by Romuald, an Italian fanatic, in 1023, in the deſart of Camaldoli. Their rule is that of St Benedict; and their houſes, by the ſtatutes, are never to be leſs than 5 leagues from cities. The *Camaldulians* have not born that title from the beginning of their order; till the cloſe of the 11th century they were called ROMUALDINS, from the name of their founder. Till that time, *Camaldulian* was a particular name for thoſe of the deſart Camaldoli; and D. Grandi obſerves, was not given to the whole order, in regard it was in this monaſtery that the order commenced, but becauſe the regulation was beſt maintained here. Guido Grandi, mathematician to the grand duke of Tuſcany, and a monk of this order, publiſhed *Camaldulian* Diſſertations, on the origin and eſtabliſhment of it. They were diſtinguiſhed into two claſſes, *viz.* COENOBITES, and EREMITES.

CAMALODUNUM, in ancient geography, a town of the Trinobantes, the firſt Roman colony of veterans in Britain. From the Itineraries it appears to have ſtood where MALDEN now ſtands. It continued to be an open place under the Romans; a place of pleaſure rather than ſtrength; adorned with ſplendid works, as a theatre, and a temple of Claudius; which the Britons conſidered as badges of ſlavery, and which gave riſe to ſeveral commotions.

CAMARA, in botany, a name given by Plumier, to an American ſpecies of LANTANA.

(1.) CAMARANA, an iſland of Arabia, in the Red Sea, whoſe inhabitants are little and black. It is the beſt of all the iſlands in this ſea. Here they fiſh for coral and pearls. Lat. 15. 0. N.

(2.) CAMARANA, a town of Sicily. See CAMARINA, N° 1.

(3.) CAMARANA, a triangular lake of Sicily, ſituated in a beautiful plain, under the walls of the town, N° 2.

CAMARGUM, in ancient geography, the capital of the Nervii, a people of Gallia Belgica; now called CAMBRAY.

CAMARET, a ſea port of France, in the department of Finiſterre.

CAMARGUE, a fruitful iſland of France, in the department of the Mouths of the Rhone, *literally*, being formed by the two main arms of that river. It lies near Arles.

(1.) CAMARINA, in ancient geography, a city of Sicily, built by the Syracuſans on an eminence near the ſea, in the S. of Sicily, to the W. of the promontory Pachynum, between the rivers Hipparis and Oanus. Nothing remains but its ancient walls, a mile and a half in compaſs; with a few houſes. It is now called CAMARANA.

(2.) CAMARINA PALUS, a marſh or lake, near the city (N° 1.) from which it took its name. In a time of drought, the ſtench of the lake produced a peſtilence; upon which the inhabitants conſulted the oracle, whether they ſhould not drain it. The oracle diſſuaded them: they notwithſtanding drained it, and opened a way for their enemies to come and plunder their city: hence the proverb, *Ne moveas Camarinam*, that is, not to remove one evil to bring on a greater. It is now called *Lago di* CAMARANA.

CAMARON, a river of S. Wales, in Radnorſhire.

(1.) CAMAROSIS, [from καμαρόω, I arch over,] in architecture, denotes an elevation with an arch or vault.

(2.) CAMAROSIS, in ſurgery, denotes a fracture of a bone, wherein the two broken ends riſe and form a kind of arch. It is chiefly applied to fractures in the ſkull.

CAMASSEI, or CAMACE, Andrew, painter of hiſtory and landſcape, was born at Bevagna, and ſtudied under Dominichino and Sacchi. He was

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employed in St Peter's at Rome, and at John Lateran; and his works are much admired for sweetness of colouring, and delicacy of pencil. He died in the bloom of life, when his reputation was daily advancing; A. D. 1657.

CAMAY-EU. See CAMAIEU, § 2—4.

(1.) CAMBA, a province and peninsula of Indostan, more commonly called GUZERAT.

(2.) CAMBA, CAMBAIA, or CAMPAY, a large city of Indostan, capital of the province, N° 1. It is seated at the bottom of the gulf, N° 3. on a small river; and has high walls with a pretty good trade. Its manufactures are inferior to few in India. It abounds in corn, cattle, and silk; and cornelians and agates are found in its rivers. The inhabitants are noted for embroidery; and some of their quilts have been valued at L. 40. It is subject to the Poona Mahrattas, and is 57 m. S. of Amedabad, to which it is the port. Lon. 72. 10. E. Lat. 22. 25. N.

(3.) CAMBA, GULF OF, a deep and dangerous gulf of Indostan.

CAMBAHEE, a considerable river of South Carolina, formed by the junction of two large streams which rise in Orangeburg, and after passing into Charleston district, unite, and running SE. enter St Helena Sound, a little to the SW. of Ashepoo.

CAMBAIA. See CAMBA, N° 2.

CAMBAS, a village in Pembrokesh. 3 m. from Havreford West. It has fairs Feb. 13. and Nov. 12.

CAMBAYES, in commerce, cotton cloths made at Bengal, Madras, and some other places on the coast of Coromandel. They are proper for the trade of Merseilles, whither the English at Madrass sent great numbers of them. Many also of them are imported to Holland.

(1.) CAMBER, in fabulous British history, the 1st prince of CAMBRIA, or Wales. See BRUTUS, N° 3.

(2.) * CAMBER. *n. s.* [See CAMBERING.] A term among workmen.—*Camber*, a piece of timber cut arching, so as a weight considerable being set upon it, it may, in length of time, be induced to a straight. *Moxon's Mechanical Exercises.*

(3.) CAMBER BEAMS, (§ 2.) are commonly used in platforms, as church-leads, and on other occasions, where long and strong beams are required.

CAMBERED is applied to the deck or flooring of a ship when it is higher in the middle of the ship's length, and droops toward the stem and stern. Also when it lies irregular; a circumstance which renders the ship very unfit for war.

CAMBERG, a town of Germany, in the Palatinate of the Rhine, near which Gen. Championet defeated a numerous body of Austrians, in July, 1796, with great slaughter; 35 waggon loads of their wounded have been collected after the battle.

* CAMBERING. *n. s.* A word mentioned by *Skinner*, as peculiar to shipbuilders, who say that a place is *cambering*, when they mean arched. [from *chambre*, French.]

CAMBERLOW GREEN is situated in Hertfordshire, between Baldock and Buntingford.

CAMBERT, a French musician of the 17th century, much admired for the manner in which he touched the organ. He became superintendant of music to Anne of Austria, the queen-mother. The abbe Perin associated him in the privilege he obtained of setting up an opera in 1669. Cambert set to music two pastorals, one entitled *Pomona*, the other *Ariadne*, which were the first operas given in France. He also wrote a piece entitled *The Pains and Pleasures of Love*. These pieces pleased the public; yet, in 1672, Lully obtained the privilege of the opera, Cambert came to England, where he became superintendant of music to king Charles II. and died in 1677.

CAMBERTON, a town in Herefordshire, between Leominster and Shropshire.

CAMBERWELL, in Surry, 2 m. SSE. of Lond.

CAMBIO, an Italian word which signifies *exchange*; commonly used in Holland, and some parts of France.

CAMBIST, a name given in France to those who trade in notes and bills of exchange. The word, though a term of antiquity, is still used among merchants, traders, and bankers. Some derive it from CAMBIO.

CAMBLET. See CAMELOT.

(1.) CAMBODIA, a kingdom of Asia, in the East Indies, bounded on the N. by the kingdom of Laos, on the E. by the kingdom of Cochin-China and Chiapa, and on the S. and W. by the gulf and kingdom of Siam; divided by a large river called MECON. This country is annually overflowed in the rainy season, between June and October; and its productions and fruits are much the same with those usually found between the tropics.

(2.) CAMBODIA, a river in the kingdom, N° 1.

(3.) CAMBODIA, the capital of the kingdom (N° 1.) seated on the W. shore of the river Mecon, about 150 miles N. of its mouth. Lon. 104. 15. E. Lat. 13. 10. N.

(1.) CAMBODUNUM, an ancient town of the Brigantes, in Britain; now called WEST CHESTER, but in ruins.

(2.) CAMBODUNUM, an ancient town of Vindelicia in Suabia, seated on the Cambus, now called KEMPTON.

CAMBOGIA, in botany: A genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the polyandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 39th order, Tricoccæ. The corolla is tetrapetalous; the calyx tetraphyllous; and the fruit is a pome with 8 cells, and solitary seeds. There is but one species, viz.

CAMBOGIA GUTTA, a native of India. It yields the gum resin known by the name of GAMBOGE.

CAMBORITUM. See CAMBRIDGE, N° 2.

CAMBORN, a town near Redruth, Cornwall.

CAMBRASINES, in commerce, fine linen made in Egypt, of which there is a considerable trade at Cairo, Alexandria, and Rafchit. They are so called from their resemblance to cambrics.

(1.) CAMBRAY, a town of France in the department of the North, and the ci-devant capital of the Cambresis; seated on the Scheld. It is defended by good fortifications, and has a fort on the side of the river; and as the land is low on that side, they can lay the adjacent parts under water by means of sluices. Its ditches are large and deep, and those of the citadel are cut into a rock.

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rock. Clodion became master of Cambray in 445. The Danes burnt it afterwards; since which time it became a free imperial city. It has been the subject of contest between the emperors, the kings of France, and the earls of Flanders. Francis I. let it remain neutral during the war with Charles V. but this last took possession of it in 1543. After this it was given by Henry III. of France, to John of Montluc whom he created prince of Cambray; but the Spaniards took it from Montluc in 1593, which broke his heart. It continued under the dominion of the House of Austria, till 1677, when the king of France became master of it, and it has continued ever since annexed to France. The buildings of Cambray are tolerably handsome. and the streets fine and spacious. The place or square for arms is of an extraordinary largeness, and capable of receiving the whole garrison in order of battle. The cathedral is one of the finest in Europe. The body of the church is very large, and there are rich chapels, the pillars of which are adorned with marble tombs of exquisite workmanship, which add greatly to the beauty of the place. There are two galleries, one of which is of copper finely wrought. The door of the choir is of the same metal, and well carved. The steeple of this church is very high, and built in the form of a pyramid; and its top affords a view of the city, which is one of the finest in the Netherlands. The citadel is very advantageously situated on high ground, and commands the whole city. Cambray is one of the most opulent and commercial cities in the French Netherlands; and makes every year a great number of pieces of cambric, with which the inhabitants drive a great trade. Lon. 3. 20. E. Lat. 50. 11. N.

(2.) CAMBRAY, M. de Fenelon, Abp. of. See FENELON.

(3.) CAMBRAY. See CIMBRAES.

CAMBRESIS, a ci-devant province of France, in the Netherlands, about 25 miles in length. It was bounded on the N. and E. by Hainault, on the S. by Picardy, and on the W. by Artois. It is a very fertile and populous country; and the inhabitants are industrious, active, and ingenious. Its trade consists principally of corn, sheep, very fine wool, and fine linen cloth. Cambray was the capital. It is now included in the department of the North.

CAMBRIA, the ancient name of Wales.

(1.) * CAMBRICK. *n. s.* [from *Cambray*, a city in Flanders, where it was principally made.] A kind of fine linen, used for ruffles, womens sleeves, and caps.—He hath ribbons of all colours of the rainbow, inkles, caddises, *cambricks*, and lawns. *Shakespeare.*—Rebecca had, by the use of a looking glass, and by the further use of a certain attire, made of *cambrick*, upon her head, attained to an evil art. *Tatler.*—

Confed'rate in the cheat, they draw the throng,
And *cambrick* handkerchiefs reward the song.
Gay.

(2.) CAMBRICS are now made at other places in France, besides Cambray. This manufacture has long proved of extraordinary advantage to France. For many years it appeared, that England did not in this article contribute less than 200,000 l. per annum to the interest of France. This induced the British parliament to enact many salutary laws to prevent this great loss of our wealth. See 18 Geo. II. c. 36: and 21 Geo. II. c. 26. See also 32 Geo. II. c. 32: and 4 Geo. III. c. 37. which regulates the cambric manufactory, not long ago introduced into Winchelsea in Sussex; but very soon abolished. The cambrics now allowed in this country are manufactured in Scotland and Ireland. Any persons convicted of wearing, selling, (except for exportation,) or making up for hire any French cambrics or lawns, are liable to a penalty of 5 l. by the two first statutes cited above.

(1.) CAMBRIDGE, or CAMBRIDGE-SHIRE, a county of England, bounded on the E. by Norfolk, on the S. by Essex and Herefordshire, on the W. by Bedfordshire and Huntingdonshire, and on the N. by Lincolnshire. It is about 50 miles long, from N. to S. and 25 broad, from E. to W. and 130 in circumference. It lies in the diocese of Ely; and sends six members to parliament, the county, the university, and the town electing two each. The air is very different in different parts of the county. In the fens it is moist and foggy, and therefore not so wholesome; but in the S. and E. parts it is very good, these being much drier than the other: but both, by late improvements, have been rendered very fruitful, the former by draining, and the latter by cinque-foil: so that it produces plenty of corn, barley, saffron, and hemp, and affords the richest pastures. The rivers abound with fish, and the fens with wild fowl. The principal manufactures of the county are malt, pepper, and baskets. The chief rivers are the Ouse, which divides the country into two parts, and is navigable to Lynn in Norfolk; the Cam, the Welland, the Glene, the Witham, and the Peterborough, which is navigable from Wisbech. Part of the fens, called *Bedford level*, lie in this county. See BEDFORD, N° 7. and ELY. This county is divided into 17 hundreds, 7 market towns, and 163 parishes. It contains about 17,400 houses; and 570,000 acres of ground. Of these, it appears from Mr Vancouver's report to the BOARD OF AGRICULTURE, there are no fewer than 319,300 either lying quite waste, or unimproved, in fens, commons, meadows, and inferior pasture. The probable increase of value of these lands, by improvement, on the lowest calculation, is stated by Sir J. Sinclair in his address to the Board, (29th July, 1794,) at L. 146,263: 10 sh. which would furnish subsistence to 43,800 additional inhabitants. And Cambridge-shire being estimated by the celebrated Dr Halley to be a 70th part of England and Wales, Sir John, from these data, calculates the probable extent to which improvements may be carried on, in the kingdom at large, to amount to no less, within 30 years, than an addition of L.905,215,500 to the national capital, and of 3,017,385 souls, to the population of Great Britain. See BOARD, N° VII. § 7.

(2.) CAMBRIDGE, the capital of the county, N° 2. It takes its name from the bridge over the CAM, which divides the town into two parts. Either it or a place in the neighbourhood was styled CAMBORITUM in the time of the Romans. It suffered much during the wars with the Danes. It had a castle built by William the Conqueror, of

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which the gatehouse yet remains, and forms the county goal. By Doomsday book it appears, that it had then ten wards, containing 387 houses. In William Rufus's reign it was quite destroyed by Roger de Montgomery; but Henry I. bestowed many privileges upon it, particularly an exemption from the power of the sheriff, on condition of its paying yearly into the exchequer 100 merks (equivalent to L. 1000 now,) and from tolls, lastage, pontage, passage, and stallage, in all fairs of his dominions. There is a ditch still called the *King's Ditch*, made by Henry III. during the wars with the barons, to secure it against the rebels in the isle of Ely. The place now called the *Jewry* was formerly inhabited by Jews. The market-place is situated in the middle of the town, and consists of two oblong squares united together; at the top of the angle stands the shire hall, lately erected at the expence of the county. In the market-place, fronting the county hall, is a remarkable handsome stone conduit, to which water is conveyed by an aqueduct, which was the benefaction of the celebrated *Hobson*, a carrier in the reign of James I. who was a native of this town. The town is governed by a mayor, high steward, recorder, 13 aldermen, of whom the mayor is one, 24 common council men, a town clerk, and other inferior officers. It has 14 parish churches, and is pretty large; but the situation is low and dirty. George I. was created duke of Cambridge before he succeeded to the throne; and the title has remained in the crown ever since. The number of inhabitants is computed at 6000, and that of houses at 1200. Cambridge has a market every Wed. and Sat. and two great fairs; the one at Midsummer day, which lasts 7 days; and the other Sept. 28, which lasts 14. It lies 28 miles E. by N. from Bedford; 80 ENE. of Oxford; 17 S. of Ely, and 51 N. by E. of London. Lon. 0. 9. E. Lat. 52. 13. N. See farther, § 10.

(3.) CAMBRIDGE, a village of Gloucestershire, near Berkeley, on the river Cam. Here the Danes were attacked by Edward the Elder, and some thousands of them were killed.

(4.) CAMBRIDGE, a post town of the United States, in South Carolina, and the capital of the district of Ninety-Six. It is situated in Abbeville county, 80 miles WNW. of Columbia, 165 NW. of Charleston, and 50 N. by W. of Augusta, in Georgia. It contains about 60 dwellings, a court-house, a brick jail, and a college, lately instituted. A district court is held on the 26th of April and Nov. and a county court for Abbeville county, on the 25th of March, and 12th of Sept. It is 745 miles from Philadelphia.

(5.) CAMBRIDGE, one of the largest and most flourishing towns of Middlesex county, Massachusetts. It is agreeably situated on the N. side of Charles river, over which a bridge has lately been erected connecting Boston with this town. It contains, besides Harvard university, about 100 dwellings, a congregational, and an Episcopalian church, also a court-house. Harvard university consists of 4 large, spacious edifices, built of brick, named Harvard, Hollis, Stoughton, and Massachusetts hall. Harvard hall is divided into six apartments, one of which is appropriated for the library, two for the philosophical apparatus, one for the museum, a fifth for a refectory, and the other for a chapel. The library contains upwards of 13,000 volumes. The philosophical apparatus has cost nearly L. 1,500, and is one of the completest on the American continent. This university was first instituted in 1636, and was no more than an academic free-school; two years after, in consequence of a donation left it by the rev. Mr Harvard of Charlestown, who died there, it was named Harvard college. In 1650, its first charter was obtained from the government of Massachusetts; and in the mean time it received several donations from learned men in Europe. The governor, lieutenant-governor, the council and senate, the president of the university, and the congregational ministers of the six adjoining towns, are, during office, overseers of the university. The corporation is a distinct body, in whom is vested the property of the university. The number of those who had been admitted to academical degrees, from its first establishment, to July, 1793, was 3,360. The usual number of resident students, is from 130 to 160. A supreme court is held here, the last Tues. in Oct. and a court of common pleas, the last Tues. in Nov. It is 350 miles from Philadelphia. Lon. 70. 45. W. Lat. 42. 25. N.

(6.) CAMBRIDGE, the chief town of Dorchester county, Eastern shore of Maryland. It is situated on the S. side of Choptank river, about 15 m. from its mouth: the river is here near two miles wide. It contains about 50 houses, a church, and 300 inhabitants. The situation of the town is healthy and agreeable. It is 18 miles NW. by W. of Vienna, 37 S. of Easton, and 152 SSW. of Philadelphia. Lon. 0. 59. W. Lat. 38. 34. N.

(7.) CAMBRIDGE HEATH, near Hackney, Middlesex.

(8.) CAMBRIDGE MANUSCRIPT, a copy of the Gospels and Acts of the Apostles in Greek and Latin. Beza found it in the monastery of Irenæus at Lyons in 1562, and gave it to the university of Cambridge in 1582. It is a 4to, and written on vellum; 66 leaves of it are much torn and mutilated, and 10 of these are supplied by a later transcriber. Beza conjectures, that this MS. might have been wrote so early as the time of Irenæus. Wetstein apprehends, that it either returned or was first brought from Egypt into France; that it is the same copy which Druthmar, an ancient expositor, who lived about A. D. 840, had seen, and which, he observes, was ascribed to St Hilary; and that R. Stephens had given a particular account of it in his edition of the New Testament in 1550. It is usually called *Stevens's second manuscript*. Mill agrees with F. Simon, that it was written in the western part of the world by a Latin scribe, and that it is to a great degree interpolated and corrupted: he observes, that it agrees so much with the Latin Vulgate, as to afford reason for concluding, that it was corrected or formed upon a corrupt and faulty copy of that translation. From this and the Clermont copy of St Paul's Epistles, Beza published his larger Annotations in 1582.

(9.) CAMBRIDGE-SHIRE. See N° 1.

(10.) CAMBRIDGE, UNIVERSITY OF. In the rebellion

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bellion of Wat Tyler and Jack Straw, in the reign of Richard II. the univerſity records were burnt. It is therefore quite uncertain when this celebrated UNIVERSITY, which is the glory of Cambridge, was firſt founded. It is ſuppoſed, however, to have been erected during the Heptarchy. At firſt there was no public proviſion for the accommodation or maintenance of the ſcholars; but afterwards inns began to be erected by pious perſons for their reception, and in the time of Edward I. colleges began to be built and endowed. The univerſity enjoys great privileges. It is governed by a chancellor, who is always a nobleman, and has a commiſſary under him, but may be changed every 3d year; a high ſteward, choſen by the ſenate; a vice-chancellor, choſen by the whole body of the univerſity; out of two named by the heads of the colleges; two proctors choſen every year, and two taxers, who, with the proctors, regulate the weights and meaſures. The other officers are, a regiſter or keeper of the archives, 3 eſquire beadles, one yeoman beadle, and a library-keeper, &c. The univerſity conſiſts of 12 colleges and 4 halls. Each college has its ſchool and library, as at Oxford, of which thoſe of Trinity and St John are the moſt conſiderable. King George I. purchaſed the library of Dr Moor, biſhop of Ely, conſiſting of 30,000 volumes, for L. 1000, and made a preſent of it to the univerſity; which, out of gratitude, erected, in 1739, a fine marble ſtatue of that prince in the ſenate hall of king's college. A profeſſor of modern languages and hiſtory was alſo eſtabliſhed here, with a ſalary of 400 l. for himſelf and two to teach under him, by king George I. in 1764. Oppoſite to the ſtatue of king George I. is another, on the S. ſide, of George II. erected in 1795, by the duke of Newcaſtle: at the E. end, on each ſide of the entrance, are two others; one, of the late duke of Somerſet; the other, an emblematical figure of Glory. The large room in the ſenate hall, where thoſe ſtatues are erected, is allowed to be the moſt ſuperb room in England, being 101 feet long, 42 broad, and 32 high; and it has a gallery which can contain 1000 perſons. This building forms the N. ſide of a quadrangle, as the ſchools and public library do the W. the ſchools being the ground floor, and the library over them ſurrounding a ſmall court. North of the philoſophy ſchool is the repoſitory of Dr Woodward's foſſils, ores, ſhells, &c. The doctor, together with that collection and a part of his library, left a ſum of money, in 1728, for erecting a profeſſorſhip for natural philoſophy, with a proviſion of 150 l. a-year for ever. At the SE. corner of this building is an elegant geometrical ſtone ſtair-caſe which leads to the old library, and conſiſts of 18 claſſes; at the end of which is an elegant ſquare room, in which are depoſited the M. SS. and a valuable collection of oriental books and curioſities. The maſter and fellows of Catherine-hall are truſtees of an hoſpital for the cure of poor diſeaſed people gratis; for the building and furniſhing of which, Dr Addenbroke left 4000 l. Each college has its chapel for worſhip; but public ſermons are preached at St Mary's church. The moſt remarkable ſtructures are, 1. The chapel of king's college, which for contrivance and extent, fine carved work in wood and ſtone, and painted windows, is hardly to be equalled in the world. It is entirely of free ſtone, roof and all, without one pillar to ſupport it. 2. Trinity-college and library, wonderful both for the deſign and execution. A fellowſhip was founded at Magdalen college, called the *travelling Norfolk fellowſhip*, becauſe it is appropriated to gentlemen of that county. Any perſon that is qualified, may borrow whatever book he has occaſion for, from the libraries at Cambridge. The privilege of ſending members to parliament was firſt granted to the univerſity by James I. The different colleges in the univerſity are, 1. St Peter's, the moſt ancient, and the firſt on entering the town from London. It conſiſts of two courts, ſeparated by a cloiſter and gallery: the largeſt 144 feet long, and 84 broad. The leſſer court is divided by the chapel, which is a fine old building 54 feet long, 27 broad, and 27 high. This college was founded in 1257. There are 3 colleges in Oxford which diſpute the antiquity with this. Cambridge and Oxford were univerſities long before they were poſſeſſed of any colleges in their own right, the ſtudents then lodging and boarding with the townſmen, and they then hired hotels for their exerciſes and diſputations. A hotel or hall, now denominated *Pythagoras's ſchool*, ſituated on the W. ſide of the river, is one of the ancient hotels that remains undemoliſhed, and in which Erafmus read his firſt Greek lectures in England. 2. Clare-hall, on the bank of the river, over which it has an elegant ſtone bridge, was founded 1326, conſiſting of one grand court 150 feet long, and 111 broad. The front of this building, that faces the fields, has the appearance of a palace. To this college a new chapel has been added. 3. Pembroke-hall is near St Peter's college, was founded in 1343, and conſiſts of two courts. It has an elegant chapel built by Sir Chriſtopher Wren. 4. Corpus Chriſti or Bennet college, founded in 1530, has but a mean appearance, but is poſſeſſed of a remarkably large collection of valuable and curious ancient M. SS. 5. Trinity-hall, on the N. of Clare-hall, near the river, was founded in 1351: it is a ſmall but remarkably neat building. 6. Gonvil and Caius college is near the middle of the town, north of the ſenate-houſe, and has three courts. It was founded in 1348, and augmented in 1557. 7. King's-college, the moſt noble foundation in Europe, was firſt endowed by Henry VI. The old court reſembles a decayed caſtle more than a college. The new building is very magnificent, near 300 feet long. The chapel is one of the fineſt pieces of Gothic architecture now remaining in the world. It is 304 feet long, 73 broad on the outſide and 40 within, and 91 high; and yet not a ſingle pillar to ſuſtain its ponderous roofs, of which it has two: the firſt is of ſtone, moſt curiouſly carved; the other of wood, covered with lead, between which is a vacancy of 10 feet. There is ſuch a profuſion of carving both within and without as is no where to be equalled. Henry VII. enlarged it 188 feet in length, and Henry VIII. gave the elegant ſtalls and organ gallery, with its inimitable carvings, where are the coats of arms of that king and thoſe of Anne Boleyn quartered. He gave alſo the elegant painted glaſs windows,

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windows, which are in fine preſervation, and were permitted by Cromwell to be preſerved, when almoſt every other in England was deſtroyed; as he had a particular regard for this univerſity, where he had his education, and for the town which he had repreſented in parliament. A new altar, has been lately erected, and correſponds with the architecture of the building, embelliſhed with an antique painting of Chriſt taking down from the croſs, purchaſed in Italy, and preſented to the college by the earl of Carliſle. In this chapel are put up the Spaniſh colours taken at the reduction of Manilla by Colonel Draper, a member of this college. This college has an ancient ſtone bridge over the Cam. 8. Queen's college, near the river, ſouth of King's, was founded 1448, and conſiſts of two courts, with a fine grove and gardens on both ſides of the river, connected with each other and the college by two wooden bridges, one of which is of a curious ſtructure. 9. Catharine-hall, is E. of Queen's, and its principal front on the W. the moſt extenſive and regular in the univerſity. It contains only one court 180 feet long and 120 broad, and was founded in 1475. 10. Jeſus college is at the E. end of the town, ſurrounded by groves and gardens. The principal front faces the S. 180 feet long, regularly built and faſhed; it was originally a Benedictine convent, and converted to its preſent uſe in 1576. 11. Chriſt's college is oppoſite to St Andrew's church, on the E. ſide of the town; and was founded by Henry VII's mother in 1505. It has lately had a thorough repair, and is now a neat and beautiful ſtructure. 12. St John's college was founded by the ſame lady in 1509, on the ſite of a diſſolved priory. It conſiſts of 3 courts, and has a large library filled with ſcarce and valuable books. To this college belongs a fine ſtone bridge over the river, which leads to their grand walks. 13. Magdalen college, the only one that ſtands on the N. ſide of the river, near the great bridge, conſiſts of two courts, and was founded in 1519. 14. Trinity college is eaſt of the river, having St John's college on the N. and Caius college and Trinity-hall on the S. It contains two large quadrangles, the firſt of which is 344 feet long, and 280 broad. It has two noble entrances; and on the N. ſide of it is the chapel 204 feet long, 34 broad, and 44 high. It has every grand ornament, and the much admired ſtatue of Sir Iſaac Newton, who was a ſtudent in this college. The hall is above 100 feet long, 40 broad, and 50 high. The inner court is eſteemed the fineſt in the univerſity, and ſurpaſſes any in Oxford. It is very ſpacious, and has an elegant cloiſter of ſtone pillars, ſupporting grand apartments; on the W. is the library, the moſt elegant ſtructure of the kind in the kingdom, 190 feet long, 40 broad, and 38 high within. Its entrance is by a ſtair caſe, the ſteps black marble, and the walls incruſted with ancient Roman monuments. The entrance into the library is by folding doors at the N. end. Its inſide appearance is inexpreſſibly grand, having at the ſouth end (lately erected) a beautiful painted glaſs window of his preſent majeſty in his robes; and the claſſes are large, beautiful, and noble, well ſtocked with books, manuſcripts, &c. Its outſide has every ſuitable embelliſhment, and was erected by Sir Chriſtopher Wren at the expence of near 20,000. Under this building is a ſpacious piazza of equal dimenſions: out of which open 3 gates to a lawn that leads to the river, over which is a new elegant cycloidal bridge of 3 arches, leading to extenſive walks. In the middle is a remarkable viſta. This college was founded on the ſite of two other colleges and a hall in 1546 by Henry VIII. 15. Emanual college is at the SE. end of the town; conſiſts of two courts, the principal of which is very neat; and was built on the ſite of a Dominican convent. It has been lately in a great part rebuilt and elegantly embelliſhed. 16. Sidney-Suſſex college is in Bridge-ſtreet. Its hall is elegant, but the chapel remarkable only for ſtanding N. and S. as others do E. and W.

CAMBUS, a town near Blithe, Northumberland.

CAMBUSKENNETH, an ancient abbey in Clackmannanſhire, now in ruins.

CAMBUSLANG, [from *Cam-eas*, or *Cam-uiſ*, Gael. *i. e.* a crooked rivulet, and *Lan*, or *Lanus*, the name of an ancient ſaint,] a pariſh of Scotland, in Lanarkſhire, formerly called DRUMSARGARD, comprehending an extent of about 8 m. ſquare. It is ſituated between Glaſgow and Hamilton, and bounded for 3 miles by the Clyde. The ſoil is clayey on a till bottom. The climate is various, but healthy. By a meteorological journal kept at the manſe for 7 years, the proportion of dry weather to wet, was as $15\frac{4}{5}$ to 15. The whole ground is arable and well cultivated, producing all the uſual crops: the average value of which, on 3800 acres, is ſtated by the rev. Dr Meek, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, at L. 9090: 10 ſh. The population, in 1791, was 1288; and had increaſed 354, ſince 1755. The number of horſes was 180; of ſheep, 410, and of black cattle, 630. There are 100 coal pits in the pariſh, which have been wrought in ſucceſſion for upwards of 400 years. About 600 cart-loads are ſtill put out weekly, or 30,000 yearly. Muſlins, hollands, and cotton ſtuffs are manufactured in the pariſh. Dr Meek gives a particular account of the religious phænomena, which took place in it, A. D. 1742; for which we muſt refer the inquiſitive reader to *Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc. Vol. V. p.* 266.

CAMBUSMICHAEL, or CAMPSMICHAEL, a pariſh of Scotland, in Perthſhire, now united to that of St Martin's. See MARTIN'S, ST.

CAMBUSNETHAN, a pariſh of Scotland, in Lanarkſhire, about 12 m. long, and $2\frac{1}{4}$ broad; 14 m. from Glaſgow, 9 from Lanark, and 4 from Hamilton. The ſoil, climate, and cultivation are ſimilar to thoſe of CAMBUSLANG. The annual produce is eſtimated at 11,520 bolls grain, of which above 2000 are exported. Grounds fit only for orchards are planted with fruit trees and turn out profitable. Iron-ſtone, free-ſtone, and coals abound. The population, in 1791, as ſtated by the rev. Mr Lockhart, in his return to Sir J. Sinclair, was 1684; and had increaſed 265, in 36 years. The inhabitants have given a ſpecimen of their literary taſte by the erection of two libraries.

CAMBYSES. See PERSIA, HISTORY OF.

CAMCHATKA. See KAMTSCHATKA.

(1.) CAMDEN, a county of the United States, in Edenton diſtrict, N. Carolina; bounded N. by the

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the ſtate of Virginia, SW. and W. by Paſquotank river, which ſeparates it from Paſquotank county, and E. by Currituck. It contains 2,995 free inhabitants, and 1,238 ſlaves. The chief town is Joneſborough.

(2.) CAMDEN, a diſtrict of South Carolina, bounded on the NE. by Cheraws, SE. by Georgetown, N. by the ſtate of North Carolina, NW. by Pinkney, W. by Ninety-Six, SW. by Orangeburg, and S. by Charleſton diſtrict. It is 82 miles from N. to S. and 60 from E. to W. and is divided into the following counties, viz. Fairfield, Richland, Lancaſter, Kerſhaw, Clermont, Clarendon, and Salem. It contains 38,065 inhabitants, of whom 7,865 are ſlaves. It is watered by the river Catabaw, which paſſes nearly through the middle of it. In the N. part of the diſtrict is the Catabaw nation of Indians, the only tribe which reſides in the ſtate. See CATABAW. The upper part of this diſtrict is diverſified with hills, the ſoil in general rich, and the country well watered. It produces good crops of Indian corn, wheat, rye, barley, tobacco, cotton, &c.

(3.) CAMDEN, a poſt town of S. Carolina, and capital of the diſtrict, N° 2. It is ſituated in Kerſhaw county, on the E. ſide of the Wateree, 120 miles N. by W. of Charleſton, and contains about 120 houſes regularly built on a good plan. It has a court houſe, jail, and an Epiſcopalian church. It is ſituated on a large navigable river, and carries on a briſk trade with the back counties. A diſtrict court is held here on the 26th April and Nov. A battle was fought at this town on the 16th Aug. 1780, between gen. Gates and lord Cornwallis, in which the Americans were defeated. See the particulars of this action, under the article AMERICA, § 31. Another was fought, on the 25th April, 1781, between lord Rawdon and gen. Greene, who was encamped within a mile of the town, Rawdon ſallied out with 800 men and attacked gen. Greene in his camp, who commanded a party of Continentals, and a party of undiſciplined militia. The Americans had 126 killed, and 100 taken priſoners. The Engliſh had about 100 killed. The 13th of May following, the Britiſh evacuated and burnt the town. See AMERICA, § 32. It is 35 miles NE. of Columbia, and 626 SW. by S. of Philadelphia. Lon. 5. 23. W. Lat. 34. 17. N.

(4.) CAMDEN, a ſmall poſt town of the diſtrict of Maine; ſituated in Lincoln county, on the E. ſide of Kenebec river. It is 228 miles from Boſton, and 572 from Philadelphia.

(5.) CAMDEN, a village of Kent county, in the ſtate of Delaware; ſituated a few miles S. of Dover.

(6.) CAMDEN, William, the great antiquarian, was born in London, in 1551. He was educated at Chriſt's hoſpital, and St Paul's ſchool; and from thence ſent, in 1566, to Oxford, and entered ſervitor of Magdalen college; but being diſappointed of a demy's place, he removed to Broadgate hall, and two years after, to Chriſt church, where he was ſupported by his kind friend Dr Thornton. About this time he was a candidate for a fellowſhip of All-ſouls college, but loſt it by the intrigues of the Popiſh party. In 1570, he ſupplicated the regents of the univerſity to be admitted B. A. but in this alſo he miſcarried. The following year he came to London, where he proſecuted his favourite ſtudy of antiquity, under Dr Goodman, dean of Weſtminſter, by whoſe intereſt he was made 2d maſter of Weſtminſter ſchool in 1575. Between his leaving the univerſity and this period, he took ſeveral journeys to different parts of England, to collect materials for his *Britannia*, in which he was now deeply engaged. In 1581, he became intimately acquainted with the learned preſident Briſſon, who was then in England; and in 1586 he publiſhed the firſt edition of his Britannia. In 1593 he ſucceeded to the head maſterſhip of Weſtminſter ſchool. In 1597 he publiſhed his Greek grammar, and was made Clarenceux king at arms. In 1600 he made a tour to the N. as far as Carliſle, accompanied by his friend Mr (afterwards Sir Robert) Cotton. In 1606 he began his correſpondence with the celebrated De Thou, which continued to the death of that faithful hiſtorian. In 1607, he publiſhed his laſt edition of the Britannia, which is that from which the Engliſh tranſlations have been made; and in 1608, he began to digeſt his materials for a hiſtory of the reign of Q. Elizabeth. In 1609, after recovering from a dangerous illneſs, he retired to Chiſlehurſt in Kent, where he continued to ſpend the ſummer months during the remainder of his life. The firſt part of his annals of the queen did not appear till 1615, and he determined that the 2d vol. ſhould not appear till after his death. The reign of queen Elizabeth was ſo recent when his 1ſt vol. was publiſhed, that many of the perſons concerned, or their dependents, were ſtill living. It is no wonder, therefore, than the honeſt hiſtorian ſhould offend thoſe whoſe actions would not bear inquiry. Some of his enemies were clamorous and troubleſome; which determined him not to publiſh the 2d volume during his life; but, that poſterity might be in no danger of being diſappointed, he depoſited one copy in the Cottonian library, and tranſmitted another to his friend Dupuy at Paris. It was firſt printed at Leyden in 1625. The MS. was entirely finiſhed in 1617; and from that time he was principally employed in collecting more materials for the further improvement of his Britannia. In 1622, being now upwards of 70, and finding his health declining, he determined to execute his deſign of founding an hiſtory lecture in the univerſity of Oxford. His deed of gift was accordingly tranſmitted by his friend Mr Heather, to Mr Gregory Wheare, who was, by himſelf, appointed his firſt profeſſor. He died at Chiſlehurſt, in 1623, in the 73d year of his age; and was buried in Weſtminſter abbey, where a monument of white marble was erected to his memory. Camden was a man of ſingular modeſty and integrity; profoundly learned in the hiſtory and antiquities of this kingdom, and a judicious and conſcientious hiſtorian. He was eſteemed by the literati of all nations, and will ever be remembered as an honour to his age and country. Beſides the works already mentioned, he was author of ſeveral tracts in Hearne's collection.

(7.) CAMDEN HOUSE, W. of Kenſington palace, Middleſex.

(1.) CAME, a village near Dorcheſter.

(2.) * CAME. The preterite of *To come*.—

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Till all the pack *came* up, and ev'ry hound
Tore the ſad huntſman, grov'ling on the ground.
Addiſon.

CAMEA. See CAMÆA.

(1.) * CAMEL. *n. ſ.* [*camelus*, Lat.] An animal very common in Arabia, Judea, and the neighbouring countries. One ſort is large, and full of fleſh, and fit to carry burdens of 1000 lb. weight, having one bunch upon its back. Another have two bunches upon their backs, like a natural ſaddle, and are fit either for burdens, or men to ride on. A third kind is leaner, and of a ſmaller ſize, called dromedaries, becauſe of their ſwiftneſs; which are generally uſed for riding by men of quality.—*Camels* have large ſolid feet, but not hard. *Camels* will continue ten or twelve days without eating or drinking, and keep water a long time in their ſtomach, for their refreſhment. *Calmet.*

Patient of thirſt and toil,
Son of the deſart! even the *camel* feels,
Shot through his wither'd heart, the fiery blaſt.
Thomſon.

(2.) CAMEL, in geography, a river in the county of Cornwall; alſo called ALAN.

(3.) CAMEL, in mechanics, a kind of machine uſed in Holland for raiſing or lifting ſhips, in order to bring them over the Pampus, at the mouth of the river Y, where the ſhallowneſs of the water hinders large ſhips from paſſing. It is alſo uſed in other places, particularly at the dock of Peterſburg, the veſſels built there being, in their paſſage to Cronſtadt, lifted over the bar by means of camels. Theſe machines were originally invented by the celebrated De Wit, for the purpoſe above mentioned; and were introduced into Ruſſia by Peter the Great, who obtained the model of them when he worked in Holland as a common ſhipwright. A camel is compoſed of two ſeparate parts, whoſe outſides are perpendicular, and whoſe inſides are concave, ſhaped ſo as to embrace the hull of a ſhip on both ſides. Each part has a ſmall cabin with 16 pumps and 10 plugs, and contain 20 men. They are braced to a ſhip underneath by means of cables, and entirely enclоſe its ſides and bottom; being then towed to the bar, the plugs are opened, and the water admitted until the camel ſinks with the ſhip and runs a-ground. Then, the water being pumped out, the camel riſes, lifts up the veſſel, and the whole is towed over the bar. This machine can raiſe the ſhip 11 feet, or, in other words, make it draw 11 feet leſs water.

(4.) CAMEL, in zoology. See CAMELUS.

CAMELEON. See CHAMÆLEON, & LACERTA.

(1.) CAMELFORD, a borough town of Cornwall, ſeated on the Camel, conſiſting of about 100 houſes, badly built; but the ſtreets are broad and well paved. It has a great market for yarn, and 4 fairs, on the 1ſt Friday after 10 March, 26 May, 17 July, and 17 Sept. It ſends two members to parliament. It lies 24 miles from Launceſton, and 229 W. by S. of London. Lon. 4. 55. W. Lat. 50. 42. N.

(2.) CAMELFORD, a village in Yorkſhire, near Ferrybridge, on the inland navigation.

CAMELINA, in botany. See CHENOPODIUM.

CAMELLIA, in botany: a genus of the polyandria order, belonging to the monadelphia claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 37th order, *Columniferæ*. The calyx is imbricated and polyphyllous, with the interior leaves larger than the exterior. There is but one ſpecies, a native both of China and Japan. Thunberg, in his *Flora Japonica*, deſcribes it as growing every where, in the groves and gardens of Japan, where it becomes a prodigiouſly large and tall tree, highly eſteemed by the natives for the elegance of its large and very variable bloſſoms and its evergreen leaves. It is there found with ſingle and double flowers, white, red, and purple, produced from April to October. Repreſentations of this flower are frequently met with in Chineſe paintings. With us, the *Camellia* is generally treated as a ſtove plant, and propagated by layers; it is ſometimes placed in the green-houſe; but it appears to be one of the propereſt plants imaginable for the conſervatory. At ſome future time it may, perhaps, not be uncommon to treat it as a LAURUSTINUS or MAGNOLIA: the high price at which it has hitherto been ſold, has probably prevented its being hazarded in this way. The bloſſoms are of a firm texture, but apt to fall off long before they have loſt their brilliancy. Some ſtick ſuch deciduous bloſſoms on freſh buds, where they continue to look well for a conſiderable time. Petiver conſidered this plant as a ſpecies of tea tree; and future obſervations will probably confirm his conjecture.

CAMELODUNUM, the ancient Roman name, 1. of DONCASTER in Yorkſhire: and, 2. of MALDEN in Eſſex. See CAMALODUNUM.

(1.) * CAMELOPARD. *n. ſ.* [from *camelus* and *pardus*, Latin.] An Abyſſinian animal, taller than an elephant, but not ſo thick. He is ſo named, becauſe he has a neck and head like a camel; he is ſpotted like a pard, but his ſpots are white upon a red ground. The Italians call him *giaraffa*. *Trevoux.*

(2.) CAMELOPARD. See ASTRONOMY, § 550.

(3.) CAMELOPARD, or } in zoology, the trivial name of a ſpecies of CERVUS.
CAMELOPARDALIS, }

(1.) * CAMELOT. CAMLET. *n. ſ.* [from *camel*.] 1. A kind of ſtuff originally made by a mixture of ſilk and camels hair; it is now made with wool and ſilk.—This habit was not of camels ſkin, nor any coarſe texture of its hair, but rather ſome finer weave of *camelot*, grograin, or the like; in as much as theſe ſtuffs are ſuppoſed to be made of the hair of that animal. *Brown's Vulg. Errours.* 2. Hair cloth.—

Meantime the paſtor ſhears their hoary beards,
And eaſes, of their hair, the loaden herds:
Their *camelots* warm in tents the ſoldier hold,
And ſhield the ſhiv'ring mariner from cold.
Dryden.

(2.) CAMELOT, or CHAMBLET, is ſometimes made of goats hair, with wool or ſilk: in ſome, the warp is ſilk and wool twiſted together, and the woof hair. The true or oriental camelot is made of the pure hair of a ſort of goat, frequent about Angora; all the inhabitants whereof are employed in the manufacture and commerce of camlets. Mention is made in writers of the middle age, of ſtuffs made of camel's hair, under the denominations of *cameletum* and *camelinum*, whence probably

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probably the origin of the term; but theſe are repreſented as ſtrangely coarſe, rough, and prickly, and ſeem to have been chiefly uſed among the monks by way of mortification, as the hair ſhirt of later times. We have no camlets made in Europe of the goats hair alone; even at Bruſſels, they add a mixture of woollen thread. England, France, Holland, and Flanders, are the chief places of this manufacture. Bruſſels exceeds them all in the beauty and quality of its camlets: thoſe of England are reputed the ſecond.

(3.) CAMELOTS, FIGURED, are thoſe of one colour, whereon are ſtamped various figures, flowers, foliage, &c. by means of hot irons, which are a kind of moulds, paſſed together with the ſtuff, under a preſs. Theſe are chiefly brought from Amiens and Flanders; the commerce of theſe was anciently much more conſiderable than at preſent.

(4.) CAMELOTS, WATERED, thoſe which, after weaving, receive a certain preparation with water; and are afterwards paſſed under a hot-preſs, which gives them a ſmoothneſs and luſtre.

(5.) CAMELOTS, WAVED, are thoſe whereon waves are impreſſed, as on tabbies; by means of a calender, under which they are paſſed and repaſſed ſeveral times. The manufacturers, &c. of camlets ought to take care they do not acquire any needleſs plaits; it being almoſt impoſſible to get them out again. This is notorious, even to a proverb: we ſay, a perſon is like camlet, he has taken his plait.

CAMEL, QUEENS. See QUEEN-CAMEL.

CAMELUS, the CAMEL, in zoology, a genus of quadrupeds belonging to the order of pecora. The characters of the camel are theſe: It has no horns; it has ſix fore-teeth in the under jaw; the laniarii are wide ſet, three in the upper, and two in the lower jaw; and there is a fiſſure in the upper lip, reſembling a cleft in the lip of a hare. There are 4 ſpecies.

1. CAMELUS BACTRIANUS, the Bactrian camel, has two bunches on the back, but is in all reſpects like the DROMEDARIUS, (ſee N° 2.) of which it ſeems to be a mere variety, rather than a different ſpecies; and is equally adapted for riding or carrying loads. It is ſtill found wild in the deſerts of the temperate parts of Aſia, particularly in thoſe between China and India. Theſe are larger and more generous than the domeſticated race. The Bactrian camel, which is very common in Aſia, is extremely hardy, and in great uſe among the Tartars and Mongols, as a beaſt of burden, from the Caſpian Sea to the empire of China. It bears even ſo ſevere a climate as that of Siberia, being found about the lake Baikal, where the Burats and Mongols keep great numbers. They are far leſs than thoſe which inhabit Weſtern Tartary. Here they live during winter on willows and other trees, and are by this diet reduced very lean. They loſe their hair in April and go naked all May, amidſt the froſts of that ſevere climate. To thrive, they muſt have dry ground and ſalt marſhes. There are ſeveral varieties of this ſpecies. The TURKMAN is the largeſt and ſtrongeſt. The Arabian is hardy. What is called the DROMEDARY, MAHARY, and RAGUAHL, is very ſwift. The common ſort travel about 30 miles a day. The laſt, which has a leſs bunch, and more delicate ſhape, and is alſo much inferior in ſize, never carries burdens; but is uſed to ride on. In Arabia, they are trained for running-matches: and in many places for carrying couriers, who can go above 100 miles a day on them for 9 days together, over burning deſerts, uninhabitable by any living creature. The African camels are the moſt hardy, having more diſtant and more dreadful deſerts to paſs over than any of the others, from Numidia to the kingdom of Ethiopia. In Weſtern Tartary there is a white variety, very ſcarce, and ſacred to the idols and prieſts. The Chineſe have a ſwift variety, which they call by the expreſſive name of *Fong-Kyo-Fo*, or camels with feet of the wind. Fat of camels, or, as theſe people call it, oil of bunches, being drawn from them, is eſteemed in many diſorders, ſuch as ulcers, numbneſs, and conſumptions. This ſpecies of camel is rare in Arabia, being an exotic, and only kept by great men. Camels have conſtituted the riches of Arabia from the time of Job to the preſent day. The patriarch reckoned 6000 camels among his paſtoral treaſures, and the modern Arabs eſtimate their wealth by the number of theſe uſeful animals. Without them great part of Africa would be wretched; by them the whole commerce is carried through arid and burning tracts, impaſſable but by beaſts which Providence formed expreſsly for the ſcorched deſerts. Their ſoles are adapted to the ſands they are to paſs over, their toughneſs and ſpungy ſoftneſs preventing them from cracking. Their great powers of ſuſtaining abſtinence from drinking enables them to paſs over unwatered tracts for many days, without requiring the leaſt liquid; and their patience under hunger is ſuch that they will travel many days fed only with a few dates, or ſome ſmall balls of bean or barley-meal, or on the miſerable thorny plants they meet with in the deſerts. The Arabians regard the camel as a preſent from heaven, a ſacred animal, without whoſe aſſiſtance they could neither ſubſiſt, carry on trade, nor travel. Camel's milk is their common food. They alſo eat its fleſh, that of the young camel being reckoned highly ſavory. Of the hair of thoſe animals, which is fine and ſoft, and which is completely renewed every year, the Arabians make ſtuffs for clothes, and other furniture. With their camels, they not only want nothing, but have nothing to fear. In one day, they can perform a journey of 50 leagues into the deſart, which cuts off every approach from their enemies. All the armies of the world would periſh in purſuit of a troop of Arabs. Hence they never ſubmit, unleſs from choice, to any power. With a view to his predatory expeditions, the Arab inſtructs, rears, and exerciſes his camels. A few days after their birth, he folds their limbs under their belly, forces them to remain on the ground, and, in this ſituation, loads them with a pretty heavy weight, which is never removed but for the purpoſe of replacing a greater. Inſtead of allowing them to feed at pleaſure, and to drink when they are dry, he begins with regulating their meals, and makes them gradually travel long journeys, diminiſhing, at the ſame time, the quantity of their aliment. When they acquire ſome ſtrength, they are trained to the courſe. He excites their emulation by the example of horſes, and, in time, ren-

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ers them more robuſt. In fine, after he is certain of the ſtrength, fleetneſs, and ſobriety of his camels, he loads them both with his own and their food, ſets off with them, arrives unperceived at the confines of the deſert, robs the firſt paſſengers he meets, pillages the ſolitary houſes, loads his camels with the booty, and, if purſued, he is obliged to accelerate his retreat. On theſe occaſions he unfolds his own talents and thoſe of the camels. He mounts one of the fleeteſt, conducts the troop, and makes them travel night and day, without, almoſt, either ſtopping, eating, or drinking; and, in this manner, he eaſily performs a journey of 900 miles in 8 days. During this period of motion and faſtigue, his camels are perpetually loaded, and he allows them each day, one hour only of repoſe, and a ball of paſte. They often run in this manner 9 or 10 days, without finding water; and when, by chance, there is a pool at ſome diſtance, they ſcent the water half a league off. Thirſt makes them double their pace, and they drink as much at once as ſerves them for the time that is paſt, and as much to come; for their journeys often laſt ſeveral weeks, and their abſtinence continues an equal time. Of all carriages, that by camels is the cheapeſt and moſt expeditious. The merchants and other paſſengers unite in a caravan, to prevent the inſults and robberies of the Arabs. Theſe caravans are often very numerous, and are always compoſed of more camels than men. Each camel is loaded in proportion to his ſtrength; and, when overloaded, he refuſes to march, and continues lying till his burden is lightened. The large camels generally carry 1000 or 1200 lb. weight, and the ſmalleſt from 600 to 700. In theſe commercial travels, their march is not haſtened: As the route is often 700 or 800 leagues, their motions and journeys are regulated. They walk only, and perform about from 10 to 12 leagues each day. Every night they are unloaded, and allowed to paſture at freedom. When in a rich country, or fertile meadow, they eat, in leſs than an hour, as much as ſerves them to ruminate the whole night, and to nouriſh them 24 hours. But they ſeldom meet with ſuch paſtures; neither is this delicate food neceſſary for them. They even ſeem to prefer wormwood, thiſtles, nettles, broom caſſia, and other prickly vegetables, to the ſofteſt herbage. As long as they find plants to browſe they eaſily diſpenſe with drink. This facility of abſtaining long from drink proceeds not, however, from habit alone, but is rather an effect of their ſtructure. Independent of the 4 ſtomachs, which are common to ruminating animals, the camels have a 5th bag, which ſerves them as a reſervoir for water. This 5th ſtomach is peculiar to the camel. It is ſo large as to contain a vaſt quantity of water, where it remains without corrupting, or mixing with the other aliments. When the animal is preſſed with thirſt, and has occaſion for water to macerate his dry food in ruminating, he makes part of this water mount into his paunch, or even as high as the œſophagus, by a ſimple contraction of certain muſcles. It is by this ſingular conſtruction that the camel is enabled to paſs ſeveral days without drinking, and to take at a time a prodigious quantity of water, which remains in the reſervoir pure and limpid, becauſe neither the liquors of the body, nor the juices of digeſtion can mix with it. Travellers, when much oppreſſed with drought, are ſometimes obliged to kill their camels in order to have a ſupply of drink from theſe reſervoirs. Theſe inoffenſive creatures muſt ſuffer much; for they utter the moſt lamentable cries, eſpecially when overloaded. But though perpetually oppreſſed, their fortitude is equal to their docility. At the firſt ſignal, they bend their knees and lie down to be loaded, which ſaves their conductor the trouble of raiſing the goods to a great height. As ſoon as they are loaded, they riſe ſpontaneouſly, and without any aſſiſtance. One of them is mounted by their conductor, who goes before, and regulates the march of all the followers. They require neither whip nor ſpur. But, when they begin to be tired, their courage is ſupported, or rather their fatigue is charmed, by ſinging, or by the ſound of ſome inſtrument. Their conductors relieve each other in ſinging; and, when they want to prolong the journey, they give the animals but one hour's reſt after which reſuming their ſong, they proceed on their march for ſeveral hours more, and the ſinging is continued till they arrive at another reſting place, when the camels again lie down; and their loads, by unlooſing the ropes, are allowed to glide off on each ſide of the animals. Thus they ſleep on their bellies in the middle of their baggage, which, next morning is fixed on their backs with equal quickneſs and facility as it had been detached the evening before. Fatigue, hunger, thirſt, and meagreneſs, are not the only inconveniences to which theſe animals are ſubjected: To all theſe evils they are prepared by caſtration. One male is only left for 8 or 10 females; and the labouring camels are generally geldings. They are unqueſtionably weaker than unmutilated males; but they are more tractable, and at all ſeaſons ready for ſervice; while the former are not only unmanageable, but almoſt furious during the rutting ſeaſon, which laſts forty days, and returns annually in the ſpring. It is then ſaid, that they foam, continually, and that one or two red veſicles, as large as a hog's bladder, iſſue from their mouths. In this ſeaſon they eat little, attack and bite animals, and even their own maſters, to whom at all other times they are very ſubmiſſive. Their mode of copulating differs from that of other quadrupeds; for the female, inſtead of ſtanding, lies down on her knees, and recieves the males in the ſame poſition that ſhe repoſes, or is loaded. This poſture to which the animals are early accuſtomed muſt be natural, ſince they aſſume it ſpontaneouſly in coition. The time of geſtation is near 12 months; and like all large quadrapeds, the females bring forth only one at a birth. Her milk is copious and thick; and when mixed with a large quantity of water, affords an excellent nouriſhment to men. The females are not obliged to labour, but are allowed to paſture and produce at full liberty. The advantage derived from their produce and their milk is perhaps ſuperior to what could be drawn from their working. In ſome places, however, moſt of the females are caſtrated, to fit them for labour; and it is alledged, that this operation, inſtead of diminiſhing, augments

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augments their ſtrength, vigour, and plumpneſs. In general, the fatter camels are, they are the more capable of enduring great fatigue. Their bunches ſeem to proceed from a redundance of nourihment; for during long journeys, in which their conductor is obliged to huſband their food, and when they often ſuffer much hunger and thirſt, theſe bunches gradually diminiſh, and become ſo flat, that the place where they were is only perceptible by the length of the hair, which is always longer on theſe parts than on the reſt of the back. The meagreneſs of the body augments in proportion as the bunches decreaſe. The Moors who tranſport all articles of merchandiſe from Barbary and Numidia, as far as Ethiopia, ſet out with their camels well ladened, which are very fat and vigorous; and bring back the ſame animals ſo meagre, that they commonly ſell at a low price to the Arabs of the Deſert, to be again fattened. Ancient authors aſſert, that camels are in a condition for propagating at the age of three years. This aſſertion is ſuſpicious; for, in three years, they have not acquired one half of their growth. The penis of the male, like that of the bull, is very long and very ſlender. During erection, it ſtretches forward, like that of all other quadrupeds; but, in its ordinary ſtate, the ſheath is drawn backward, and the urine is diſcharged from between the hind legs; ſo that both males and females urine in the ſame manner. The young camel ſucks her mother 12 months; but, when meant to be trained, in order to render him ſtrong and robuſt in the chace, he is allowed to ſuck and paſture at freedom during the firſt years, and is not loaded, or made to perform any labour, till he is 4 years old. He generally lives 40 and ſometimes 50 years, which duration of life is proportioned to the time of his growth. There is no foundation for what has been advanced by ſome authors, that he lives 100 years. By conſidering, under one point of view, all the qualities of this animal, and all the advantages derived from him, it muſt be acknowledged, that he is the moſt uſeful creature ſubjected to the ſervice of man. Gold and ſilk conſtitute not the true riches of the Eaſt. The camel is the genuine treaſure of Aſia. He is more valuable than the elephant; for he may be ſaid to perform an equal quantity of labour at a 20th part of the expence. Beſides the whole ſpecies are under ſubjection to man, who propagates and multiplies them at pleaſure. But he has no ſuch dominion over the elephant, whom he cannot multiply, and the individuals of whom he conquers with great labour and difficulty. The camel is not only more valuable than the elephant, but is perhaps equal in utility to the horſe, the aſs, and the ox, when their powers are united. He carries as much as two mules; though he eats as little, and feeds upon herbs equally coarſe as the aſs. The female furniſhes milk longer than the cow. The fleſh of a young camel is as good and wholeſome as veal: The Africans and Arabs fill their pots and tubs with it. It is fried with greaſe, and preſerved in this manner during the whole year for their ordinary repaſts. The hair is finer and more in requeſt than the beſt wool. Even their excrements are uſeful; for ſal ammoniac is made of their urine; and their dung, dried in the ſun and pulveriſed, ſerves for litter to themſelves, as well as to horſes, with which people frequently travel in countries where no hay or ſtraw can be had. In fine, their dung makes excellent fuel, which burns freely, and gives a clear and nearly as hot a flame as dry wood, which is of great uſe in the deſerts, where not a tree is to be found, and where, for want of combuſtible materials, fire is as ſcarce as water.

2. CAMELUS DROMEDARIUS, the Arabian camel, with one bunch or protuberance on the back. It has 4 callous protuberances on the fore-legs, and 2 on the hind ones. This ſpecies is common in Africa, and the warmer parts of Aſia; not that it is ſpread over either of the continents. It is a common beaſt of burden in Egypt, and along the countries which border on the Mediterranean Sea; in Morocco, Sara or the Deſert, and Ethiopia: but no where S of theſe kingdoms. In Aſia, it is equally common in Turky and Arabia; but ſcarcely ſeen farther N. than Perſia, being too tender to bear a more ſevere climate. India is deſtitute of this animal.

3. CAMELUS GLAMA, or 3. CAMELUS LLAMA, the South American camel ſheep, has an almoſt even black, ſmall head, fine black eyes, and very long neck bending much, and very protuberant near the junction with the body; in a tame ſtate, with ſmooth ſhort hair; in a wild ſtate with long coarſe hair, white, grey and ruſſet, diſpoſed in ſpots; with a black line from the head along the top of the back to the tail, and belly white. The tail is ſhort; the height from 4 to 4½ feet; the length from the neck to the tail, 6 feet. The carcaſe diveſted of ſkin and offals, according to the editor of Mr Byron's voyage, weighs 200 lb. In general, the ſhape exactly reſembles a camel, only it wants the dorſal bunch. It is the camel of Peru and Chili; and, before the arrival of the Spaniards, was the only beaſt of burden known to the Indians. It is very mild, gentle, and tractable. Before the introduction of mules, they were uſed by the Indians to plough the land: at preſent they ſerve to carry burdens of about 100 lb. They go with great gravity; and, like their Spaniſh maſters, nothing can prevail upon them to change their pace. They lie down to the burden; and when wearied, no blows can provoke them to go on. Teuillee ſays, they are ſo capricious, that if ſtruck, they inſtantly ſquat down, and nothing but careſſes can make them ariſe. When angry, they have no other method of revenging their injuries than by ſpitting; and they can ejaculate their ſaliva to the diſtance of ten paces: if it falls on the ſkin, it raiſes an itching and a reddiſh ſpot. Their fleſh is eaten and is ſaid to be as good as mutton. The wool has a ſtrong diſagreeable ſcent. They are very ſure-footed, and are therefore uſed to carry the Peruvian ores over the ruggedeſt hills and narroweſt paths of the Andes. They inhabit that vaſt chain of mountains through their whole length to the ſtraits of Magellan; but, except where theſe hills approach the ſea, as in Patagonia, never appear on the coaſts. Like the camel, they have powers of abſtaining long from drink, ſometimes for

4 or

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4 or 5 days: like that animal, their food is coarſe. In a wild ſtate, they keep in great herds in the higheſt and ſteepeſt parts of the hills; and while they are feeding, one keeps centry on the pinnacle of ſome rock: if it perceives the approach of any one, it neighs; the herd take the alarm, and go off with incredible ſpeed. They outrun all dogs, ſo there is no other way of killing them but with the gun. They are killed for the ſake of their fleſh and hair; for the Indians weave the laſt into cloth. From the form of the parts of generation in both ſexes, no animal copulates with ſuch difficulty. It is often the labour of a day, *antequam actum ipſum venereum incipiant, et abſolvant.*

4. CAMELUS PACOS, or the ſheep of Chili, has no bunch on its back. It is covered with a fine valuable wool, which is of a roſe red colour on the back of the animal, and white on the belly. They are of the ſame nature with the LLAMA, (N° 3.) inhabit the ſame places, but are more capable of ſupporting the rigour of froſt and ſnow; they live in vaſt herds; are very timid, and exceſſively ſwift. The Indians take the pacos in a ſtrange manner; they tie cords with bits of cloth or wool hanging on them, about 3 or 4 feet from the ground, acroſs the narrow paſſes of the mountains, then drive thoſe animals towards them, which are ſo terrified by the flutter of the rags, as not to dare to paſs, but, huddling together, give the hunters an opportunity to kill with their ſlings as many as they pleaſe. The tame ones will carry from 50 to 75 lb.; but are kept principally for the ſake of the wool and the fleſh, which is exceedingly well taſted.

CAMELY, a village in Somerſetſhire, near E. Harptree.

(1.) CAMEO, *n. ſ.* a picture of one colour. *Aſh.*

(2.) CAMEO. See CAMAIEU, § 2—4.

(1.) CAMERA, [Lat. *i. e.* a chamber,] in architecture, a vault or gallery. *Aſh.*

(2.) CAMERA, in old records, a winding plot of ground.

(3.) CAMERA ÆOLIA, a contrivance for blowing the fire, ſo named by Kircher, for the fuſion of ores, without bellows; by means of water falling through a funnel into a cloſe veſſel, which ſends from it ſo much air or vapour as continually blows the fire: if there be the ſpace of another veſſel for it to expatiate in by the way, it there lets fall its humidity, which otherwiſe might hinder the work.

(4.) CAMERA LUCIDA, a contrivance of Dr Hook for making the image of any thing appear on a wall in a light room, either by day or night. Oppoſite to the place or wall where the appearance is to be, make a hole of at leaſt a foot in diameter, or if there be a high window with a caſement opened. At a convenient diſtance, to prevent its being perceived by the company in the room, place the object or picture intended to be repreſented, but in an inverted ſituation. If the picture be tranſparent, reflect the ſun's rays by means of a looking-glaſs, ſo as that they may paſs through it towards the place of repreſentation; and to prevent any rays from paſſing aſide it, let the picture be encompaſſed with ſome board or cloth. If the object be a ſtatue, or a living creature, it muſt be much enlighted by caſting the ſun's rays on it, either by reflection, refraction, or both. Between this object and the place of repreſentation put a broad convex glaſs, ground to ſuch a convexity as that it may repreſent the object diſtinctly in ſuch place. The nearer this is ſituated to the object, the more will the image be magnified on the wall, and the further the leſs; ſuch diverſity depending on the difference of the ſpheres of the glaſſes. If the object cannot be conveniently inverted, there muſt be two large glaſſes of proper ſpheres, ſituated at ſuitable diſtances, eaſily found by trial, to make the repreſentations erect. The whole apparatus of object-glaſſes, &c. with the perſon employed in the management of them, are to be placed without the window or hole, ſo that they may not be perceived by the ſpectators in the room, and the operation itſelf will be eaſily performed. *Phil. Tranſ.* N° 38. p. 741, ſeq.

(5.) * CAMERA OBSCURA. [Latin.] An optical machine uſed in a darkened chamber, ſo that the light coming only through a double convex glaſs, objects expoſed to day light, and oppoſite to the glaſs, are repreſented inverted upon any white matter placed in the focus of the glaſs. *Martin.*

(6.) CAMERA OBSCURA, or the DARK CHAMBER, was invented by Baptiſta Porta. See his *Magia Naturalis lib.* xvii. *cap.* 6. It affords very diverting ſpectacles; both by exhibiting images perfectly like their objects, and each clothed in their native colours; and by expreſſing, at the ſame time, all their motions; which latter no other art can imitate. By means of this inſtrument, a perſon unacquainted with deſigning will be able to delineate objects with the greateſt accuracy and juſtneſs, and another well verſed in painting will find many things herein to perfect his art. See the conſtruction under DIOPTRICS.

* CAMERADE. *n. ſ.* From *camera*, a chamber, Lat.] One that lodges in the ſame chamber; a boſom companion. By corruption we now uſe *comrade.—Camerades* with him, and confederates in his deſign. *Rymer.*

CAMERARIA, in botany: a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the pentandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 30th order, Contortæ. There are two horizontal follicles at the baſe of the ſeed-caſe. The ſeeds are inſerted into a proper membrane. There are two ſpecies; viz.

1. CAMERARIA ANGUSTIFOLIA has an irregular ſhrubby ſtalk, which riſes about 8 feet, ſending out many branches which are garniſhed with very narrow thin leaves placed oppoſite at each joint. The flowers are produced ſcatteringly at the end of the branches, which are ſhaped like thoſe of the LATIFOLIA (See N° 2.) but ſmaller. It is a native of Jamaica.

2. CAMERARIA LATIFOLIA, a native of the iſland of Cuba. It riſes with a ſhrubby ſtalk to 10 or 12 feet, dividing into ſeveral branches, garniſhed with roundiſh pointed leaves placed oppoſite. The flowers are produced at the end of branches in looſe cluſters, which have long tubes enlarging gradually upward, and at the top are cut into 5 ſegments, broad at their baſe, but ending in ſharp points; the flower is of a yellowiſh white colour. Both theſe plants abound with an

acrid

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acrid milky juice like the ſpurge. They are propagated by ſeeds, which muſt be procured from the places of their growth. They may alſo be propagated by cuttings planted in a hot-bed during ſummer: they muſt have a bark ſtove, for they are very tender; but in warm weather they muſt have plenty of air.

(1.) CAMERARIUS, Joachim, one of the moſt learned writers of his time, was born in 1500, at Bamberg, in Franconia. He tranſlated into Latin Herodotus, Demoſthenes, Xenophon, Euclid, Homer, Theocritus, Sophocles, Lucian, Theodoret, Nicephorus, &c. He publiſhed a catalogue of the biſhops of the principal ſees; Greek Epiſtles; Accounts of his journeys, in Latin verſe; a commentary on Plautus: the Lives of Helius Eobanus Heſſus, and Philip Melancthon, &c. He died in 1574.

(2.) CAMERARIUS, Joachim, ſon of the former, (N° 1.) and a learned phyſician, was born at Nuremberg in 1534. After having finiſhed his ſtudies in Germany, he went into Italy, where he obtained the eſteem of the learned. At his return he was courted by ſeveral princes to live with them; but he was too much devoted to books, and the ſtudy of chemiſtry and botany, to comply. He wrote *Hortus Medicus*, and ſeveral other works. He died in 1598.

* CAMERATED. *adj.* [*cameratus*, Lat.] Arched; roofed ſlopewiſe.

* CAMERATION. *n. ſ.* [*cameratio*, Lat.] A vaulting or arching.

CAMERET BAY, a capacious bay of France, on the coaſt of Cape Finiſterre, which forms the harbour of Breſt. See BREST, N° 1.

CAMERINGHAM, a town of Saxby, Lincolnſhire.

CAMERINO, a town of the eccleſiaſtical ſtate in Italy. Lon. 13. 7. E. Lat. 45. 5. N.

CAMERLINGO ſignified formerly the pope's or emperor's treaſure; at preſent the word is no where uſed but at Rome, where it denotes the cardinal who governs the eccleſiaſtical ſtate and adminiſter's juſtice. It is the moſt eminent office at the court of Rome, becauſe he is at the head of the treaſury. During a vacation of the papal chair, the cardinal camerlingo publiſhes edicts, coins money, and exerts every other prerogative of a ſovereign prince; he has under him a treaſurer-general, auditor-general, and 12 prelates called *clerks of the chamber*.

(1.) CAMERON, a pariſh of Scotland, in Fifeſhire, diſjoined from that of St Andrews, above 160 years ago, being not 5 miles diſtant from the city of St Andrews. It is 6 miles long from E. to W. and 4½ broad from N. to S. The ſoil is fitter for paſturage than grain. The climate is healthy. The population, as ſtated by the rev. Mr Mair, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 1165, in 1793; and had decreaſed 130, in the 38 years preceding.

(2.) CAMERON, John, one of the moſt famous divines among the Proteſtants of France in the 17th century, was born at Glaſgow in 1580, where he taught the Greek tongue; and having read lectures upon that language for about a year, travelled, and became profeſſor and miniſter at Bourdeaux, Sedan, and Saumur; at which laſt place he broached his new doctrine of grace and free will, which was framed by Amyraut, Cappel, Bochart, Daille, and others of the more learned among the reformed miniſters, who judged Calvin's doctrines on theſe points too harſh. He publiſhed, 1. Theological lectures; 2. *Icon Johannis Cameronis*; and ſome miſcellaneous pieces. He died in 1625, aged 60.

(3.) CAMERON, Richard, the founder of the Scots Cameronians, was a famous field-preacher, who, refuſing to accept the indulgence to tender conſciences, granted by king Charles II. thinking ſuch an acceptance an acknowledgment of the king's ſupremacy, and that he had before a right to ſilence them, made a defection from his brethren, and even headed a rebellion, in which he was killed.

(4.) CAMERON, CAPE, a head-land of N. America, on the N. part of Honduras. Lon. 83. 29. W. Lat. 15. 35. N.

(1.) CAMERONIANS, a ſect in Scotland, who ſeparated from the Preſbyterians in 1666, and continued long to hold their religious aſſemblies in the fields. The Cameronians took their denomination from Richard Cameron. (See CAMERON, N° 3.) They were never entirely reduced till the Revolution, when they voluntarily ſubmitted to king William.—The Cameronians adhere rigidly to the form of government eſtabliſhed in 1648. They are alſo called *Cargillites* from another of their preachers. See CARGILLITES.

(2.) CAMERONIANS, or CAMERONITES, a party of Calviniſts in France, who aſſerted that the will of man is only determined by the practical judgment of the mind; that the cauſe of men's doing good or evil proceeds from the knowledge which God infuſes into them; and that God does not move the will phyſically, but only morally, in virtue of its dependence on the judgment of the mind. They were ſo named from prof. John Cameron. (See CAMERON, N° 2.) They are a ſort of mitigated Calviniſts, and approach to the opinion of the Arminians. They are alſo called UNIVERSALISTS, as holding the univerſality of Chriſt's death; and ſometimes AMYRALDISTS. Their enemies accuſe them of Pelagianiſm.

CAMERTON, two Engliſh villages: 1. in Somerſetſhire, near Finſborough: 2. in Yorkſhire, in Holderneſs.

CAMERY, *n. ſ.* in farriery, the frounce, a diſeaſe of horſes. *Aſh.*

CAMES, a name given to the ſmall ſlender rods of caſt lead, of which the glaziers make their turned lead. The lead being caſt into ſlender rods of 12 or 14 inches long each, is called the *came*; ſometimes alſo they call each of theſe rods a *came*, which being afterwards drawn through their vice, makes their turned lead.

CAMESWORTH, a village of Dorſetſhire, S. of Beminſter.

CAMICA, *n. ſ.* in old records, camelot.

CAMILLA, in fabulous hiſtory, queen of the Volſci, a heroine of maſculine courage, who was ſlain in the war with Æneas, when ſhe aſſiſted Turnus againſt him, and the Latins.

CAMILLÆ, and CAMILLI, in antiquity, girls and boys who miniſtered in the ſacrifices of the gods; and eſpecially thoſe who attended

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tended the *flamen dialis*, or prieſt of Jupiter. The word ſeems borrowed from the language of the ancient Hetrurians, where it ſignified miniſter, and was changed from *camillus*.

(1.) CAMILLUS, Marcus Furius, an illuſtrious hero of the Roman republic. He triumphed 4 times, was 5 times dictator, and was juſtly honoured with the title of the *ſecond founder of Rome*. He was indeed a true patriot. Lucius Apuleius, one of the tribunes, proſecuted him to make him give an account of the ſpoils taken at Veii. Camillus anticipated judgment, and baniſhed himſelf voluntarily. During his baniſhment, the Gauls ſacked Rome; but inſtead of rejoicing at the puniſhment of his ungrateful countrymen, he exerted all his wiſdom and bravery to drive away the enemy; and yet kept with the utmoſt ſtrictneſs the law of Rome, in refuſing to accept the command, which ſeveral private perſons offered him. The Romans who were beſieged in the capitol, created him dictator A. A. C. 363; in which office he acted with ſo much bravery and conduct, that he entirely drove the Gauls out of the territories of the commonwealth. He died A. A. C. 385, aged 81.

(2.) CAMILLUS, an epithet given to Mercury, as the meſſenger of the gods, by the Tuſcans.

To CAMIN. *v. n. obſ.* To come. *Chauc.*

CAMINHA, a maritime town of Portugal, in the province of Entre-Duero-e-Minho, ſituated at the mouth of the river Minho. Lon. 8. 29. W. Lat. 41. 50. N.

CAMINI, Paraguay tea. See ILEX.

CAMIS, or KAMIS. See KAMIS.

* CAMISADO. *n. ſ.* [*camiſa*, a ſhirt, Ital. *camiſium*, low Lat.] An attack made by ſoldiers in the dark; on which occaſion they put their ſhirts outward, to be ſeen by each other.—They had appointed the ſame night, whoſe darkneſs would have increaſed the fear, to have given a *camiſado* upon the Engliſh. *Hayward.*

CAMISARDS, a name given by the French to the Calviniſts of the Cevennes, who formed a league, and took up arms in their own defence in 1688.

* CAMISATED. *adj.* [from *camiſa*, a ſhirt.] Dreſſed with the ſhirt outward.

CAMISED, *adj. obſ.* Flat-noſed. *Chauc.*

(1.) CAMLET, a river in Shropſhire.

(2.) * CAMLET. See CAMELOT.—He had on him a gown with wide ſleeves, of a kind of water *camlet*, of an excellent azure colour. *Bacon.*

CAMLETINE, a ſlight ſtuff, made of hair and coarſe ſilk, in the manner of camlet.

CAMMA, a province of the kingdom of Loango in Africa, the inhabitants of which are continually at war with thoſe of Gobbi, another province of Loango. See GOBBI. The weapons they formerly uſed in their wars were the ſhort pike, bows and arrows, ſword and dagger; but ſince the Europeans have become acquainted with that coaſt, they have ſupplied them with fire-arms.

CAMMAROS, the name of an inſect mentioned by ancient authors, reſembling in figure the root of the aconitum. Some have confounded it with the plant CAMMOROS.

CAMMAS, a village in Northumberland, S. of the river Wanſbeck.

CAMMIN, a maritime town of Germany, in Pomerania, on the E mouth of the Oder, oppoſite to the iſle of Wollen, 39 miles N. of Stetin. Lon. 15. 19. E. Lat. 54. 4. N.

(1.) * CAMMOCK. *n. ſ.* [*cammock*, Saxon; *ononis*.] An herb; the ſame with *petty whin* or *reſtharrow*.

(2.) CAMMOCK, in botany. See ONONIS.

CAMMOROS, or CACOMOROS, among ancient Greek botaniſts, the hemlock. See CICUTA.

CAMOCLADIA, in botany, a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the triandria claſs of plants. The calyx and corolla are divided into 3 parts; the drupa is oblong, with a two lobed nucleus. There are two ſpecies.

CAMOENÆ, an epithet of the Muſes.

CAMOENS, Lewis DE, a famous Portugueſe poet, the honour of whoſe birth is claimed by different cities. But according to N. Antonio, and Manuel Correa, his intimate friend, he was born at Liſbon in 1517. His family was of conſiderable note, and originally Spaniſh. The elder branch of it, according to Caſtera, intermarried with the blood royal of Portugal. But the younger branch had the ſuperior honour to produce the author of the Luſiad. The misfortunes of the poet began early. In his infancy, Simon Vaz de Camoens, his father, being commander of a veſſel, was ſhipwrecked at Goa, where, with his life, the greateſt part of his fortune was loſt. His mother, however, Anne de Macedo of Santaren, provided for the education of her ſon Lewis at the univerſity of Coimbra. What he acquired there, his works diſcover; an intimacy with the claſſics, equal to that of Scaliger, but directed by the taſte of a Milton or a Pope. When he left the univerſity, he appeared at court. He was handſome; had ſparkling eyes; with the fineſt complexion; and was a poliſhed ſcholar; which, added to the natural vivacity of his diſpoſition, rendered him an accompliſhed gentleman. Courts are the ſcenes of intrigue; and intrigue was faſhionable at Liſbon. But the particulars of the amours of Camoens are unknown. This only appears; he had aſpired above his rank, for he was baniſhed from the court; and in ſeveral of his ſonnets he aſcribes his misfortunes to love. He now retired to his mother's friends at Santaren. Here he renewed his ſtudies, and began his poem on the diſcovery of India. John III. at this time prepared an armament againſt Africa. Camoens, tired of his inactive obſcure life, went to Ceuta in this expedition, and diſplayed his valour in ſeveral rencounters. In a naval engagement with the Moors in the ſtraits of Gibraltar, in the conflict of boarding, he was among the foremoſt, and loſt his right eye. Yet neither hurry of actual ſervice nor the diſſipation of the camp could ſtifle his genius. He continued his *Luſiad*, and ſeveral of his moſt beautiful ſonnets were written in Africa, while, as he expreſſed it,

"One hand the pen, and one the ſword, employed."

The fame of his valour had now reached the court, and he obtained permiſſion to return to Liſbon. But, while he ſolicited an eſtabliſhment which he had merited in battle, the malignity of evil tongues was injuriouſly poured upon him. Though

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Though the bloom of his youth was effaced by long reſidence under the ſcorching ſun-beams of Africa, and diſfigured by the loſs of an eye, his preſence gave uneaſineſs to ſome gentlemen of families of the firſt rank, where he had formerly viſited. Jealouſy is the characteriſtic of the Spaniſh and Portugueſe; its reſentment knows no bounds, and Camoens now found it prudent to baniſh himſelf from his native country. Accordingly, in 1553, he ſailed for India, with a reſolution never to return. As the ſhip left the Tagus he exclaimed, in the words of the ſepulchral monument of Scipio Africanus, *Ingrata patria, non poſſedebis oſſa mea!* "Ungrateful country, thou ſhalt not poſſeſs my bones!" But he knew not what evils in the Eaſt would awake the remembrance of his native fields. When Camoens arrived in India, a fleet was ready to ſail to revenge the king of Cochin on the king of Pimenta. Without any reſt on ſhore after his long voyage, he joined this armament, and in the conqueſt of the Alagada iſlands diſplayed his uſual bravery. In 1554, he attended Vaſconcello in an expedition to the Red Sea. Here, ſays Faria, as Camoens had no uſe for his ſword, he employed his pen. Nor was his activity confined in the fleet or camp. He viſited Mount Felix and the adjacent inhoſpitable regions of Africa, which he ſo ſtrongly pictures in the Luſiad, and in one of his little pieces where he laments the abſence of his miſtreſs. When he returned to Goa, he enjoyed a tranquillity which enabled him to beſtow his attention on his Epic Poem. But this ſerenity was interrupted, perhaps by his own imprudence. He wrote ſome ſatires which gave offence; and, by order of the viceroy Franciſco Barreto, he was baniſhed to China. The accompliſhments of Camoens ſoon found him friends, even under the diſgrace of baniſhment. He was appointed commiſſary of the defunct in the iſland of Macao, a Portugueſe ſettlement in the Bay of Canton. Here he continued his Luſiad; and here alſo, after 5 years reſidence, he acquired a fortune equal to his wiſhes. Don Conſtantine de Braganza was now viceroy of India; and Camoens, deſirous to return to Goa, reſigned his charge. In a ſhip, freighted by himſelf, he ſet ſail; but was ſhipwrecked in the gulf near the mouth of the river Mehon on the coaſt of China. All he had acquired was loſt; as he tells us in the 7th Luſiad.

"Now bleſt with all the wealth fond hope could crave,
Soon I beheld that wealth beneath the wave
For ever loſt;——
My life like Judah's heaven-doom'd king of yore,
By miracle prolong'd."——

His poems, which he held in one hand, while he ſwimmed with the other, were all that he poſſeſſed, when he ſtood friendleſs on the unknown ſhore. But the natives gave him a moſt humane reception; which he has immortaliſed in that beautiful prophetic ſong in the tenth Luſiad. On the banks of the Mehon, he wrote his beautiful paraphraſe of the pſalm, where the Jews, in the fineſt ſtrain of poetry, are repreſented as hanging their harps on the willows by the rivers of Babylon, and weeping their exile from their native country. Here Camoens continued ſome time, till an opportunity offered to carry him to Goa. When he arrived at that city, Don Conſtantine de Braganza, the viceroy, admitted him into intimate friendſhip, and Camoens was happy till count Rodondo aſſumed the government. But now, thoſe who had formerly procured his baniſhment, exerted all their arts againſt him. Rodondo, when he entered on office, pretended to be the freind of Camoens; yet, he ſoon after ſuffered him to be thrown into the common priſon. Camoens, however, in a public trial, fully refuted every accuſation of his conduct while commiſſary at Macao, and his enemies were loaded with ignominy. But Camoens had ſome creditors, who detained him in priſon a conſiderable time, till the gentlemen of Goa, aſhamed that a man of his ſingular merit ſhould experience ſuch treatment among them, ſet him at liberty. He again aſſumed the profeſſion of arms, and received the allowance of a gentleman volunteer, a character at this time common in Portugueſe India. Soon after, Pedro Barreto appointed governor of the fort at Sofala, by high promiſes, allured the poet to attend him thither. Though the only motive of Barreto was to retain the converſation of Camoens at his table, it was his leaſt care to render the life of his gueſt agreeable. Chagrined with his treatment, and a conſiderable time having elapſed in vain dependence upon Barreto, Camoens reſolved to return to his native country. A ſhip, on the homeward voyage, at this time touched at Sofala, and ſeveral gentlemen who were on board were deſirous that Camoens ſhould accompany them. But to prevent this, the governor ungenerouſly charged him with a debt for board. Anthony de Cabra however, and Hector de Sylveyra, paid the demand; and "Camoens, ſays Faria, and the honour of Barreto, were ſold together." After an abſence of 16 years, Camoens in 1569, returned to Liſbon, unhappy even in his arrival, for the peſtilence then raged in that city, and prevented his publication for 3 years. At laſt, in 1572, he printed his Luſiad, which, in the opening of the firſt book, in a moſt elegant turn of compliment, he addreſſed to king Sebaſtian, then in his 18th year. The king, ſays the French tranſlator, was ſo pleaſed with his merit, that he gave the author a penſion of 4000 reals, on condition that he ſhould reſide at court. But this ſalary, ſays the ſame writer, was withdrawn by cardinal Henry, who ſucceeded to the crown of Portugal, loſt by Sebaſtian at the battle of Alcazar. Though Henry was the great patron of one ſpecies of literature, yet the author of the Luſiad was utterly neglected by him, and under his inglorious reign, died in all the miſery of poverty. By ſome, it is ſaid, he died in an alms houſe. It appears, however, that he had not even the certainty of ſubſiſtence, which theſe houſes provide. He had a black ſervant, who had grown old with him, who had long experienced his maſter's humanity. This grateful Indian, a native of Java, who, according to ſome writers, ſaved his maſter's life in the ſhipwreck, begged in the ſtreets of Liſbon, for the only man in Portugal on whom God had beſtowed thoſe talents, which tend to erect the ſpirit of a degenerate age. To the eye of a careful obſerver, the

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fate of Camoens throws great light on that of his country, and will appear ſtrictly connected with it. The ſame ignorance, the ſame deſpicable ſpirit, which ſuffered Comoens to depend on alms, ſunk the kingdom of Portugal into the moſt abject vaſſalage ever experienced by a conquered nation. While the grandees were blind to the ruin which impended over them, Camoens beheld it with a pungency of grief which haſtened his exit. In one of his letters he has theſe remarkable words: *Em fim accaberey á vida, &c.* "I am ending the courſe of my life; the world will witneſs how I have loved my country. I have returned, not only to die in her boſom, but to die with her." In this unhappy ſituation, in 1759, in his 62d year, the year after the fatal defeat of Don Sebaſtian, died Lewis De Camoens, the greateſt literary genius ever produced in Portugal; a man equal in martial courage and honour to her greateſt heroes. And he was buried in a manner ſuitable to the poverty in which he died. The *Luſiad* has been tranſlated once into Latin, twice into Italian, once into French, 4 times into Spaniſh, and once into Engliſh, by Mr Mickle. Rapin, however, has criticiſed it.

CAMOLIN, a village in Wexford, Ireland.

(1.) * CAMOMILE. *n. ſ.* [*anthemis.*] A flower.

(2.) CAMOMILE, in botany. See ANTHEMIS, § 2.

CAMOPI, a river in Cayenne.

* CAMOYS. *adj.* [*camus*, Fr.] Flat; level; depreſſed. It is only uſed of the noſe.—Many Spaniards, of the race of Barbary Moors, though after frequent commixture, have not worn out the *camoys* noſe unto this day. *Brown's Vulgar Err.*

(1.) * CAMP. *n. ſ.* [*camp* Fr. *camp*, Sax. from *campus*, Lat.] The order of tents, placed by armies when they keep the field. We uſe the phraſe *to pitch a camp*, to encamp—

From *camp* to *camp* thro' the foul womb of night,
The hum of either army ſtill ſounds. *Shakeſp.*
Next to ſecure our *camp*, and naval pow'rs,
Raiſe an embattled wall, with lofty tow'rs. *Pope.*

(2.) CAMP, with all due deference to Dr *Johnſon*, ſignifies rather *the ground* on which an army pitch their tents. It is marked out by the quarter-maſter general, who appoints every regiment their ground. See § 4—6.

(3.) CAMP is alſo uſed by the Siameſe, and ſome other nations in the Eaſt Indies, as the name of the quarters which they aſſign to foreigners, who come to trade with them. In theſe, every nation forms a kind of town, where they carry on their trade, not only keeping all their warehouſes and ſhops, but alſo living in theſe camps with their whole families. The Europeans, however, may live either in the cities or ſuburbs, as they ſhall judge moſt convenient.

(4.) CAMPS, ADVANTAGES REQUISITE IN CHUSING. Theſe are chiefly to have the camp near water, in a country of forage, where the ſoldiers may find wood for dreſſing their victuals; that it have a free communication with garriſons, and with a country from whence it may be ſupplied with proviſions; and if poſſible, that it be ſituated on a riſing ground, in a dry gravelly ſoil. Beſides, the advantages of the ground ought to be conſidered, as marſhes, woods, rivers, and incloſures; and if the camp be near the enemy, with no river or marſh to cover it, the army ought to be intrenched. An army always encamps fronting the enemy: and generally in two lines, running parallel about 500 yards diſtance; the horſe and dragoons, on the wings, and the foot, in the centre: ſometimes a body of 2, 3, or 4, brigades is encamped behind the two lines, and is called the *body of reſerve*. The artillery and bread waggons are generally encamped in the rear of the two lines. A battalion of foot is allowed 80 or 100 paces for its camp; and 30 or 40 for an interval betwixt one battalion and another. A ſquadron of horſe is allowed 30 for its camp, and 30 for an interval, and more if the ground will allow it. Where the grounds are equally dry, thoſe camps are always the moſt healthful that are pitched on the banks of large rivers: becauſe, in the hot ſeaſon, ſituations of this kind have a ſtream of freſh air from the water, ſerving to carry off moiſt and putrid exhalations. On the other hand, next to marſhes, the worſt encampments are on low grounds cloſe beſet with trees: for then the air is not only moiſt and hurtful in itſelf, but by ſtagnating becomes more ſuſceptible of corruption. However, let the ſituation of camps be ever ſo good, they are frequently rendered infectious by the putrid effluvia of rotten ſtraw, and the privies of the army; more eſpecially if the bloody flux prevails, in which caſe the beſt method of preventing a general infection, is to leave the ground with all the filth of the camp behind. This muſt be frequently done, if conſiſtent with the military operations: but when theſe render it improper to change the ground often, the privies ſhould be made deeper than uſual, and once a-day, a thick layer of earth thrown into them till the pits are near full: and then they are to be well covered, and ſupplied by others. It may alſo be a proper caution to order the pits to be made either in the front or the rear, as the their ſtationary winds may beſt carry off their effluvia from the camp. It will alſo be neceſſary to change the ſtraw frequently, as being not only apt to rot, but to retain the infectious ſteams of the ſick. But if freſh ſtraw cannot be procured, more care muſt be taken in airing the tents, as well as the old ſtraw.

(5.) CAMPS, ANCIENT FORMS OF. The diſpoſition of the Hebrew encampment was at firſt laid out by God himſelf. Their camp was of a quadrangular form, ſurrounded with an incloſure of the height of 10 hand-breadths. It made a ſquare of 12 miles in compaſs about the tabernacle; and within this was the Levites camp. The Greeks had alſo their camps, fortified with gates and ditches. The Lacedæmonians made their camp of a round figure, looking upon that as the moſt perfect and defenſive of any from; though they doubtleſs diſpenſed with it when circumſtances required. In the other Grecian camps, the moſt valiant of the ſoldiers were placed at the extremities, the reſt in the middle. Thus Homer tells us that Achilles and Ajax were poſted at the ends of the camp before Troy, as bulwarks on each ſide of the other princes. The figure of the Roman camp was a ſquare divided into two principal parts: in the upper parts were the general's pa-

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tilion, or prætorium, and the tent of the chief officers; in the lower, those of inferior degree. On one side of the prætorium stood the quæstorium, or apartment of the treasurer; and near this the forum, both for a market-place and the assembling of councils. On the other side of the prætorium were lodged the legati; and below it the tribunes had their quarters, opposite to their respective legions. Aside from the tribunes were the præfecti of the foreign troops, over against their respective wings; and behind these were the lodgments of the EVOCATI; then those of the extraordinarii and ABLECTI equites, which concluded the higher part of the camp. Between the two partitions was a spot of ground called PRINCIPIA, for the altars and images of the gods, and probably also for the chief ensigns. The middle of the lower partition was assigned to the Roman horse; next to them were quartered the triarii; then the principes, and close by them the hastati; afterwards the foreign horse, and lastly the foreign foot. They fortified their camp with a ditch and parapet, which they termed *fossa* and *vallum*; in the latter some distinguish two parts, viz. the *agger* or earth, and the *sudes* or wooden stakes driven in to secure it. The camps were sometimes surrounded by walls made of hewn stone; and the tents themselves formed of the same matter.

(6.) CAMPS, TURKISH, ARABIC, &c. In the front of the Turkish camp are quartered the janizaries and other foot, whose tents encompass their aga: in the rear are the quarters of the spahis and other horsemen. The body of the camp is possessed by the stately tents or pavilions of the vizir, reis effendi, kahija, the testerdar bashaw, and kapiglar kahiasee. In the middle of these tents is a spacious field, wherein are erected a building for the divan, and a hasna or treasury. When the ground is marked out for a camp, all wait for the pitching of the tent LAILAC, the place where the courts of justice are held; it being the disposition of this, that is to regulate all the rest. The Arabs still live in camps, as the ancient Scenites did. The camp of the Assyne Emir, or king of the country about Tadmor, is described by a traveller who viewed it, as spread over a very large plain, and possessing so vast a space, that though he had the advantage of a rising ground, he could not see the utmost extent of it. His own tent was near the middle; scarce distinguishable from the rest, except that it was bigger, being made, like the others, of a sort of hair-cloth.

* *To* CAMP. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To encamp; to lodge in tents, for hostile purposes.—

Had our great palace the capacity
To *camp* this host, we would all sup together.
Shakespeare.

2. To camp; to pitch a camp; to fix tents.

CAMPAGNA. See CAMPANIA, N° 1. & 2.

(1.) * CAMPAIGN. CAMPANIA. *n. s.* [*campaigne*, French; *campania*, Ital.] 1. A large open level tract of ground, without hills.—In countries thinly inhabited, and especially in vast *campanias*, there are few cities, besides what grow by the residence of kings. *Temple.*—

Those grateful groves, that shade the plain,
Where Tiber rolls majestic to the main,
And fattens, as he runs, the fair *campaign*. *Garth.*

2. The time for which any army keeps the field, without entering into quarters.—This might have hastened his march, which would have made a fair conclusion of the *campaign*. *Clarendon.*—

An iliad rising out of one *campaign*. *Addison.*

(2.) CAMPAIGN. See § 1. *def.* 2. The beginning of every campaign is considerably more unhealthy than if the men were to remain in quarters. After the first 2 or 3 weeks encampment, the sickness decreases daily; the most infirm being in that time in the hospitals, and the weather daily growing warmer. This healthy state continues throughout the summer, unless the men get wet clothes or wet beds; in which case, a greater or less degree of the dysentery will appear in proportion to the preceding heats. But the most sickly part of the campaign begins about the middle or end of August, whilst the days are still hot, but the nights cool and damp, with fogs and dews: then the dysentery prevails greatly; and though its violence is over by the beginning of October, yet the remitting fever gaining ground, continues throughout the rest of the campaign, and never entirely ceases, even in winter quarters, till the frosts begin. At the beginning of a campaign, the sickness is so uniform, that the number may be nearly predicted; but for the rest of the season, as the diseases are then of a contagious nature, and depend much upon the heats of the summer, it is impossible to foresee how many may fall sick from the beginning to the end of autumn. The last fortnight of a campaign, if protected, is attended with more sickness than the first 2 months encampment; so that it is better to take the field a fortnight sooner, in order to return into winter quarters so much the earlier. Winter expeditions, though severe in appearance, are attended with little sickness, if the men have strong shoes, quarters, fuel, and provisions. Long marches in summer are dangerous, unless made in the night, or so early in the morning as to be over before the heat of the day.

CAMPANA, {Lat. *i. e.* a bell.] See BELL, N° I. § 9.

CAMPANACEÆ. See BOTANY, § 248, and 308.

CAMPANELLA, Thomas, a famous Italian philosopher, born at Stilo in Calabria, in 1568. He distinguished himself very early, for at the age of 13 he was a perfect master of the ancient orators and poets. His peculiar inclination was to philosophy, to which he at last confined his whole time and study. To arrive at truth, he shook off the yoke of authority; and the novelty of some of his opinions exposed him to many inconveniences; for at Naples he was thrown into prison, in which he remained 27 years. During his confinement, he wrote his famous work, entitled *Atheismus triumphatus*. Being at length set at liberty, he went to Paris, where he was graciously received by Lewis XIII. and cardinal Richelieu; the latter procured him a pension of 2000 livres, and often consulted him on the affairs of Italy. Campanella passed the remainder of his days in a monastery at Paris, and died in 1639.

CAMPANI, Matthew, of Spoletto, curate at Rome, wrote a curious treatise on the art of cut-

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ting glaſſes for ſpectacles, and made ſeveral improvements in optics, aſſiſted by his brother and pupil Joſeph. He died after 1678.

(1.) CAMPANIA, a town of Italy, in Naples, 25 miles SE. of the city of Naples. Lon. 15. 30. E. Lat. 40. 40. N.

(2.) CAMPANIA, or CAMPAGNA DI ROMA, anciently called LATIUM, a province of Italy, bounded on the W. by the Tiber and the ſea; on the S. W. by the ſea; on the S. by Terra di Lavoro; on the E. by Abruzzo; and, on the N. by Sabina. Though the ſoil is good, it produces little or nothing, on account of the heavy duties on corn; and though the waters are good, the air is unwholeſome. It is ſubject to the Pope, and is about 60 miles long, on the Mediterranean ſea. It has been generally thought that the air of this country hath ſomething in it peculiarly noxious during ſummer; but Mr Condamine is of opinion that it is not more unhealthy than any other marſhy country. "After the invaſion of the Goths, (ſays he) in the 5th and 6th centuries, this corruption of the air began to manifeſt itſelf. The bed of the Tiber, being covered from the accumulated ruins of the edifices of ancient Rome, could not but riſe conſiderably. But what permits us not to doubt of this fact is, that the ancient and well-preſerved pavement of the Pantheon and its portico is overflowed every winter; that the water even riſes there ſometimes to the height of 8 or 10 feet; and that we cannot ſuppoſe that the ancient Romans ſhould have built a temple in a place ſo low as to be covered with the waters of the Tiber on the leaſt inundation. It is evident, then, that the level of the bed of the river is raiſed ſeveral feet; which could not have happened without forming there a kind of dikes or bars. The choaking up of its canal neceſſarily occaſioned the overflow and reflux of its waters in ſuch places as till then had not been ſubject to inundations; to theſe overflowings of the Tiber were added all the waters that eſcaped out of the ancient aqueducts, the ruins of which are ſtill to be ſeen, and which were entirely deſtroyed by Totila. What need, therefore, of any thing more to infect the air, in a hot climate, than the exhalations of ſuch a maſs of ſtagnating waters, deprived of any diſcharge, and become the receptacle of a thouſand impurities, as well as the grave of ſeveral millions both of men and animals? The evil could not but increaſe from the ſame cauſes while Rome was expoſed to the incurſions and devaſtations of the Lombards, the Normans, and the Saracens, which laſted ſeveral centuries. The air was become ſo infectious there at the beginning of the 13th century, that Pope Innocent III. wrote, that few people at Rome arrived at the age of 40 years, and that nothing was more uncommon there than to ſee a perſon of 60. A very ſhort time after, the popes transferred the ſeat of their reſidence to Avignon; during the 72 years they remained there, Rome became a deſert; the monaſteries were converted into ſtables; and Gregory XI. on his return to Rome, in 1376, hardly counted 30,000 inhabitants. It is only ſince the time of Pius V. and Sextus V. at the end of the 16th century, that the popes have employed the neceſſary methods for purifying the air of Rome and its environs, by procuring proper diſcharges for the waters, drying up the humid and marſhy grounds, and covering the banks of the Tiber and other places reputed uninhabitable with ſuperb edifices. Since that time a perſon may dwell at Rome, and go in or out of it at all ſeaſons of the year."

(3.) CAMPANIA. See CAMPAIGN, § 1.

* CAMPANIFORM. *adj.* [of *campana*, a bell, and *forma*, Lat.] A term uſed of flowers, which are in the ſhape of a bell. *Har.*

CAMPANINI, a name given to an Italian marble dug out of the mountains of Carrara, becauſe, when it is worked, it ſounds like a bell.

(1.) CAMPANULA, the BELL FLOWER, a genus of the monogynia order, in the pentandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 29th order, *Campanaceæ*. The corolla is campanulated, with its fundus cloſed up by the valves that ſupport the ſtamina; the ſtigma is trifid; the capſule inferior, or below the receptacle of the flower, opening and emitting the ſeeds by lateral pores. Of this genus there are no fewer than 41 ſpecies, but the following are the moſt worthy of attention:

1. CAMPANULA CANARIENSIS, with an orach leaf and tuberous root, is a native of the Canary iſlands. It hath a thick fleſhy root of an irregular form; ſometimes running downward like a parſnip, at other times dividing into ſeveral knobs near the top; and when any part of the root is broken, a milky juice iſſues at the wound. From the crown of the root ariſes one, 2, 3, or more ſtalks, in proportion to the ſize of the root; but that in the centre is generally larger, and riſes higher than the others. Theſe ſtalks are very tender, round, and of a pale green; their joints are far diſtant from each other; and when the roots are ſtrong, the ſtalks will riſe to 10 feet, ſending out ſeveral lateral branches. At each joint they are garniſhed with 2, 3, or 4 ſpear-ſhaped leaves, with a ſharp pointed beard on each ſide. They are of a ſea-green; and, when they firſt come out, are covered ſlightly with an aſh-coloured pounce. From the joints of the ſtalk the flowers are produced, which are the perfect bell ſhape, and hang downward; they are of a flame colour, marked with ſtripes of a browniſh red; the flower is divided into 5 parts; at the bottom of each is ſeated a nectarium, covered with a white tranſparent ſkin, much reſembling thoſe of the crown imperial, but ſmaller. The flowers begin to open in the beginning of October, and there is often a ſucceſſion of them till March. The ſtalks decay to the root in June, and new ones ſpring up in Auguſt.

2. CAMPANULA DECURRENS, the peach-leaved bell flower, is a native of the northern parts of Europe; of this there are ſome with white, and ſome with blue flowers, and ſome with double flowers of both colours. Theſe laſt have of late been propagated in ſuch abundance as to have almoſt baniſhed from the gardens thoſe with ſingle flowers.

3. CAMPANULA HYBRIDA, or common Venus's looking-glaſs, ſeldom riſes more than ſix inches, with a ſtalk branching from the bottom upwards, and garniſhed with oval leaves ſitting cloſe to the ſtalks, from the baſe of which the branches

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branches are produced, which are terminated by flowers very like the SPECULUM. This was formerly cultivated in the gardens; but since the Speculum hath been introduced, it hath almoft fupplanted this; for the other is a much taller plant, and the flowers larger, though of a lefs beautiful colour.

4. CAMPANULA LATIFOLIA, or greateft bell flower, hath a perennial root, compofed of many fleſhy fibres that abound with a milky juice. From thefe arife feveral ſtrong, round ſingle ſtalks, which never put out branches, but are garniſhed with oval ſpear-ſhaped leaves ſlightly indented on their edges. Towards the upper part of the ſtalk the flowers come out ſingly upon ſhort foot-ſtalks; their colours are blue, purple, and white.

5. CAMPANULA MEDIUM, the Canterbury bell flower, is a biennial plant, which periſhes ſoon after it has ripened its ſeeds. It grows natural in the woods of Italy and Auſtria; but is cultivated in the Britiſh gardens for the beauty of its flowers, which are blue, purple, white, and ſtriped, with double flowers of all the colours. It has oblong, rough, hairy leaves, ſerrated on their edges: from the centre of theſe riſes a ſtiff, hairy, furrowed ſtalk, about two feet high, ſending out ſeveral lateral branches garniſhed with long, narrow, hairy leaves ſawed on their edges. From the ſetting on of theſe leaves proceed the foot-ſtalks of the flowers; thoſe, which are on the lower part of the ſtalk and branches, diminiſhing gradually in their length upward, and thereby forming a ſort of pyramid. The flowers of this kind are very large, and make a fine appearance. The ſeeds ripen in September, and the plants decay ſoon after.

6. CAMPANULA PYRAMIDALIS hath thick tuberous roots filled with a milky juice; it ſends out ſtrong ſmooth, upright ſtalks, which riſe to the height of 4 feet, garniſhed with ſmooth oblong leaves a little indented at the edges. The flowers are produced from the ſides of the ſtalks, and are regularly ſet on for more than half their length, forming a ſort of pyramid; theſe are large, open, and ſhaped like a bell. The moſt common colour of the flowers is blue, though ſome are white, but the former are much eſteemed.

7. CAMPANULA RAPUNCULUS, the rampion, hath roundiſh fleſhy roots, which are eatable, and much cultivated in France for ſallads; ſome years paſt, it was cultivated in the Engliſh gardens for the ſame purpoſe, but is now generally neglected. It is a native of Britain; but the roots of the wild ſort never grow to half the ſize of thoſe which are cultivated.

8. CAMPANULA SPECULUM with yellow eye-bright leaves, is an annual plant with ſlender ſtalks riſing a foot high, branching out on every ſide, and garniſhed with oblong leaves a little curled on their edges; from the wings of the leaves come out the flowers ſitting cloſe to the ſtalks, which are of a beautiful purple inclining to a violet colour. In the evening, they contract and fold into a pentagonal figure; from whence it is by ſome called VIOLA PANTAGONIA, or FIVE-CORNERED VIOLET.

9. CAMPANULA TRACHELIUM, with nettle leaves, has a perennial root, which ſends up ſeveral ſtiff hairy ſtalks having two ribs or angles. Theſe put out a few ſhort ſide branches, garniſhed with oblong hairy leaves deeply ſawed on their edges. Toward the upper part of the ſtalks, the flowers come out alternately upon ſhort trifid foot-ſtalks having hairy empalements. The colours of the flowers are a deep and pale blue and white, with double flowers of the ſame; the double flowered kind only merit a place in gardens.

(II.) CAMPANULÆ, CULTURE OF THE. The firſt ſpecies is propagated by parting the roots, which muſt be done with caution: for if they are broken or wounded, the milky juice will flow out plentifully; and if planted before the wounds are ſkinned over, it occaſions their rotting: therefore when any of them are broken, they ſhould be laid in the green-houſe a few days to heal. Theſe roots muſt not be too often parted, if they are expected to flower well; for by this means they are weakened. The beſt time for tranſplanting and parting their roots is in July, ſoon after the ſtalks are decayed. They muſt not be planted in rich earth, otherwiſe they will be very luxuriant in branches, and have but few flowers. They ſucceed beſt in a light ſandy loam, mixed with a fourth part of ſcreened lime-rubbiſh: when the roots are firſt planted, the pots ſhould be placed in the ſhade, and unleſs the ſeaſon is very dry they ſhould not be watered; for during the time they are inactive, wet is very injurious to them. About the middle of Auguſt, the roots will begin to put out fibres; at which time, if the pots are placed under a hot-bed frame, and, as the nights grow cool, covered with the glaſſes, but opened every day to enjoy the free air, it will greatly forward them for flowering, and increaſe their ſtrength; when the ſtalks appear, they muſt be now and then refreſhed with water; but it muſt not be given too often, nor in too great quantity. The plants thus managed, by the middle of September will have grown ſo tall as not to be kept any longer under the glaſs frame; they muſt, therefore, be removed into a dry airy glaſs-caſe, where they may enjoy the air in free mild weather, but ſcreened from the cold. During winter they muſt be frequently refreſhed with water, and guarded from froſt; and, in ſpring, when the ſtalks begin to decay, the pots ſhould be ſet abroad in the ſhade, and not watered. The 2d, 4th, 5th, and 9th ſpecies are ſo eaſily propagated by parting the roots, or by ſeeds, that no particular directions for the culture need be given. The 3d and 8th ſpecies are eaſily propagated by ſeeds, which they produce in plenty. If theſe, and the Venus navelwort, dwarf lychnis, candy-tuft, and other low annual flowers, are properly mixed in the border of the flower-garden, and ſown at different ſeaſons, ſo as to have a ſucceſſion of them in flower, they will make an agreeable variety. If theſe ſeeds are ſown in autumn, the plants will flower early in the ſpring; but if ſown in ſpring, they will not flower till the middle of June; and if a third ſowing is performed about the middle of May, the plants will flower in Auguſt; but from theſe, good ſeeds muſt not be expected. The PYRAMIDALIS, (N° 6.) is cultivated to adorn halls, and to place before chimnies in ſummer when it is in flower, for which purpoſe

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pose there is no plant more proper; for when the roots are ſtrong, they will ſend out 4 or 5 ſtalks which will riſe as many feet high, adorned with flowers a great part of their length. When the flowers begin to open, the pots are removed into the rooms, where, being ſhaded from the ſun and rain, the flowers continue long in beauty; and if the pots are every night removed into a more airy ſituation, but not expoſed to heavy rains, the flowers will be fairer, and contiuue much longer. Thoſe plants which are thus treated, are ſeldom fit for the purpoſe the following ſeaſon; therefore a ſupply of young ones muſt be annually raiſed. The plant may be propagated either by dividing the roots or by ſeeds, but the latter produce the moſt vigorous and beſt flowering plants. The ſeeds muſt be ſown in autumn in boxes or pots filled with light undunged earth, and placed in the open air till the froſt or hard rains come on: then they muſt be placed under a hot-bed frame, where they may be ſheltered from both; but in mild weather the glaſſes ſhould be drawn off every day: with this management the plants will come up early in ſpring, when they muſt be removed out of the frame, and placed firſt in a warm ſituation; but, when the ſeaſon becomes warm, they ſhould be ſo placed as to have the morning ſun only. In September the leaves of the plants will begin to decay, at which time they ſhould be tranſplanted; therefore there muſt be one or two beds prepared, in proportion to the number of plants. Theſe beds muſt be in a warm ſituation, and the earth light, ſandy, and without any mixture of dung. The plants muſt be taken out of the pots very carefully, ſo as not to bruiſe their roots; for they are very tender, and on being broken the milky juice will flow out plentifully, which will greatly weaken them.—They ſhould be planted about ſix inches diſtant each way, with the head of the root half an inch below the ſurface. If the ſeaſon proves dry, they muſt be gently watered 3 or 4 days after they are planted; the beds ſhould alſo be covered with mats in the day, which ſhould be taken off at night to let the dew fall on them. Towards the end of November the beds ſhould be covered with old tanners bark to keep out the froſt; and where there is not conveniency for covering them with frames, they ſhould be arched over with hoops, that in ſevere weather they may be covered with mats. In ſpring the mats muſt be removed, and, the following ſummer, the plants kept free from weeds. In autumn the earth ſhould be ſtirred between them, ſome freſh earth ſpread over the beds, and the plants covered in winter as before. In theſe beds the plants may remain two years, during which time they are to be treated in the manner before directed. The roots will now be ſtrong enough to flower; ſo, in September they ſhould be carefully taken up, and ſome of the moſt promiſing carefully planted in pots; the others may be planted in warm borders, or in a freſh bed, at a greater diſtance than before, to allow them room to grow. Thoſe plants which are potted ſhould be ſheltered in winter from great rains and hard froſts, otherwiſe they will be in danger of rotting, or at leaſt will be ſo weakened as not to flower with any ſtrength the following ſummer; and thoſe which are planted in the full ground, ſhould have ſome old tanners bark laid round them to prevent the froſt from getting at the roots. The RAPUNCULUS, (N° 7.) which is cultivated for its eſculent roots, may be propagated by ſeeds, which are to be ſown in a ſhady border; when the plants are about an inch high, the ground ſhould be hoed to cut up the weeds, and thin the plants, to the diſtance of 3 or 4 inches; and when the weeds come up again they muſt be hoed over to deſtroy them: this, if well performed in dry weather, will make the ground clean for a long time; ſo that, being three times repeated, it will keep the plants clean till winter, which is the ſeaſon for eating the roots, when they may be taken up for uſe as wanted. They will continue good till April, at which time they ſend out their ſtalks, when the roots become hard.

* CAMPANULATE. *adj.* The ſame with *campaniform*.

CAMPANUS SINUS, in ancient geography, the gulf of Naples.

CAMPASPE, a moſt beautiful concubine of Alexander the Great, who ordered Apelles to draw her picture naked. But the painter, during the operation, falling deſperately in love with her, the conqueror of the world conquered his own paſſion ſo far, as to give her up to him.

(1.) CAMPBELL, Archibald, earl and marquis of Argyle, was the ſon of Archibald earl of Argyle, by lady Anne Douglas, daughter of William earl of Morton. He was born in 1598; and educated in the Proteſtant religion, according to the ſtricteſt rules of the church of Scotland, as eſtabliſhed immediately after the reformation. During the commonwealth he was induced to ſubmit to its authority. Upon the reſtoration, he was tried for his compliance; a crime common to him with the whole nation, and ſuch a one as the moſt loyal and affectionate ſubject might frequently by violence be induced to commit. To make this compliance appear voluntary on his part, letters were produced in court, which he had wrote to Albemarle, while that general governed Scotland, and which contained expreſſions of the moſt cordial attachment to the eſtabliſhed government. But, beſides the general indignation excited by Albemarle's diſcovery of his private correſpondence, it was thought, that even the higheſt demonſtrations of affection might, during jealous times, be exacted as a neceſſary mark of compliance from a perſon of ſuch diſtinction as Argyle; and could not, by any equitable conſtruction, imply the crime of treaſon. The parliament, however, ſcrupled not to paſs ſentence upon him, May 25, 1661, and he ſuffered with great conſtancy and courage.

(2.) CAMPBELL, Archibald, earl of Argyle, ſon of the preceding, (N° 1.) had from his youth diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his loyalty and attachment to the royal family. Though his father was head of the covenanters, he himſelf refuſed to concur in any of their meaſures; and when a commiſſion of colonel was given him by the convention of ſtates, he forbore to act upon it till it ſhould be ratified by the king. By his reſpectful behaviour, as well as by his ſervices, he made himſelf acceptable to Charles I. when that prince was

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was in Scotland, and even after the battle of Worcester, all the misfortunes which attended the royal cause could not engage him to desert it. Under Middleton he obstinately persevered to harass and infest the victorious English; and it was not till he received orders from that general, that he would submit to accept of a capitulation. Such jealousy of his loyal attachments was entertained by the commonwealth and protector, that a pretence was soon after fallen upon to commit him to prison; and his confinement was rigorously continued till the restoration. The king, sensible of his services, had remitted to him his father's forfeiture, and created him earl of Argyle; and when a most unjust sentence was passed upon him by the Scots parliament, Charles had anew remitted it. In the subsequent part of this reign Argyle behaved himself dutifully; and though he seemed not disposed to go all lengths with the court, he always appeared, even in his opposition, a man of mild dispositions and peaceable deportment. A parliament was summoned at Edinburgh in summer 1681, and the duke was appointed commissioner. Besides granting money to the king, and voting the indefeasible right of succession, this parliament enacted a *test*, which all persons possessed of offices, civil, military, or ecclesiastical, were bound to take. In this test the king's supremacy was asserted, the covenant renounced, passive obedience assented to, and all obligations disclaimed of endeavouring any alteration in civil or ecclesiastical establishments. This was the state of the test as proposed by the courtiers; but the country party proposed also a clause of adherence to the Protestant religion, which could not with decency be rejected. The whole was of an enormous length, considered as an oath; and, what was worse, a confession of faith was there ratified which had been imposed a little after the reformation, and which contained many articles altogether forged by the parliament and nation. Among others, the doctrine of *resistance* was inculcated; so that the test being voted in a hurry, was found on examination to be a medley of absurdity and contradiction. Though the courtiers could not reject the clause of adhering to the Protestant religion, they proposed, as a requisite mark of respect, that all princes of the blood should be exempted from taking that oath. This exception was zealously opposed by Argyle; who observed that the sole danger to be dreaded for the Protestant religion must proceed from the perversion of the royal family. By insisting on such topics, he drew on himself the secret indignation of the duke of York, of which he soon felt the fatal consequences. When Argyle took the test as a privy counsellor, he subjoined, in the duke's presence, an explanation which he had before hand communicated to that prince, and which he believed to have been approved by him. It was in these words. "I have considered the test, and am very desirous of giving obedience as far as I can. I am confident that the parliament never intended to impose *contradictory oaths*; therefore I think no man can explain it but for himself. Accordingly I take it as far as it is *consistent with itself* and the Protestant religion. And I do declare, that I mean not to bind myself, in my station, and in a lawful way, from wishing and endeavouring any alteration, which I think to the advantage of church or state, and not repugnant to the Protestant religion and my loyalty: and this I understand as a part of my oath." The duke heard it with great tranquillity: no one took the least offence: Argyle was admitted to sit that day in council: and it was impossible to imagine that a capital offence had been committed, where occasion seemed not to have been given so much as for a frown or reprimand. The earl was not a little surprised, however, a few days after, to find that a warrant was issued for committing him to prison; that he was indicted for high treason, leasing-making, and perjury; and that from the innocent words above mentioned an accusation was extracted, by which he was to forfeit life, honours, and fortune. It is needless to enter into particulars, where the iniquity of the whole is so evidently apparent. Though the sword of *injustice* was displayed, even her semblance was not put on; and the forms of law were preserved to sanctify, or rather aggravate, the oppression. Of five judges, three did not scruple to find the guilt of treason and leasing-making to be incurred by the prisoner: a jury of 15 noblemen gave verdict against him; and the king being consulted, ordered the sentence to be pronounced, but the execution of it to be suspended till further orders. Argyle, however, saw no reason to trust to the justice or mercy of such enemies: He made his escape from prison, and, till he could find a ship for Holland, concealed himself for some time in London. The king heard of his lurking place, but would not suffer him to be arrested. All the parts, however, of his sentence, so far as the government in Scotland had power, were rigorously executed; his estate was confiscated, his arms reversed and torn. Having got over to Holland, he remained there during the remaining part of the reign of Charles II. But thinking himself at liberty, before the coronation of James II. to exert himself in order to recover the constitution by force of arms, he concerted measures with the duke of Monmouth, and went to Scotland, to assemble his friends: but not meeting with the success he expected, he was taken prisoner; and being carried to Edinburgh, was beheaded upon his former unjust sentence, June 30, 1685. He showed great constancy and courage under his misfortunes: on the day of his death he ate his dinner very chearfully: and, according to custom, slept after it a quarter of an hour or more, very soundly. At the place of execution, he made a short, grave, and religious speech; and, after solemnly declaring that he forgave all his enemies, submitted to death with great firmness.

(3.) CAMPBELL, Archibald, first duke of Argyle, son to the preceding, (N° 2.) was an active promoter of the revolution. He came over with the Prince of Orange; was admitted into the convention as Earl of Argyle, though his father's attainder was not reversed; and in the claim of rights the sentence against him was declared to be, what most certainly it was, a reproach upon the nation. The establishment of the crown upon the Prince and Princess of Orange being carried by a great majority in the Scottish convention, the

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the earl was sent from the nobility, with Sir James Montgomery and Sir John Dalrymple from the barons and boroughs, to offer the crown, in the name of the convention, to their Majesties, and tendered them the coronation oath; for which, and many other eminent services, he was admitted a member of the privy council, and, in 1690, made one of the Lords of the Treasury. He was afterwards made a colonel of the Scots horse guards; and, in 1694, one of the extraordinary Lords of Session. He was likewise created Duke of Argyle, Marquis of Kintyre and Lorn, &c. in 1701. He sent over a regiment to Flanders for king William's service, the officers of which were chiefly of his own name and family, who bravely distinguished themselves through the whole course of the war. He married Elizabeth, daughter of Sir Lionel Talmash of Helmingham in Suffolk, by whom he left issue two sons, (See N. 4. and 6.) and a daughter, Lady, Anne married to James earl of Bute.

(4.) CAMPBELL, Archibald, 3d D. of Argyle, the youngest son of the preceding, (N° 3.) was born at Hamhouse, in England, in June 1682, and educated at the University of Glasgow. He afterwards studied the law at Utrecht; but upon his father being created a Duke, he betook himself to a military life, and served some time under the duke of Marlborough. Upon quitting the army, he applied to the acquisition of that knowledge which would enable him to make a figure in the political world. In 1705, he was constituted treasurer of Scotland, and made a considerable figure in Parliament, though he was only 23 years of age. In 1706, he was appointed one of the commissioners for treating of the union; and created Earl of Islay, Lord Ornsay, &c. In 1708, he was made an extraordinary Lord of Session; and when the Union was effected, he was chosen one of the 16 Peers for Scotland, in the first Parliament of Great Britain; and was constantly elected to every succeeding Parliament till his death, except the 4th. In 1710, he was made lord justice general: in 1711, he was called to the privy council; and upon the accession of George I. he was nominated lord register of Scotland. When the rebellion broke out in 1715, he took arms, in defence of the house of Hanover, and by his prudent conduct in the West Higlands, he prevented General Gordon, at the head of 3000 men, from penetrating into the country, and raising levies. He afterwards joined his brother at Stirling, and was wounded at the battle of Dumblain. In 1725, he was appointed keeper of the privy seal; and, from this time, he was entrusted with the management of Scottish affairs. In 1734, upon his resigning the privy seal, he was made keeper of the great seal, which office he enjoyed till his death. Upon the death of his brother John, (N° 6.) he succeeded to the dukedom, and all his other titles. He was elected chancellor of the University of Aberdeen; and laboured to promote the interest of that as well as of the other universities of Scotland. He particularly encouraged the school of physic at Edinburgh, which has now acquired so high a reputation. Having the chief management of Scottish affairs, he was also extremely attentive to promote the trade, manufactures, and improvements of his country. It was by his advice that, after the rebellion in 1745, the Highlanders were employed in the royal army. He was a man of great endowments both natural and acquired, well versed in the laws of his country, and possessed considerable parliamentary abilities. He was likewise eminent for his skill in human nature, had great talents for conversation, and had collected one of the most valuable private libraries in Great Britain. He built a very magnificent seat at Inverary. The faculties of his mind continued sound and vigorous till his death, April 15, 1761, in his 79th year. He was married, but had no issue; and was succeeded in his titles and estates, by John Campbell, son of the hon. John Campbell of Manmore, who was the 2d son of Archibald the 9th earl of Argyle.

(5.) CAMPBELL, George, D. D. and F. R. S. E. late Principal of Marischal College, Aberdeen, was the son of the rev. Colin Campbell, one of the ministers of that city: and was born in 1719, and educated in it.—In 1750, he was appointed minister of Banchory-Tarnan; in 1756, translated to Aberdeen; in 1759, chosen principal of Marischal College, and in 1771, professor of divinity. He married Miss Grace Farquharson of Whitehouse, who died in 1795, without issue. He himself died, April 6, 1796, aged 77. As a public teacher he was long admired for the clear and copious manner, in which he illustrated the great doctrines and precepts of religion, and the strength and energy with which he enforced them. Convinced of the truth and infinite consequences of what revelation teaches, he was anxious to carry the same conviction to the minds of his hearers; and delivered his discourses with that zeal, which is the result of sincerity combined with clearness of judgment. As an author, his reputation is spread through every civilized nation. He early entered the lists, as a champion for Christianity against one of its most acute opponents: and while he triumphantly refuted his arguments, commanded his respect by the handsome and dexterous manner in which he conducted his defence. In politics, he avoided those extremes into which men of violent passions are too apt to run. He cherished that patriotism, which, while it leads its possessor to endeavour to promote the greatest possible happiness of his own country, is still subservient to universal benevolence. Firmly attached to the British constitution, he was animated with that love of liberty which it inspires, and was equally averse to despotism and popular anarchy. Party spirit he considered as having an unhappy tendency to subvert the best principles of the human mind, and to clothe the most iniquitous actions with the most specious appearances. The following is a list of his works: 1. *A Sermon before the Synod of Aberdeen*: 1752, 8vo. 2. *An Essay on Miracles*; in answer to Mr Hume: 1761. This work was quickly translated into French, Dutch, and German. 3. *A Sermon before the Society for propagating Christian knowledge*: 1771. 4. Another *before the Synod of Aberdeen*. 5. *The Philosophy of Rhetoric*: in 2 vols 8vo, 1776. In this work the laws of elegant composition and criticism are laid down with great perspicuity. 6. *A Sermon, on Allegiance, preached on the king's fast day*: 1779, 4to. Of this work 6000 copies, enlarged with notes,

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notes, were printed in 12mo, at the expence of government, and sent to America; but the American revolution was by that time too far advanced to be stopt by any writings whatever. 7. *An Address to the people of Scotland, on the Alarms raised by what is called the Popish Bill:* 8vo, 1780. This is a powerful dissuasive from bigotry, and every species of religious persecution. 8. *A translation of the Gospels, with preliminary Dissertations:* 2 vols 8vo, 1793. This was his last and greatest work; the fruit of copious erudition and unwearied application, for about 30 years: and will lead the attentive reader to regret that the other books of the New Testament had not been elucidated by the same judicious author.

(6.) CAMPBELL, John, 2d duke of Argyle and Greenwich, eldest son of Archibald, (N° 3.) was born Oct. 10, 1680: and on the very day when his grandfather suffered at Edinburgh, fell from a window 3 stories high without receiving any hurt. At the age of 15, he had made a considerable progress in classical learning. His father then perceived and encouraged his military disposition, and introduced him to king William, who in 1694 gave him the command of a regiment. In this situation he remained till the death of his father in 1703; when becoming duke of Argyle, he was soon after sworn of queen Anne's privy council, made captain of the Scotch horse guards, and appointed one of the extraordinary lords of session. In 1704, the queen, reviving the Scottish order of the thistle, installed the duke one of the knights, and soon after appointed him high commissioner to the Scotch parliament; where, being of great service in promoting the intended union, he was on his return created a peer of England, and in 1710 was made knight of the garter. He first distinguished himself at the battle of Oudenard; where he commanded as brigadier-general, with all the bravery of youth and the conduct of a veteran officer. He was present under the duke of Marlborough at the siege of Ghent, and took possession of the town. He had also a considerable share in the victory of Malplaquet, by dislodging the French from the wood of Sart, and gaining a post of great consequence. In this sharp engagement, several musket balls passed through the duke's clothes, hat, and peruke. Soon after he was sent to take the command in Spain; and, after the reduction of Port Mahon, he returned to England. Having now a seat in the house of lords, he censured the measures of the ministry with such freedom, that all his places were disposed of to other noblemen; but at the accession of George I. he recovered his influence. At the breaking out of the rebellion in 1715, he was made commander in chief in North Britain; and was the principal cause of the total extinction, at that time, of the rebellion in Scotland, with little bloodshed. In direct opposition to that part of the army he commanded, at the head of all his Campbells was placed Campbell earl of Braidalbin, a nobleman of the same family and kindred. The consequence was, that both sets of Campbells, from family affection, refused to strike a stroke, and retired out of the battle. He arrived at London March 6th, 1716, and was in high favour: but, to the surprise of people of all ranks, he was in a few months divested of all his employments; and from this period to 1718, he signalized himself in a civil capacity, by his uncorrupted patriotism and manly eloquence. In the beginning of 1719, he was again admitted into favour, appointed lord steward of the household, and in April following was created duke of Greenwich. He continued in the administration during all the remaining part of that reign; and, after the accession of king George II, till April 1740; when he delivered a speech with such warmth, that the ministry being highly offended, he was again dismissed from his employments. To these, however, on the change of the ministry, he was soon restored; but not approving of the measures of the new ministry more than those of the old, he gave up all his posts for the last time, and never after engaged in affairs of state. He now enjoyed privacy and retirement; and died of a paralytic disorder on the 4th Oct. 1743. A very noble monument was erected in Westminster-Abbey, executed by the ingenious Roubilliac, to his memory. Though never first minister, he was a very able statesman and politician; and steadily and inflexibly fixed in those principles he believed to be right. His delicacy and honour were so great, that it hurt him to be even suspected; witness that application said to be made to him by one of the adherents of the Stuart family before the last rebellion, in order to gain his interest, which was considerable both in Scotland and England. He immediately sent the letter to the secretary of state; and it vexed him much even to have an application made him, lest any person should think him capable of acting a double part. When he thought measures wrong or corrupt, he cared not who was the author, however great or powerful he might be; witness his boldly attacking the great duke of Marlborough in the house of lords, about his forage and army contracts in Flanders, in the very zenith of his power and popularity, though in all other respects he was the most able general of his time. The duke of Argyle, on all occasions, spoke well, with a firm, manly, and noble eloquence; and seems to deserve the character given him by Pope:

Argyle the state's whole thunder born to wield,
And shake alike the senate and the field.

In private life, the duke's conduct was highly exemplary. He was an affectionate husband and an indulgent master. He seldom parted with his servants till age had rendered them incapable of their employments; and then he made provision for their subsistence. He was liberal to the poor, and particularly to persons of merit in distress: but though he was ready to patronize deserving persons, he was extremely cautious not to deceive any by lavish promises, or leading them to form vain expectations. He was a strict œconomist, and paid his tradesmen punctually every month; and though he maintained the dignity of his rank, he took care that no part of his income should be wasted in empty pomp or unnecessary expences. He was twice married; and left five daughters, but no male issue. The titles of duke and earl of Greenwich and baron of Chatham became extinct at his death; but in his other titles he was succeeded by his younger brother, (N° 4.) Archibald earl of Ilay.

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(7.) CAMPBELL, John, L. L. D. an eminent hiſtorical, biographical, and political writer, was born at Edinburgh, March 8, 1707-8. He was the 4th ſon of Robert Campbell of Glenlyon, Eſq. by Eliz. Smith of Windſor in Berkſhire, a deſcendant of the poet Waller. At 5 years of age, he was brought from Scotland to Windſor, where he received his education; and was placed as clerk to an attorney. This profeſſion, however, he never followed; but by a cloſe application to ſcience, became qualified to appear with great advantage in the literary world. In 1736, before he had completed his 30th year, he gave to the public, in 2 vols. folio, *The Military Hiſtory of Prince Eugene and the Duke of Marlborough*, enriched with maps, plans, and cuts. The reputation hence acquired, occaſioned him ſoon after to be ſolicited to take a part in the *Ancient Univerſal Hiſtory*. Whilſt employed in this capital work, Mr Campbell found leiſure to entertain the world with other productions. In 1739, he publiſhed the *Travels and Adventures of Edward Brown, Eſq*; 8vo. and *Memoirs of the Baſhaw Duke de Ripperda*; 8vo; reprinted, with improvements, in 1740. Theſe memoirs were followed, in 1741, by the *Conciſe Hiſtory of Spaniſh America*; 8vo. In 1742, he publiſhed *A Letter to a Friend in the Country, on the Publication of Thurloe's State Papers*; giving an account of their diſcovery, importance, and utility: alſo the 1ſt and 2d vols of his *Lives of the Engliſh Admirals, and other eminent Britiſh Seamen*. The two remaining vols. were completed in 1744; and the whole, not long after, was tranſlated into German. This was the firſt of Mr Campbell's works to which he prefixed his name; and it is a performance of great acknowledged merit. In 1743, he publiſhed *Hermippus Revived*; a 2d edition of which, much improved and enlarged, came out, in 1749, entitled, "*Hermippus Redivivus: or, The Sage's Triumph over old Age and the Grave:* wherein a method is laid down for prolonging the life and vigour of man: Including a Commentary upon an ancient Inſcription, in which this great ſecret is revealed; ſupported by many authorities. The whole interſperſed with a great variety of remarkable and well atteſted relations." This extraordinary tract had its origin in a foreign publication; but it was wrought up to perfection by the additional ingenuity and learning of Mr Campbell. In 1744, he gave to the public in 2 vols. folio, his *Voyages and Travels*, on Dr Harris's plan, being a very diſtinguiſhed improvement of that collection, which appeared in 1705. The time and care employed by Mr Campbell in this important undertaking, did not prevent his engaging in another great work, the *Biographia Britannica*, which began to be publiſhed in weekly numbers in 1745, and extended to 7 vols folio; but his articles were only in the firſt 4 vols; of which, Dr Kippis obſerves, they conſtitute the prime merit. When the late Mr Dodſley formed the deſign of *the Preceptor*, which appeared in 1748, Mr Campbell was aſked to aſſiſt in it. The parts written by him were the Introduction to Chronology, and the Diſcourſe on Trade and Commerce, both of which diſplayed an extenſive fund of knowledge upon theſe ſubjects. In 1750, he publiſhed the firſt ſeparate edition of his *Preſent State of Europe*; a work which had been originally begun in 1746, in the *Muſeum*, a very valuable periodical performance, printed for Dodſley. There is no production of his that has met with a better reception. It has gone through ſix editions, and fully deſerved this encouragement. The next great undertaking which called for the exertion of his abilities and learning, was *The Modern Univerſal Hiſtory*. This extenſive work was publiſhed, in detached parts, till it amounted to 16 vols folio; and a 2d edition of it, in 8vo, began to appear in 1759. The parts written by Mr Campbell were, the hiſtories of the Portugueſe, Dutch, Spaniſh, French, Swediſh, Daniſh, and Oſtend Settlements in the Eaſt Indies; and the Hiſtories of the kingdoms of Spain, Portugal, Algarve, and Navarre; and of France, from Clovis to 1656. The degree of LL. D. was very properly and honourably conferred upon him, June 18, 1754, by the univerſity of Glaſgow. His favourite work was, *A political ſurvey of Great Britain*; 2 vols 4to, publiſhed a ſhort time before his death; in which the extent of his knowledge, and his patriotic ſpirit, are equally conſpicuous. Dr Campbell's reputation was not confined to his own country, but extended to the remoteſt parts of Europe. As a ſtriking inſtance of this, in 1774, the empreſs of Ruſſia honoured him with a preſent of her picture, drawn in the robes worn in that country in the days of John Baſiliowitz, grand duke of Muſcovy, who was contemporary with Q. Elizabeth. To manifeſt the doctor's ſenſe of the honour done him, a ſett of the Political Survey of Britain, bound in Morocco, highly ornamented, and accompanied with a letter deſcriptive of the triumphs and felicities of her reign, was forwarded to St Peterſburg, and conveyed into her hands by prince Orloff, who had reſided ſome months in this kingdom. In 1736, Dr Campbell married Elizabeth, daughter of Benjamine Vobe, of Leominſter, Gent. with whom he lived near 40 years in the greateſt conjugal happineſs. He ſeldom went abroad; but by moderate exerciſe in his garden or houſe, united with the ſtricteſt temperance, he enjoyed a good ſtate of health, though his conſtitution was delicate. His domeſtic manner of living did not preclude him from a very extenſive and honourable acquaintance. His houſe, eſpecially on a Sunday evening, was the reſort of the moſt diſtinguiſhed perſons of all ranks, and particularly of ſuch as had rendered themſelves eminent by their knowledge or love of literature. He received foreigners, who were fond of learning, with an affability and kindneſs which excited in them the higheſt reſpect and veneration; and his inſtructive and cheerful converſation made him the delight of his friends in general. He was, during the latter part of his life, agent for the province of Georgia in North America; and died in 1775, aged 67. His literary knowledge was by no means confined to the ſubjects on which he treated as an author; he was well acquainted with mathematics, and had read even much in medicine. He was eminently verſed in the different parts of ſacred literature; and his acquaintance with the languages extended not only to the Hebrew, Greek, and Latin among the ancient, and to the French, Italian, and Spaniſh, Portugueſe, and Dutch, among the modern; but

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but likewiſe to the Oriental tongues. He was particularly fond of the Greek language. His attainment of ſuch a variety of knowledge was exceedingly aſſiſted by a memory ſurpriſingly retentive, and which indeed aſtoniſhed every perſon with whom he was converſant. In communicating his ideas, he had an uncommon readineſs and facility; and the ſtyle of his works was perſpicuous, eaſy, flowing, and harmonious. To all theſe accompliſhments, Dr Campbell added the more important virtues of a moral and pious character. His diſpoſition was gentle, and his manners obliging. He was the tendereſt of huſbands, a moſt indulgent parent, a kind maſter, a firm and ſincere friend. To his great Creator he paid the conſtant and ardent tribute of devotion, duty, and reverence; and in his correſpondences he ſhowed that a ſenſe of piety was always neareſt his heart.

(8.) CAMPBELL, a county of Virginia, bounded on the N. by the Fluvanna, which divides it from Amherſt, E. by Charlotte and Prince Edward counties, NE. by Buckingham, W. by Franklin and Bedford counties, and S. by Pittſylvania. It is 45 m. in length, and 30 in breadth, and contains 7,685 inhabitants, of whom 2,488 are ſlaves.

(1.) CAMPBELTON, a pariſh of Scotland, in Argyliſhire, ſo named about A. D. 1700, from the town, (N° 2.) and formerly called CEANNLOCH, and KILKERRAN, from an ancient pariſh united with it. But its moſt ancient name, by which a part of it is ſtill known, was *Dalruadhain*, from its having been the capital of the DALREUDINIAN or ancient Scottiſh kingdom. See DALRUADHAIN. It conſiſts of a large ſection of the peninſula of Kintyre, about 16 Engliſh miles long from N. to S. 15 broad at the N. end, and 9 at the S. but ſomewhat narrower in the middle. The climate is mild, but the air is moiſt. The ſoil is various; partly ſand, partly arable and marſh, but chiefly improveable moſs. Bear, oats, potatoes, beans, and flax are the chief produce. About 2500 bolls of corn are imported annually. The population in 1791, as ſtated in the rev. Dr John Smith's report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 8700, and had increaſed 4103 ſince 1755. The Dr eſtimates the number of horſes to be about 1200, and that of ſheep and black cattle about 5000 each. The pariſh abounds with coals, peats, and fuller's earth. For the improvement of the pariſh, Dr Smith propoſes, that the lower grounds ſhould be incloſed, and the higher ſtocked with ſheep: "But God forbid! (adds he) that the people, as in other places ſhould be obliged to remove in order to make room for ſheep. The principal proprietor (viz. the D. of Argyll) has happily diſcovered all along a marked averſion to remove his people; and often refuſed the higher offers of the few, for poſſeſſions held at inferior rents by the many." The Dr farther propoſes, the introduction of planting, the growing of wheat, the raiſing of green crops, and the eſtabliſhment of manufactures, as means of meliorating the condition of the people. He condemns the herring fiſhery, in which the people have been long employed, as "*a game of hazard*" compared with agriculture and manufactures. And he alſo thinks it would be beneficial to aboliſh their next principal buſineſs, the diſtilling of whiſky; which amounted to 26,150 gallons in 1792. "Were it not (he ſays) for preventing the temptation of ſmuggling, a duty next to a prohibition would be *mercy*." But when we conſider the very high tax upon malt liquor, the very low fare of the Highlanders in general, the coldneſs of their climate, and their habitude to this beverage, ſo long eſtabliſhed by cuſtom as to be almoſt conſtitutional, we are apt to think it would be no ſmall *cruelty* to deprive them of this "their *daily fare*," as the Dr ſtiles it; eſpecially as he acknowledges, that they "are ſeldom guilty of *exceſs*" in it, and that very few are given to drunkenneſs. Even their health, we apprehend, would be endangered by ſuch an innovation, if deprived of their chief *medicine* and only *cordial*, in a part of the country, where no ſubſtitute could be found to ſupply the deficiency.

(2.) CAMPBELTON, or (2.) CAMPBELTOWN, a town in the above pariſh (N° 1.) ſeated on the lake of Kilkerran, on the eaſtern ſhore of Kintyre, of which it is the capital. It has a good harbour; and is now a very conſiderable place, though within theſe ſixty years only a petty fiſhing town. It has in fact been created by the fiſhery: for it was appointed the place of rendezvous for the buſſes; and above 260 have been ſeen in the harbour at once. The inhabitants are reckoned to be upwards of 8000 in number. Campbelton has a poſt office, but Dr Smith juſtly remarks, "it is much leſs uſeful to the people and leſs productive to the revenue, than it would otherwiſe be," if there were runners to deliver the letters, to thoſe who do not know when to call for them, and whoſe letters, for want of this *ſecond ſight*, are often returned as dead. The *dawn* of manufactures is begun, 50 weavers being employed in the cotton trade, and many young girls in tambouring muſlins. Two public libraries are alſo eſtabliſhed on eaſy terms, and a good ſchool, with two teachers. This town was erected into a royal burgh in 1701, and is governed by a provoſt, 2 bailies, a dean of guild, treaſurer and counſellors. It joins with Air, Irvine, Inverary and Rothſay, in ſending a member to parliament. It lies 176 m. W. by S. from Edinburgh. Lon. 5. 30. W. Lat. 55. 29. N.

(3.) CAMPBELTOWN, a village of Dauphin county, Pennſylvania; ſituated near a branch of Quitipihilla creek. It is 13 miles E. of Harriſburg, and 96 NW. of Philadelphia. Lon. 0. 26. W. Lat. 40. 17. N.

CAMPDEN, a town of Glouceſterſhire, containing about 200 houſes; famous for its ſtocking manufactures. It has 4 fairs, and a market on Wed. It lies 10 m. from Stow, 20 from Tewkſbury, 22 NE. of Glouceſter, and 87 NW. by W. of London. Lon. 1. 50. W. Lat. 52. 4. N.

(1.) CAMPEACHY, a town of Mexico, ſeated on the E. coaſt of the bay (N° 2.) It is defended by a good wall and ſtrong forts; but is neither ſo rich, nor carries on ſuch a trade, as formerly; having been the port for the ſale of logwod, the place where it is cut being about 30 miles diſtant. It was taken by the Engliſh in 1596; by the buccaneers in 1650 and 1678; and by the Flibuſters

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of St Domingo in 1685, who ſet it on fire and blew up the citadel. Lon. 93. 57. W. Lat. 19. 20. N.

(2.) CAMPEACHY BAY, a bay of N. America, on the W. coaſt of Yucatan.

(3.) CAMPEACHY WOOD, in botany. See HÆMATOXYLUM.

CAMPEN, a ſtrong town of Overyſſel. It has a citadel and a harbour; but the latter is almoſt chocked up with ſand. It was taken by the Dutch in 1578, and by the French in 1672; but they abandoned it in 1673. It is ſeated near the mouth of the river Yſſel, on the Zuider See. Lon. 5. 35. E. Lat. 52. 28. N.

* CAMPESTRAL. *adj.* [*campeſtris*, Lat.] Growing in fields.—The mountain beech is the whiteſt; but the *campeſtral*, or wild beech, is blacker and more durable. *Mortimer*.

CAMPESTRE, in antiquity, a cover for the privities, worn, by the Roman ſoldiers in their field exerciſes; being girt under the navel, and hanging down to the knees. The name is formed from *campus*, the field, where they performed theſe exercifes.

(1.) * CAMP-FIGHT. *n. ſ.* An old word for *combat*.—For their trial by *camp-fight*, the accuſer was, with the peril of his own body to prove the accuſed guilty; and, by offering him his glove or gantlet, to challenge him to his trial. *Hakewill*.

(2.) CAMP FIGHT, among our old law writers, is ſpelt KAMP FIGHT. We therefore refer the reader, for an account of this obſolete mode of legal duelling to that article.

(1.) * CAMPHIRE *Tree. n. ſ.* [*camphora*, Lat.] There are two ſorts of this tree; one is a native of the iſle of Borneo, from which the beſt *camphire* is taken, which is ſuppoſed to be a natural exſudation from the tree, produced in ſuch places where the bark of the tree has been wounded or cut. The other ſort is a native of Japan, which Dr Kempfer deſcribes to be a kind of bay, bearing black or purple berries, and from whence the inhabitants prepare their *camphire*, by making a ſimple decoction of the root and wood of this tree, cut into ſmall pieces; but this ſort of *camphire* is, in value, eighty or an hundred times leſs than the true Bornean *camphire*. *Miller*.—It is oftener uſed for the gum of this tree.

(2.) CAMPHIRE, CAMPHOR, or CAMPHORA, } a ſolid concrete juice extracted from the wood of the laurus camphora. Pure camphire is very white, pellucid, ſomewhat unctuous; of a bitteriſh aromatic taſte, yet accompanied with a ſenſe of coolneſs; of a very fragrant ſmell, ſomewhat like that of roſemary, but much ſtronger. It has been long eſteemed one of the moſt efficacious diaphoretics, and is celebrated in fevers, malignant and epidemical diſtempers, in deliria, alſo, where opiates could not procure ſleep, but rather aggravated the ſymptoms, it has often been obſerved to procure it. See CHEMISTRY, LAURUS, and MATERIA MEDICA.

CAMPHORATA, the name given by Tournefort to the genus of plants, called by Linnæus CAMPHOROSMA.

* CAMPHORATE. *adj.* [from *camphora*, Lat.] Impregnated with camphire.—By ſhaking the ſaline and *camphorate* liquors together, we eaſily confounded them into one high-coloured liquor. *Boyle*.

CAMPHORATED SPIRIT OF WINE is a remedy frequently applied externally in caſes of inflammation, bruiſes, ſprains, &c.

CAMPHOROSMA, in botany, ſtinking ground pine, a genus of the tetrandria order, in the monogynia claſs of plants: ranking in the natural method under the 12th order, Holoraceæ. The calyx is pitcher-ſhaped and indented, there is no corolla; and the capſule contains a ſingle ſeed. It is reputed cephalic and nervine; though little uſed in modern practice. It takes the name from its ſmell, which bears ſome reſemblance to that of camphor. There are 4 ſpecies. Of theſe the principal is,

CAMPHOROSMA MONSPELIENSIS, which grows by the road ſide in Languedoc, and eſpecially about Montpelier. It has been produced as a ſpecific for the dropſy, and aſthma. Mr Burtlet has given its hiſtory, analyſis, and an account of its virtues.

CAMPHUYSEN, Dirk Theodore Raphael, an eminent painter, born at Gorcum in 1586. He learned the art from Govertze, but ſoon far ſurpaſſed his maſter. He had an uncommon genius, and ſtudied nature. His ſubjects were landſcapes, moſtly ſmall, with ruinous buildings, huts of peaſants, or views of villages on the banks of rivers. He generally repreſented them by moon light. His pencil is remarkably ſoft; his colouring very tranſparent, and his expertneſs in perſpective is ſeen in the proportional diſtances of his objects, which have a ſurpriſing degree of truth. Few of his works are to be met with, and they bring conſiderable prices; for he practiſed only till he was 18 years of age, and being then recommended as a tutor to the ſons of the lord of Nieuport, he diſcharged it with ſo much credit, that he was appointed ſecretary to that nobleman. He excelled in drawing with a pen; and the deſigns which he finiſhed in that manner are exceedingly valued.

CAMPIAN, Edmund, an Engliſh Jeſuit, born at London, of indigent parents, in 1540; and educated at Chriſt's hoſpital, where he had the honour to deliver an oration before Q. Mary on her acceſſion to the throne. He was admitted a ſcholar of St John's college in Oxford at its foundation, and took the degree of M. A. in 1564. About the ſame time he was ordained by a biſhop of the church of England, and became an eloquent Proteſtant preacher. In 1466, when Q. Elizabeth was entertained by the univerſity of Oxford, he ſpoke an elegant oration before her majeſty, and was alſo reſpondent in the philoſophy act in St Mary's church. In 1698, he was junior proctor of the univerſity. In 1569, he went over to Ireland, where he wrote a hiſtory of that kingdom, and turned papiſt; but being found rather too aſſiduous in perſuading others to follow his example, he was committed to priſon. He ſoon however, made his eſcape, and in 1571, proceeded to Doway in Flanders, where he publicly recanted his former opinions, and was created B. D. He went ſoon after to Rome, where, in 1573, he was admitted of the Society of Jeſus, and was ſent by the general to Vienna, where he wrote his tragedy, called *Neſtar et ambroſia*, which was acted before the emperor with great applauſe. He went

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next to Prague, where he reſided in the Jeſuits college about ſix years, and then returned to Rome. From thence, in 1580, he was ſent by Pope Gregory XIII. with Father Parſons, to convert the people of England. Some time before, ſeveral Engliſh prieſts, who ſuppoſed themſelves inſpired, had undertaken to convert their countrymen, and ſo of theſe foreign miſſionaries, beſides ſeveral others who had been converted in England, were actually engaged in this *pious* work; but ſeeing at laſt that the harveſt was abundant and the labourers were few, they ſolicited the aſſiſtance of the Jeſuits; who accordingly ſent Campian and Parſons to England. They were joyfully received by their friends at London; but had not been long in England, before Wallingham uſed every means to have Campian apprehended; and he was at laſt taken by one Elliot, a noted *prieſt-taker*, who found him at Lyford in Berkſhire, and conducted him in triumph to London. He was impriſoned in the tower; where, Wood ſays, "he did undergo many examinations, abuſes, wrackings, tortures;" *exquiſitiſſimis cruciatibus tortus*, ſays Pitts. It is hoped, for the credit of our reformers, this torturing part of the ſtory is not true. He was, however, condemned, on the ſtatute 25 Edw. III. for high treaſon; and butchered at Tyburn, with 2 or 3 of his fraternity. "All writers (ſays the Oxford antiquary,) whether Proteſtants or Popiſh, ſay, that he was a man of admirable parts; an elegant orator, a ſubtle philoſopher and diſputant, and an exact preacher whether in Engliſh or Latin, of a ſweet diſpoſition, and a well poliſhed man." His Hiſtory of Ireland, in two books was written in 1570; and publiſhed by Sir James Ware, from a MS. in the Cotton library, Dublin, 1633, folio. He wrote alſo *Chronologia univerſalis*, a very learned work; and various other tracts.

CAMPICURSIO, in the ancient military art, a march of armed men for ſeveral miles, from and back again to the camp, to inſtruct them in the military pace.

CAMPIDOCTORES, or CAMPIDUCTORES, in the Roman army, officers who inſtructed the ſoldiery in the diſcipline and exerciſes of war, and the art of handling their weapons to advantage. Theſe are alſo ſometimes called CAMPIGENI and *armidoctores*.

CAMPIDUCTOR, in writers of the middle age, ſignifies the leader or commander of an army, or party.

CAMPIGENI. See CAMPIDOCTORES.

(1.) CAMPION, a town of the kingdom of Tanguth in Tartary. It was formerly remarkable for being a place through which the caravans paſſed in the road from Bukharia to China. Lon. 104. 53. W. Lat. 40. 25. N.

(2.) * CAMPION. *n. ſ.* [*lychnis*, Lat.] A plant.

(3.) CAMPION, in botany. See LYCHNIS.

(4.) CAMPION, VISCOUS. See SILENE.

(3.) CAMPION, WILD. See AGROSTEMA.

CAMPIPARS. See CHAMPART.

CAMPISTRON, a celebrated French dramatic author, born in 1656. Racine directed his poetical talents to the theatre, and aſſiſted him in his firſt pieces. He died in 1723.

CAMPITÆ, in church hiſtory, an appellation given to the Donatiſts, on account of their aſſembling in the fields for want of churches. For ſimilar reaſons, they were alſo denominated MONTENSES and RUPITANI.

CAMPIUSA, in botany. See SCABIOSA.

CAMPOIDES, in botany. See SCORPIURUS.

CAMPOLI, or CAMPLI, a town of Italy, in Naples, and in the farther Abruzzo. Lon. 13. 55. E. Lat. 42. 38. N.

CAMPO, a river of Africa, in Benin.

CAMPO MAJOR, a town of Portugal, in Alentejo. It has a modern fortreſs, and two caſtles. It lies 10 miles N. of Elvas. Lon. 7. 24. W. Lat. 38. 50. N.

CAMPO MALDULI. See CAMALDOLI, N° 2.

CAMPREDON, a town of Catalonia in Spain, ſeated at the foot of the Pyrenean mountains, 50 miles N. of Barcelona. The fortifications were demoliſhed by the French in 1691. Lon. 2. 7. W. Lat. 42. 26. N.

CAMPS, Francis DE, abbot of Notre Dame at Sigi, was born at Amiens in 1643; and diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his knowledge of medals, by writing a Hiſtory of France, and ſeveral other works. He died at Paris in 1723.

CAMPSALL, a village in Yorkſhire, 4 miles E. of Pontefract.

CAMPS-CASTLE, 15 miles from Cambridge.

(1.) CAMPSIE, or CAMPSEY, [from *Camſi*, Celt. *i. e.* crooked glen,] a pariſh of Scotland, in Stirlingſhire, 8 miles long, and 7 broad, containing about 36 ſquare miles, or 14,400 acres. Being partly hilly, (See N° 2.) the climate is extremely variable, but healthy, though rather wet; the ſoil is alſo various, but great part of it is very fertile; and produces oats, barley, potatoes, lint, and graſs. Servitudes are not totally aboliſhed. The population, in 1793, as ſtated by the rev. Mr Lapſlie, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 2517, and had increaſed 1117 ſince 1755. At that period, there were 2469 black cattle, and 1600 ſheep in the pariſh. It abounds with waters, woods, coals, and lime-ſtone. Of the latter, 3000 chaldrons are burnt and ſold annually: and, L. 2750 were drawn for coals in 1793, beſides what were conſumed in the lime works, &c. The roads are good, and there are 19 ſtone bridges in the pariſh. Two very extenſive printfields were erected within theſe 13 years, which employ 612 perſons, and pay about L. 8000 per annum to government.

(2.) CAMPSIE FELLS, or CAMPSIE HILLS, a range of hills in the above pariſh, (N° 1.) of which they conſtitute about a 5th part, running the whole length of it from E. to W. Their ſurface is ſomewhat broken with craigs and glens: the ſummit and back part is a deep moor ground interſperſed with moſs, fit for rearing ſheep and black cattle. The higheſt ridge is about 1500 feet above the ſea level, and 1200 from its baſe. It conſiſts of various ſtrata of lime-ſtone, moor ſtone, iron ſtone, ſpar and cryſtal, and is ſuppoſed to contain copper and lead. Its aſcent is very rapid. In one part of the Fells there are beautiful baſaltes, and ſome fine pebbles have been found among the rocks.

CAMPS-

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CAMPSMICHAEL. See CAMBUSMICHAEL.

CAMPS-SHADY, a village 15 miles from Cambridge, near Eſſex.

CAMPTON, in Bedfordſhire, near Wreſt.

CAMPVERE. See VEER.

CAMPULUM, a diſtortion of the eye-lids.

CAMP-VOLANT, in military affairs, a flying camp.

(1.) CAMPUS, in antiquity, a field or vacant plain in a city, not built upon, left vacant on account of ſhows, combats, exerciſes, or other uſes of the citizens.

(2.) CAMPUS MAII, in ancient cuſtoms, an anniverſary aſſembly, held by our anceſtors on May-day, when they confederated together for the defence of the kingdom againſt its enemies.

(3.) CAMPUS MARTIUS, a large plain in the ſuburbs of ancient Rome, lying between the Quirinal and Capitoline mounts and the Tiber; thus called becauſe conſecrated to the god Mars, and ſet apart for military ſports and exerciſes, to which the Roman youth were trained; ſuch as the uſe of arms, and all manner of feats of activity. Here were the races run, either with chariots or ſingle horſes; here alſo ſtood the villa publica or palace for the reception of ambaſſadors, who were not permitted to enter the city. Many of the public comitia were held in the ſame field, part of which was for that purpoſe cantoned out. The place was alſo nobly decorated with ſtatues, arches, columns, porticoes, and the like ſtructures.

(4.) CAMPUS SCELERATUS, a place without the walls of ancient Rome, where the Veſtals who had violated their vows of virginity were buried alive.

(1.) CAMS, a village SE. of Farham, Hampſh.

(2.) CAMS, UPPER, in Glouceſterſ. S. of Cambridge.

CAMSWICK, near Kendal, Weſtmoreland.

CAMUL, a town of Aſia, on the E. extremity of the kingdom of Cialus, on the frontiers of Tangut. Lon. 98. 5. E. Lat. 37. 15. N.

(1.) CAMUS, Charles Stephen Lewis, a celebrated French mathematician, born at Creſſy, 25th Aug. 1699. His early ingenuity in mechanics induced his parents to ſend him to a college at Paris, at 10 years of age; where within two years he made ſuch rapid progreſs, that he gave lectures on mathematics and defrayed his own expences, without farther charge to them. In 1727, he gained the prize given by the Academy of Sciences "to determine the moſt advantageous way of maſting ſhips;" in conſequence of which, he was made adjoint mechanician to the academy; and, in 1730, profeſſor of architecture. In 1733, he was made ſecretary and aſſociate; and diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his memoirs on living forces; bodies in motion acted on by forces; on the figure of the teeth of wheels and pinions; and on pump work, &c. In 1736, he was ſent with Meſſrs Clairaut, Maupertuis, and Monnier, on the celebrated expedition to meaſure a degree at the North Polar circle; in which he proved highly uſeful, both as a mathematician and mechanician. In 1741, he was appointed geometrician in the academy, and invented a gauging rod, to meaſure all kinds of caſks and calculate their contents. In 1747 he was appointed examiner of the ſchools of artillery, and in 1765 he was elected F. R. S. of London. He died 4th May, 1768, after having publiſhed many mathematical works; of which Dr Hutton gives a liſt in his *Math. and Phil. Dict.*

(2.) CAMUS, John Peter, a French prelate, born in 1582. He was author of a number of pious romances, (the taſte of his time,) and other theological works, to the amount of 200 vols. His definition of politics is remarkable: *Ars non tam regendi, quam fallendi, homines*; "the art not ſo much of governing, as of deceiving mankind." He died in 1652.

(3.) CAMUS, *n. ſ.* a perſon with a low flat noſe, hollowed in the middle. The Tartars are great admirers of camus beauties. Rubruquis obſerves, that the wife of the great Jenghiz Khan, a celebrated beauty, had only two holes for a noſe!

(4.) * CAMUS. *n. ſ.* [probably from *camiſa*, Lat.] A thin dreſs mentioned by *Spenſer*.—

And was yclad, for heat of ſcorching air,
All in ſilken *camus*, lilly white,
Purfled upon with many a folded plight.
Fairy Queen.

(1.) CAN, a river in Eſſex.

(2.) CAN, a town in Dorſetſhire, SE. of Shaftſbury.

(3.) * CAN. *n. ſ.* [*canne*, Saxon.] A cup; generally a cup made of metal, or ſome other matter than earth.—

I hate as an unfill'd *can*. *Shakeſpeare.*

—One tree, the coco, afforded ſtuff for houſing, cloathing, ſhipping, meat, drink, and *can*. *Grew.*

His empty *can*, with ears half worn away,
Was hung on high, to boaſt the triumph of the day. *Dryden.*

(4.) CAN, in ſea language, is variouſly applied: thus,

1. CAN BUOY. See BUOY, § II. N° 3.

2. CAN-HOOK, an inſtrument uſed to fling a caſk by the ends of the ſtaves: it is formed by fixing a board and flat hook at each end of a ſhort rope; and the tackle, by which the caſk ſo flung may be hoiſted or lowered, is hooked to the middle of the rope.

3. CAN-PUMP, a veſſel wherewith ſea-men pour water into the pump to make it go.

* *To* CAN. *v. n.* [*konnen*, Dutch. It is ſometimes, though rarely, uſed alone; but is in conſtant uſe as an expreſſion of the potential mood; as, I *can* do, thou *canſt* do, I *could* do, thou *couldeſt* do. It has no other terminations.] 1. To be able; to have power.—In place there is licence to do good and evil, whereof the latter is a curſe; for, in evil, the beſt condition is not to will; the ſecond not to *can*. *Bacon.*—

O, there's the wonder!
Mecænas and Agrippa, who *can* moſt
With Cæſar, are his foes. *Dryden.*

—He *can* away with no company, whoſe diſcourſe goes beyond what claret and diſſoluteneſs inſpires. *Locke.* 2. It expreſſes the potential mood; as, I *can* do it.—

If ſhe can make me bleſt: ſhe only *can*:
Empire and wealth, and all ſhe brings beſide,
Are but the train and trappings of her love.
Dryden.

3. It is diſtinguiſhed from *may*, as power from *permiſſion*; I *can* do it; it is in my power: I *may* do it;

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it; it is allowed me: but, in poetry, they are confounded. 4. *Can* is uſed of the perſon with the *verb active*, where *may* is uſed; of the thing, with the *verb paſſive*; as, I *can* do it; it *may* or *can* be done.

CANA, in ancient geography, a town on the confines of Galilee; memorable for our Saviour's firſt miracle of turning water into wine. John ii. It was the birth place of Simon, and of Nathaniel.

(1.) CANAAN, [נענ, Heb. *i. e.* a merchant,] the fourth ſon of Ham. The irreverence of Ham towards his father Noah, is recorded in Gen. ix. The curſe denounced by the patriarch, not againſt Ham the immediate tranſgreſſor, but againſt his ſon Canaan, has occaſioned various conjectures. Some think Moſes's chief intent in recording this prediction was to raiſe the ſpirits of the Iſraelites, then entering on a terrible war with the children of Canaan, by the aſſurance, that, in conſequence of the curſe, that people were deſtined by God to be ſubdued by them. For the opinion of thoſe, who imagine all Ham's race were here accurſed, is not only repugnant to the plain words of Scripture, but is alſo contrary to fact. Indeed, the prophecy of Noah, that Canaan "ſhould be a ſervant of ſervants to his brethren," ſeems to have been wholly completed in his deſcendants. It was completed with regard to Shem, not only in that a conſiderable part of the 7 nations of the Canaanites were made ſlaves to the Iſraelites, when they took poſſeſſion of their land, as part of the remainder of them were afterwards enſlaved by Solomon; but alſo by the ſubſequent expeditions of the Aſſyrians and Perſians, who were both deſcended from Shem; and under whom the Cannaanites ſuffered ſubjection, as well as the Iſraelites; not to mention the conqueſt of part of Canaan by the Elamites, or Perſians, under Chedorlaomer, prior to them all. With regard to Japhet, we find a completion of the prophecy, in the ſucceſſive conqueſts of the Greeks and Romans in Paleſtine and Phœnicia, where the Canaanites were ſettled; but eſpecially in the total ſubverſion of the Carthaginian power by the Romans; beſides ſome invaſions of the northern nations, as the poſterity of Thogarma and Magog; wherein many of them, probably, were carried away captive. The poſterity of Canaan were very numerous. His eldeſt ſon was Sidon, who at leaſt founded and peopled the city of Sidon, and was the father of the Sidonians and Phœnicians. Canaan had beſides ten ſons, who were the fathers of ſo many people, dwelling in Paleſtine, and in part of Syria; namely, the Hittites, the Jebuſites, the Amorites, the Girgaſites, the Hivites, the Arkites, the Sinites, the Arvadites, the Semarites, and Hamathites.

(2.) CANAAN, the tract of country, which lies between the Mediterranean ſea and the mountains of Arabia, and extends from Egypt to Phœnicia: ſo named from CANAAN, N° 1. It was bounded on the E. by the mountains of Arabia; on the S. by the wilderneſs of Paran, Idumæa, and Egypt; on the W. by the Mediterranean, called in Hebrew the Great Sea; on the N. by the mountains of Libanus. Its length from the city of Dan to Beerſheba, was about 70 leagues; and its breadth from the Mediterranean ſea to the eaſtern borders, in ſome places 30. This country, was afterwards called PALESTINE, from the people whom the Hebrews called PHILISTINES, who inhabited the ſea coaſts. It was alſo called the *Land of Promiſe*, from the promiſe God made Abraham of giving it to him; the *Land of Iſrael*, from the Iſraelites having made themſelves maſters of it; of JUDAH, from the tribe of Judah, which was the moſt conſiderable of the twelve; and laſtly, the *Holy Land* from its having been ſanctified by the preſence, actions, miracles, and death of Jeſus Chriſt, which laſt name it ſtill retains. The firſt inhabitants of this land were the CANAANITES, who were deſcended from Canaan, and the eleven ſons of that patriarch. Here they multiplied extremely; trade and war were their firſt occupations; theſe gave riſe to their riches, and the ſeveral colonies ſcattered by them over almoſt all the iſlands and maritime provinces of the Mediterranean. The meaſure of their idolatry and abominations was completed, when God delivered their country into the hands of the Iſraelites. In St Athanaſius's time, the Africans ſtill ſaid they were deſcended from the Canaanites; and it is ſaid, that the Punic tongue was almoſt entirely the ſame with the Canaaniti ſh and Hebrew languages. The colonies which Cadmus carried into Thebes in Bœotia, and his brother Cilix into Cilicia, came from the ſtock of Canaan. The iſles of Sicily, Sardinia, Malta, Cyprus, Corfu, Majorca and Minorca, Gades and Ebuſus, are thought to have been peopled by the Canaanites. Bochart, in his large work, entitled *Canaan*, has ſet all this matter in a clear light. Many of the old inhabitants of the NW. of Canaan, however, particularly on the coaſt of Tyre and Sidon, were not driven out by the children of Iſreal, whence this tract ſeems to have retained the name of Canaan long after thoſe other parts of the country, which were better inhabited by the Iſraelites, had loſt the name. The Greeks called this tract, inhabited by the old Canaanites, Phœnicia; the more inland parts, being inhabited partly by Canaanites, and partly by Syrians, Syrophœnicia: and hence the woman, ſaid by St Matthew (xv. 22.) to be a woman of Canaan, whoſe daughter Jeſus cured, is ſaid by St Mark (vii. 26.) to be a Syrophœnician by nation, as ſhe was a Greek by religion and language.

(3.) CANAAN, a poſt town of the United States, in Connecticut, ſeated on the E. ſide of the river Houſetoneck, in Litchfield county. It has a congregational church, and lies 264 miles from Philadelphia.

CANAANITES, 1. the deſcendants of Canaan in general; 2. a particular tribe of theſe. See CANAAN, N° 1, and 2.

(1.) CANADA, or the province of QUEBEC, an extenſive country of North America, bounded on the NE. by the gulph of St Lawrence, and St John's river; on the SW. by lands inhabited by the ſavage Indians, which are frequently included in this province; on the S. by the provinces of Nova Scotia, New England, and New York; and on the NW. by other Indian nations. Under this name the French comprehended a very large territory; taking into their claim part of New Scotland, New England, and New York on the

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the E. and extending it on the W. as far as the Pacific Ocean. That part, however, which was reduced by the British arms, lies between 61° and 81° W. lon. and between 45° and 52° of N. lat. The climate is not very different from that of the northern British colonies; but as it is much farther from the sea, and more to the northward, than most of those provinces, it has a much severer winter, though the air is generally clear; and, like most of those American tracts that do not lie too far to the northward, the summers are very hot, and exceedingly pleasant. The soil in general is very good, and in many parts extremely fertile; producing many different sorts of grains, fruits, and vegetables. The meadow grounds, which are well watered, yield excellent grass, and breed vast numbers of cattle. The uncultivated parts are a continued wood, composed of prodigiously large and lofty trees, of which there is such immense variety, that even of those who have taken most pains to know them, there is not perhaps one that can tell half the number. Canada produces, among others, two sorts of pines, the white and the red; four sorts of firs; two sorts of cedar and oak, the white and the red; the male and female maple; three sorts of ash trees the free, the mongrel, and the bastard; three sorts of walnut trees, the hard, the soft, and the smooth; vast numbers of beech trees and white wood; white and red elms, and poplars. The Indians hollow the red elms into canoes, some of which made out of one piece will contain 20 persons; others are made of the bark; the different pieces of which they sew together with the inner rind, and daub over the seams with pitch, or rather a bituminous matter resembling pitch, to prevent their leaking; the ribs of these canoes are made of boughs of trees. In the hollow elms, the bears and wild cats take up their lodging from November to April. The country produces also a vast variety of other vegetables, particularly tobacco, which thrives well. Near Quebec is a fine lead mine, and many excellent ones of iron have been discovered. It has also been reported that silver is found in some of the mountains. The rivers are extremely numerous, and many of them very large and deep. The principal are, the Ouattauais, St John's, Seguinay, Despaires, and Trois Rivieres; but all these are swallowed up by the great river St Laurence. This river is the only one upon which any settlements of note are as yet formed; but it is very probable, that, in time to come, Canada, and those vast regions to the west, may be enabled of themselves to carry on a considerable trade upon the great lakes of fresh water which these countries environ. Here are 5 lakes, the least of which is of greater extent than the largest to be found in any other part of the world: viz. Ontario, Erie, Huron, Michigan, and Superior. See America, § 39 and 53. All these are navigable by any vessels, and they all communicate with each other; but the passage between Erie and Ontario is interrupted by a most stupenduous cataract, called the *falls of Niagara*. See Niagara. The St Laurence is the outlet of these lakes, by which they discharge themselves into the ocean. The French built forts at the straits between these lakes, by which, while the country was in their possession, they effectually secured the trade of the lakes, and preserved an influence over all the Indian nations that dwelt near them.

(2.) Canada, animals, trade, &c. of. Canada abounds with stags, elks, deer, bears, foxes, martins, wild cats, ferrets, weasels, large squirrels, hares and rabbits. The southern parts breed great numbers of wild bulls, divers sorts of roe bucks, goats, wolves, &c. The marshes, lakes, and pools swarm with otters and beavers, of which the white are highly valued, as well as the right black kind. A vast variety of birds are to be found in the woods; and the St Laurence abounds with such quantities of fish, that it is affirmed by some writers, this would be a more profitable article than even the fur trade. There are in Canada a multitude of different Indian tribes; but these are observed to decrease in number where the Europeans are most numerous; owing chiefly to the immoderate use of spirituous liquors, of which they are excessively fond. For their manners, way of living, &c. see Americans, § 1—26. The principal towns are Quebec, Trois Rivieres, and Montreal. The commodities required by the Canadians from Europe are, wine, or rather rum; cloths, chiefly coarse; linen; and wrought iron. The Indian trade requires rum, tobacco, a sort of duffil blankets, guns, powder, balls, and flints, kettles, hatchets, toys, and trinkets of all kinds. While the country was in possession of the French, the Indians supplied them with poultry, and the French had traders, who, like the original inhabitants traversed the vast lakes and rivers in canoes, with incredible industry and patience, carrying their goods into the remotest parts of America, and among nations entirely unknown to us. These again brought the furs, &c. home to them, as the Indians were habituated to trade with them. For this purpose, people from all parts, even from the distance of 1000 miles, came to the French fair at Montreal, which began in June, and sometimes lasted three months. On this occasion many solemnities were observed, guards were placed, and the governor assisted to preserve order in so great and various a concourse of savage nations. But sometimes great disorders and tumults happened; and the Indians frequently gave for a dram all that they were possessed of. It is remarkable, that many of these nations actually passed by the English settlement of Albany in New York, and travelled 200 miles further to Montreal, though they could have purchased the goods they wanted cheaper at the former. Since Britain became possessed of Canada, our trade with that country has generally employed 34 ships and 400 seamen: their exports, at an average of 3 years, in skins, furs, ginseng snake-root, capillaire, and wheat, amount to L. 150,000. Their imports from Great Britain are computed at nearly the same sum. It will, however, be always impossible to overcome the inconveniences arising from the violence of the winter. This is so excessive from December to April, that the broadest rivers are frozen over, and the snow lies commonly from 4 to 6 feet deep on the ground, even in those parts which lie 3° S. of London, and in the temperate latitude of Paris. Another incon-

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inconvenience arises from the falls in the river St Laurence below Montreal, which prevents ships from penetrating to that emporium of inland commerce. Our communication therefore with Canada, and the immense regions beyond it, will always be interrupted during winter, until roads are formed that can be travelled without danger from the Indians. For these savage people often commit hostilities against us, without any previous notice; and frequently, without any provocation, at least that can be discovered; although it must be owned, that our people are too often to blame in beginning quarrels with them.

(3.) CANADA, HISTORY OF. Canada was discovered by Sebastian CABOT, the famous English adventurer, who sailed under a commission from Henry VII. See AMERICA, § 10. But though the English monarch did not make any use of this discovery, the French quickly attempted it. We have an account of their fishing for cod on the banks of Newfoundland, and along the coast of Canada, in the beginning of the 16th century. About 1506, one Denys, a Frenchman, drew a map of the gulph of St Laurence: and two years after, one Aubert a ship-master of Dieppe, carried over to France some of the natives of Canada. As the new country, however, did not promise the same amazing quantities of gold and silver produced by Mexico and Peru, the French for some years neglected it. At last, in 1524, Francis I. sent 4 ships under Verazani, a Florentine, to prosecute discoveries in that country. The particulars of his first expedition are not known. He returned to France and next year he undertook a second. As he approached the coast, he met with a violent storm; however, he came so near as to perceive the natives on the shore making friendly signs to him to land. This being found impracticable by reason of the surf upon the coast, one of the sailors threw himself into the sea; but, endeavouring to swim back to the ship, a surge threw him on shore without signs of life. He was, however, treated by the natives with such care and humanity, that he recovered his strength, and was allowed to swim back to the ship, which immediately returned to France. This is all we know of Verazani's second expedition. He undertook a third, but was no more heard of, and it is thought that he and all his company perished. In 1534, James Cartier of St Maloes set sail under a commission from the French king. See AMERICA, § 10. On his return, he was again sent out with a commission, and a pretty large force; he returned in 1535, and passed the winter at St Croix; but the season proved so severe, that he and his companions must have died of the scurvey, had they not, by the advice of the natives, made use of the decoction of the tops and bark of the white pines. As Cartier, however, could produce neither gold nor silver, all that he could say about the utility of the settlement was disregarded; and in 1540 he was obliged to become pilot to one M. Roberval, who was by the French king appointed viceroy of Canada, and who sailed from France with 5 vessels. Arriving at the gulph of St Laurence, they built a fort; and Cartier was left to command the garrison in it, while Roberval returned to France for additional recruits to his new settlement. At last, having embarked in 1549, with a great number of adventurers, neither he nor any of his followers were heard of more. This so greatly discouraged the court of France, that for 50 years, no measures were taken for supplying with necessaries the settlers that were left. At last, Henry IV. appointed the Marquis de la Rouche, lieutenant general of Canada, and the neighbouring countries. In 1598, he landed on the isle of Sable, which he absurdly thought to be a proper place for a settlement, though it was without any port, and without product except briars. Here he left about 40 malefactors, the refuse of the French jails. After cruizing for some time on the coast of Nova Scotia, without being able to relieve these poor wretches, he returned to France, where he died of a broken heart. His colony must have perished, had not a French ship been wrecked on the island, and a few sheep driven upon it at the same time. With the boards of the ship they erected huts; and while the sheep lasted they lived on them, feeding afterwards on fish. Their clothes wearing out they made coats of seal-skins; and in this miserable condition they spent 7 years, when Henry ordered them to be brought to France. The king had the curiosity to see them in their seal-skin dresses, and was so moved with their appearance, that he forgave them all their offences, and gave each of them 50 crowns to begin the world anew. In 1600, one Chauvin, a commander in the French navy, attended by a merchant of St Malo, called *Pontgrave*, made a voyage to Canada, from whence he returned with a very profitable quantity of furs. Next year he repeated the voyage with the same good fortune, but died while he was preparing for a third. The many specimens of profit to be made by the Canadian trade, at last induced the public to think favourably of it. An armament was equipped, and the command of it given to Pontgrave, with powers to extend his discoveries up the river St Laurence. He sailed in 1603, and took with him Samuel Champlain, who had been a captain in the navy, and was a man of parts and spirit. It was not, however, till 1608, that the colony was fully established, by founding the city of Quebec, which from that time commenced the capital of all Canada. The colony for many years continued in a low way, and was often in danger of being totally exterminated by the Indians. The French, however, at last not only concluded a permanent peace with them, but so much ingratiated with them, that they could with ease prevail upon them at any time to murder and scalp the English in their settlements. These practices had a considerable share in bringing about the last war with France, wherein the whole country was conquered by the British in 1761. The most remarkable transaction in that conquest was the siege of QUEBEC; for an account of which, see that article. And for the events that occurred in Canada, during the American war, see AMERICA, § 12—14. 27—33.

* CANAILLE. *n. s.* [Fr.] The lowest people; the dregs; the lees; the offscouring of the people: a French term of reproach.

CANAJOHARIE, a flourishing post of New

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York, in Montgomery county, ſituated on the banks of the Mohawk; 18 m. from Fort Hunter, and 318 N. by E. of Philadelphia.

(1.) * CANAL. *n. ſ.* [*canalis*, Lat.] 1. A baſon of water in a garden.—

The walks and long *canals* reply. *Pope.*

5. Any tract or courſe of water made by art; as the *canals* in Holland. 3. [In anatomy.] A conduit or paſſage through which any of the juices of the body flow.

(2.) CANAL OF COMMUNICATION, an artificial cut in the ground, ſupplied with water from rivers, ſprings, &c. to make a navigable communication betwixt one place and another. See § 3—9.

(3.) CANALS, ACCOUNT OF THE METHOD OF CONSRUCTING. The particular operations neceſſary for making artificial navigations depend upon a number of circumſtances. The ſituation of the ground, the vicinity or connection with rivers, the eaſe or difficulty with which a proper quantity of water can be obtained; theſe and other circumſtances neceſſarily produce great variety in the ſtructure of artificial navigations, and augment or diminiſh the labour and expence of executing them. When the ground is naturally level, and unconnected with rivers, the execution is eaſy, and the navigation is not liable to be diſturbed by floods: but, when the ground riſes and falls, and cannot be reduced to a level, artificial methods of raiſing and lowering veſſels muſt be employed; which likewiſe vary according to circumſtances. Temporary ſluices are ſometimes employed for raiſing boats over falls or ſhoals in rivers by a very ſimple operation. Two poſts or pillars of maſon work, with grooves, are fixed, one on each bank of the river, at ſome diſtance below the ſhoal. The boat having paſſed theſe poſts, planks are let down acroſs the river by pullies into the grooves, by which the water is dammed up to a proper height for allowing the boat to paſs up the river over the ſhoal. The Dutch and Flemings, ſometimes, when obſtructed by caſcades, form a rolling bridge upon dry land, alongſt which their veſſels are drawn from the river below the caſcade into the river above it. This, it is ſaid, was the only method employed by the ancients, and is ſtill uſed by the Chineſe, who are ignorant of the nature and utility of locks. Theſe rolling bridges conſiſt of a number of cylindrical rollers which turn eaſily on pivots; and a mill is commonly built near by, ſo that the ſame machinery may ſerve the double purpoſe of working the mill and drawing up veſſels. But the conſtruction of canals by locks is far ſuperior to every invention of this kind. A LOCK is a baſon placed lengthwiſe in a river or canal, lined with walls of maſonry on each ſide, and terminated by two gates, placed where there is a caſcade or natural fall of the country; and ſo conſtructed, that the baſon being filled with water by an upper ſluice to the level of the waters above, a veſſel may aſcend through the upper gate; or the water in the lock being reduced to the level of the water at the bottom of the caſcade, the veſſel may deſcend through the lower gate; for when the waters are brought to a level on either ſide, the gate on that ſide may be eaſily opened. But as the lower gate is ſtrained in proportion to the depth of water it ſupports, when the perpendicular height of the water exceeds 12 or 13 feet, more locks than one become neceſſary. Thus, if the fall be 17 feet, two locks are required, each having 8½ feet fall; and if the fall be 26 feet, three locks are neceſſary, each having 8 feet 8 inches fall. The ſide walls of a lock ought to be very ſtrong. Where the natural foundation is bad they ſhould be founded on piles and platforms of wood: they ſhould likewiſe ſlope outwards, in order to reſiſt the preſſure of the earth from behind. *Plate* LVI. *Fig.* 1. gives a perſpective view of part of a canal: the veſſel L, within the lock AC.—*Fig.* 2. Section of an open lock: the veſſel L about to enter.—*Fig.* 3. Section of a lock full of water; the veſſel L raiſed to a level with the water in the ſuperior canal.—*Fig.* 4. Ground ſection of a lock. L, a veſſel in the inferior canal. C, the under gate. A, the upper gate. GH, a ſubterraneous paſſage for letting water from the ſuperior canal run into the lock. KF, a ſubterraneous paſſage for water from the lock to the inferior canal. X and Y, *Fig.* 1. are the two flood-gates, each of which conſiſts of two leaves, reſting upon one another, ſo as to form an obtuſe angle, in order the better to reſiſt the preſſure of the water. The firſt, X, prevents the water of the ſuperior canal from falling into the lock; and the ſecond, Y, dams up and ſuſtains the water in the lock. Theſe flood-gates ought to be very ſtrong, and to turn freely upon their hinges. In order to make them open and ſhut with eaſe, each leaf is furniſhed with a long lever A *b*, A *b*; C *b*, C *b*. They ſhould be made very tight and cloſe, that as little water as poſſible may be loſt. By the ſubterraneous paſſage GH, *fig.* 2, 3, & 4, which deſcends obliquely, by opening the ſluice G, the water is let down from the ſuperior canal D into the lock, where it is ſtopt and retained by the gate C when ſhut, till the water on the lock comes to be on a level with the water in the ſuperior canal D: as repreſented, *fig.* 3. When, on the other hand, the water contained by the lock is to be let out, the paſſage GH muſt be ſhut by letting down the ſluice G, the gate A muſt be alſo ſhut, and the paſſage KF opened by raiſing the ſluice K: a free paſſage being thus given to the water, it deſcends through KF, into the inferior canal, until the water in the lock is on a level with the water in the inferior canal B; as repreſented, *fig.* 2. Now, let it be required to raiſe the veſſel L, *fig.* 2. from the inferior canal B, to the ſuperior one, D; if the lock happens to be full of water, the ſluice G muſt be ſhut, and alſo the gate A, and the ſluice K opened, ſo that the water in the lock may run out, till it is on a level with the water in the inferior canal B. When the water in the lock comes to be on a level with the water at B, the leaves of the gate C are opened by the levers C *b*, which is eaſily performed, the water on each ſide of the gate being in equilibrio; the veſſel then ſails into the lock. After this the gate C and the ſluice K are ſhut, and the ſluice G opened, in order to fill the lock, till the water in the lock, and conſequently the veſſel, be upon a level with the water in the ſuperior canal D; as is repreſented in *fig.* 3. The gate A is then opened, and the veſſel paſſes into the canal D. Again, let it be required to make

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Fig. 1.

Plate LVI.

Perspective VIEW of part of a CANAL with Locks.

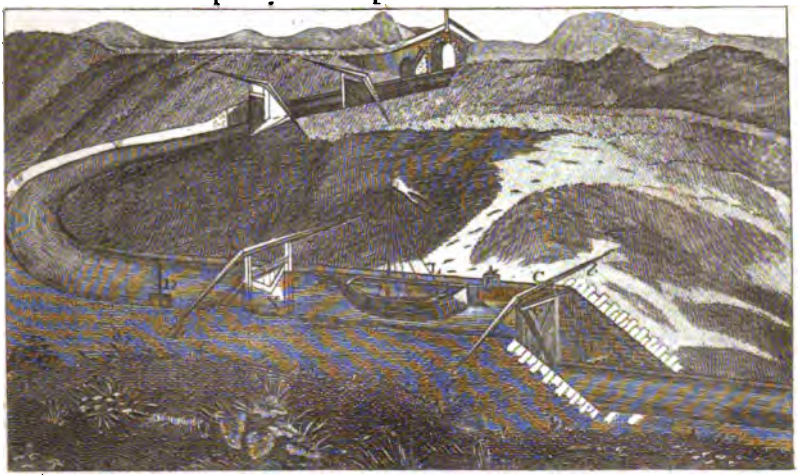


Fig. 2.

Section of a Lock.

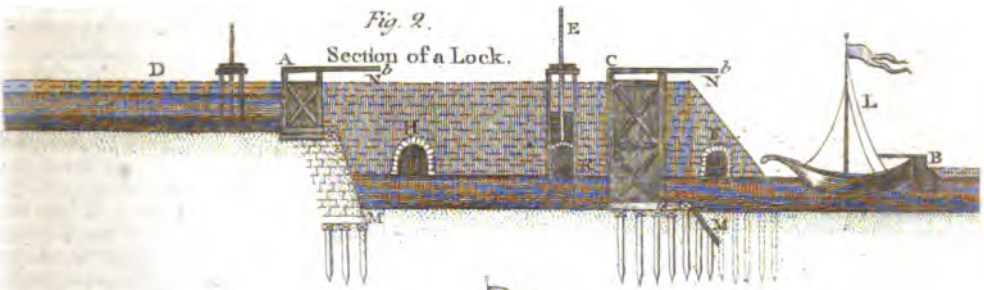


Fig. 3.

Section of a Lock full of water.

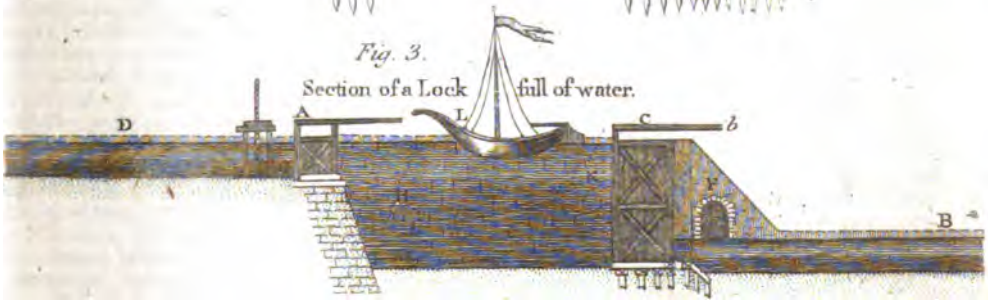
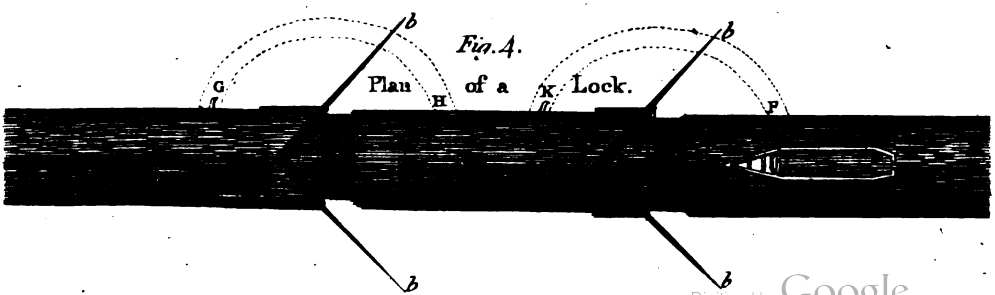


Fig. 4.

Plan of a Lock.



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make a veſſel deſcend from the canal D into the inferior canal B. If the lock is empty, as in *fig.* 2. the gate C and ſluice K muſt be ſhut, and the upper ſluice G opened, ſo that the water in the lock may riſe to a level with the water in the upper canal D. Then open the gate A, and let the veſſel paſs through into the lock. Shut the gate A and the ſluice G; then open the ſluice K, till the water in the lock be on a level with the water in the inferior canal; then the gate B is opened, and the veſſel paſſes along into the canal B, as was required.

(4.) CANALS, ANCIENT ATTEMPTS TO MAKE. The advantages of navigable canals did not eſcape the obſervation of the ancients. From the moſt early accounts, we read of attempts to cut through large iſthmuſes, in order to make a communication by water, either betwixt different nations, or diſtant parts of the ſame nation, where land carriage was long and expenſive. Herodotus relates, that the Cnidians deſigned to cut the iſthmus which joins that peninſula to the continent; but were ſuperſtitious enough to give up the undertaking, becauſe they were interdicted by an oracle. Several kings of Egypt attempted to join the Red Sea to the Mediterranean. Cleopatra was exceedingly fond of this project. Soliman II. emperor of the Turks, employed 50,000 men in this great work. This canal was completed under the caliphate of Omar, but was afterwards allowed to fall into diſrepair; ſo that it is now difficult to diſcover any traces of it. Both the Greeks and Romans intended to make a canal acroſs the iſthmus of Corinth, which joins the Morea and Achaia, in order to make a navigable paſſage by the Ionian ſea into the Archipelago. Demetrius Poliorcetes, Julius Cæſar, Caligula, and Nero, made ſeveral unſucceſsful efforts to open this paſſage. But, as the ancients were entirely ignorant of the uſe of water locks, their whole attention was employed in making level cuts, which is probably the principal reaſon why they ſo often failed in their attempts. Charlemagne formed a deſign of joining the Rhine and the Danube, to make a communication between the ocean and the Black Sea, by a canal from the river Almutz which falls into the Danube, to the Reditz, which runs into the Maine, and this laſt falls into the Rhine near Mayence: for this purpoſe he employed a prodigious number of workmen; but he met with ſo many obſtacles from different quarters, that he was obliged to give up the attempt.

(5.) CANALS, ENGLISH. Though the Romans made a canal between the Nyne, a little below Peterborough, and the Witham, 3 miles below Lincoln, which is now almoſt entirely filled up, yet it is not long ſince canals were revived in England. The firſt canal act only paſſed in 1755. They are now however become very numerous, particularly in the counties of York, Lincoln, and Cheſhire. Moſt of the counties betwixt the mouth of the Thames and the Briſtol Channel are connected together either by natural or artificial navigations; thoſe upon the Thames and Iſis reaching within about 20 miles of thoſe upon the Severn. The duke of Bridgewater's canal in Cheſhire runs 27 miles on a perfect level; but at Barton it is carried by a very high aqueduct bridge 200 yards acroſs a valley, and more than 40 feet high above the Irwell, a navigable river; ſo that it is common for veſſels to be paſſing at the ſame time both under and above the bridge. It likewiſe runs, by a ſubterranean paſſage, $\frac{1}{4}$ of a mile through the hill to the duke's coal works. In ſome places the paſſage is cut through the ſolid rock; in others it is arched over with brick. Air funnels, ſome of which are 37 yards perpendicular, are cut at proper diſtances, through the rock to the top of the hill. This canal was finiſhed in 5 years, under the direction of the celebrated J. Brindley. Coals formerly retailed at 7d. per 100 weight, are now ſold at 3½d. The GRAND TRUNK CANAL in Staffordſhire is partly deſcribed under the article BRINDLEY. It is carried over the river Dove in an aqueduct of 23 arches, and over the Trent in another of 6. At Harecaſtle it is conveyed under ground a mile and a half. At Barton it has another ſubterraneous paſſage of 560 yards; another near it of 350, and at Preſton on the hill, where it joins the duke's canal, a 4th, for 1241 yards. Several branches are made from it to Birmingham, Wolverhampton, Worceſter, &c.

(6.) CANALS, FOREIGN. The French have many fine canals: that of Briare was begun under Henry IV. and finiſhed under the direction of cardinal Richelieu in the reign of Louis XIII. See BRIARE. It enters the Loire a little above Briare, and terminates in the Loing at Cepoi. There are 42 locks on it. The canal of Orleans, for making another communication between the Seine and the Loire was begun in 1675, and finiſhed by Philip of Orleans, regent of France, during the minority of Louis XV. and is furniſhed with 20 locks. It begins at the village of Combleux. The canal from Bruges to Oſtend carries veſſels of 200 tons. But the greateſt work of this kind in France is the junction of the ocean with the Mediterranean by the canal (ci-devant *Royal*) of Languedoc. It was propoſed in the reigns of Francis I. and Henry IV. and was undertaken, and finiſhed under Louis XIV. It begins with a large reſervoir 4000 paces in circumference, and 24 feet deep, which receives many ſprings from the mountain Noire. This canal is about 64 leagues in length, is ſupplied by a number of rivulets, and is furniſhed with 104 locks, of about 8 feet riſe each. In ſome places it paſſes over bridges of vaſt height; and in others it cuts through ſolid rocks for 1000 paces. At one end it joins the river Garonne near Thouloufe, and terminates at the other in the lake Tau, which extends to the port of Cette. It was planned by Francis Riquet in 1666, and finiſhed in 1682. The Chineſe have alſo a great number of canals. That which runs from Canton to Pekin extends about 825 miles in length, and was executed about 800 years ago. There are likewiſe many canals, in Germany, Holland, Ruſſia, &c. &c.

(7.) CANALS, IRISH. The grand canal of Ireland commences at the W. end of Dublin, and is to be carried on to Shannon. It already communicates with the Barrow, whereby a communication is opened with Athy, Carlow, Clonmel, Roſs, Waterford, &c. The execution of this work was arduous; for, beſides having hard and rocky ſtrata to cut through, and aqueducts to erect over rivers and valleys, a long tract of turf bog for ſome time baffled every effort, by filling up the channel,

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(from its ſoft conſiſtence,) as often as the digging ceaſed. Theſe difficulties, however, are now got over, and the canal has proved ſuch a drain to the bog, that much of it is recovered and cultivated. By a branch now carried, at an immenſe expence round the S. ſide of the city, the grand canal now communicates with the harbour of Dublin. There are other canals in the N. and W. of Ireland, beſides the royal canal on the N. ſide of Dublin.

(8.) CANAL, THE GRAND TRUNK. See § 5.

(9.) CANAL, THE GREAT, OF SCOTLAND. A navigable canal betwixt the Forth and Clyde dividing the kingdom in two parts, was firſt thought of by Charles II. for tranſports and ſmall ſhips of war; the expence of which was to have been 500,000 l. a ſum far beyond the abilities of his reign. It was again projected in 1722, and a ſurvey made: but nothing more done till 1761, when the then Lord Napier, at his own expence, cauſed make a ſurvey, plan, and eſtimate on a ſmall ſcale. In 1764, the truſtees for fiſheries, &c. in Scotland cauſed make another ſurvey, plan, and eſtimate of a canal 5 feet deep, which was to coſt 79,000 l. In 1766, a ſubſcription was obtained by a number of the moſt reſpectable merchants in Glaſgow, for making a canal 4 feet deep and 24 feet in breadth; but when the bill was nearly obtained in parliament, it was given up on account of the ſmallneſs of the ſcale, and a new ſubſcription ſet on foot for a canal 7 feet deep, eſtimated at 150,000. This obtained the ſanction of parliament; and the work was begun in 1768, by Mr Smeaton the engineer. The extreme length of the canal from the Forth to the Clyde is 35 miles, beginning at the mouth of the Carron, and ending at Dalmure Burnfoot on the Clyde, ſix miles below Glaſgow, riſing and falling 160 feet by means of 39 locks, 20 on the eaſt ſide of the ſummit, and 19 on the W. as the tide does not ebb ſo low in Clyde as in the Forth by 9 feet. Veſſels drawing 8 feet water, and not exceeding 19 feet beam and 73 feet in length, paſs with eaſe, the canal having been afterwards deepened to more than 8 feet. The carrying the canal through moſs, quickſand, gravel, and rocks, up precipices and over valleys, was attended with inconceivable difficulties. There are 18 draw-bridges and 15 aqueduct bridges of note, beſides ſmall ones and tunnels. In the firſt 3 miles there are only ſix locks; but in the 4th mile there are no leſs than ten locks, and a very fine aqueduct bridge over the great road W. of Falkirk. In the next 6 miles there are only four locks, which carry on to the ſummit. The canal then runs 18 miles on a level, and terminates about a mile from Glaſgow. In this courſe, for a conſiderable way the ground is banked about 25 feet high, and the water is 16 feet deep, and two miles of it is made through a deep moſs. At Kirkintulloch, the canal is carried over the water of Logie on an aqueduct arch of 90 feet broad. This arch was thrown over in 3 ſtretches, having only a centre of 30 feet, which was ſhifted on ſmall rollers from one ſtretch to another; a thing new, and never attempted before with an arch of this ſize; yet the joinings are as fairly equal as any other part, and admired as a very fine piece of maſonry. On each ſide there is a very conſiderable banking over the valley. The work was carried on till within 6 miles of its junction with the Clyde; when the ſubſcription and a ſubſequent loan being exhauſted, it was ſtopt in 1775. The city of Glaſgow, however, by means of a collateral branch, opened a communication with the Forth, which has produced a revenue of about 6000 l. annually; and, in order to finiſh the remaining ſix miles, government, in 1784, gave 50,000 l. out of the forfeited eſtates, the dividends ariſing from this ſum to be applied to making and repairing roads in the Highlands. Accordingly the work was reſumed in July 1786, and completely finiſhed within 4 years after; the navigation being opened between the Britiſh Sea and Atlantic Ocean, on the 28th July, 1790. See BOWLING BAY. The aqueduct bridge over the Kelvin (ſuppoſed to be the greateſt of the kind in the world) conſiſts of 4 arches, and carries the canal over a valley 63 feet high and 420 in length, exhibiting a very ſingular effort of human ingenuity and labour. To ſupply the canal with water was of itſelf a very great work. There is one reſervoir of 50 acres 24 feet deep, and another of 70 acres 22 feet deep, into which many rivers and ſprings terminate, which it is thought will afford ſufficient ſupply of water at all times. This whole undertaking has coſt about 200,000 l. It is the greateſt of the kind in Britain, and muſt prove of immenſe national utility; as it ſhortens the nautical diſtance from 800 to 1000 miles, and affords a ſafe and ſpeedy navigation at all ſeaſons to Ireland and the weſtern parts of Britain, without danger of ſhipwreck. See farther, under FORTH AND CLYDE NAVIGATION.

* CANAL-COAL. *n. ſ.* A fine kind of coal, dug up in England.—Even our *canal coal* nearly equals the foreign jet. *Woodward.*

CANALEGIE, a town, S, of Padſtow, Cornwall.

* CANALICULATED. *adj.* [from *canaliculatus*, Lat.] Channelled; made like a pipe or gutter. *Dict.*

(1.) CANANDAQUI, a lake of New York, in the country of Ontario.

(2.) CANANDAQUI, a poſt town, the capital of Ontario county, ſeated near the lake, (N° 1.) 30 miles from Jeruſalem, and 434 NNW. of Philadelphia. Courts of ſeſſions and common pleas are held in it, 1ſt Tueſ. of June and November.

CANANITE, or CANAITE, a native of Cana, in Galilee. Simon, the apoſtle, is ſtiled in our tranſlation, *the Canaanite*; (*Mat.* x. 4. *Mark* iii. 18.) but this is evidently wrong. The word in the original is, Καναναιος, or Κανανιτης.

(1.) CANANORE, a kingdom of Aſia, on the coaſt of Malabar, whoſe king can raiſe a conſiderable army. The natives are generally Mahometans; and the country produces pepper, cardamoms, ginger, miroholans, and tamarinds, in which they drive a conſiderable trade.

(2.) CANANORE, a large maritime town in the above kingdom, (N° 1.) with a very large and ſafe harbour. It formerly belonged to the Portugueſe, and had a ſtrong fort to guard it; but in 1683, the Dutch together with the natives, drove them away; and after they became maſters of the town enlarged the fortifications. They have but a very ſmall trade; but there is a town at the bottom of the

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the bay independant of the Dutch, whose prince can bring 20,000 men into the field. The fort is large, and the governor's lodgings are at a good distance from the gate; so that, when there was a skirmish between the factory and the natives, he knew nothing of it till it was over. It is now held by the English East India Company. Lon. 74. 10. E. Lat. 12. 0. N.

CANARA, a kingdom of Asia, on the coast of Malabar. The inhabitants are Pagans: and there is a pagod, called *Ramtrut*, which is visited every year by a great number of pilgrims. Here the custom of burning the wives with their husbands had its beginning, and is still practised. The country is generally governed by a queen, who keeps her court at a town called *Bydor*, two days journey from the sea. She may marry whom she pleases; and is not obliged to burn with her husband, like her female subjects. They are so good observers of their laws, that a robbery or murder is scarce ever heard of among them. The Canarans have forts built of earth along the coast, which are garrisoned with 200 or 300 soldiers, to guard against the robberies of their neighbours. The lower grounds yield every year 2 crops of corn or rice; and the higher produce pepper, betel nuts, sanders wood, iron and steel. The Portuguese clergy here live very loosely, and make no scruple of procuring women for strangers.

(1.) CANARIA, in ancient geography, one of the FORTUNATE ISLANDS, a proof that these are what we now call the *Canaries*. Canaria had its name from abounding with dogs of an enormous size. See N° 2.

(2.) CANARIA, or the GRAND CANARY, an island in the Atlantic Ocean, about 180 miles from the coast of Africa. It is 42 m. long, 27 broad; about 100 in circumference, and 33 in diameter. It is fruitful, and famous for its wine. It also abounds with apples, melons, oranges, citrons, pomegranates, figs, olives, peaches, and plantations. The fir and palm trees are the most common. The towns are, Canary the capital, Gualdera, and Geria.

CANARINA, in botany, a genus of the order monogynia, belonging to the hexandria class of plants.

(1.) CANARIUM, in antiquity, [from *canis*, a dog,] a Roman sacrifice, wherein dogs of a red colour were sacrificed, for a security of the fruits of the earth against the raging heats of Sirius in the dog-days.

(2.) CANARIUM, in botany, a genus of the dioecia order, in the pentandria class of plants. Its characters are, that it hath male and female flowers; that, in both, the calyx has two leaves, and the corolla consists of 3 petals: the fruit is a drupa with a three-cornered nut. There is but one species.

(1.) * CANARY. *n. s.* [from the *Canary* islands.] 1. Wine brought from the Canaries; now called sack.—I will to my honest knight Falstaff, and drink *canary* with him——I think I shall drink in pipe wine first with him; I'll make him dance. *Shakespeare.* 2. An old dance.

(2.) CANARY, or CIVIDAD DE PALMAS, the capital of the island CANARIA, N° 1. It has an indifferent castle, a court of inquisition, and the supreme council of the rest of the Canary islands. It is a bishop's see, and has 4 convents, two for men and two for women. It is about 3 miles in compass, and contains 12,000 inhabitants. The houses are only one story high, and flat at the top; but they are well built. The cathedral is a handsome structure. Lon. 15. 20. W. Lat. 28. 4. N.

(3.) * CANARY BIRD. An excellent singing bird, formerly bred in the Canaries, and no where else, but now bred in several parts of Europe, particulary Germany.—Of singing birds, they have linnets, goldfinches, ruddocks, *canary birds*, blackbirds, thrushes, and divers other. *Carew.*

(4.) CANARY BIRDS. See FRINGILLA. These birds are much admired for their singing, and take their name from the islands, (N° 9.) from whence they originally came, but of late there is a species brought from Germany, and therefore called *German birds*, which are much better, though both are supposed to have originally come from the same place. The cocks never grow fat, and by some cannot be distinguished from common green birds; though the Canary birds are much lustier, have a longer tail, and differ much in heaving the passages of the throat when they sing. Canary birds are distinguished by different names at different times and ages: those that are new flown, and cannot feed themselves, are called *pushers*; those brought up by hand, *nestlings*; those of the 1st year, under the care of the old ones, *branchers*; those above two years old, *eriffs*; and those of 3 years, *runts*. Canary birds are various in their notes; some having a sweet song, others a low note, others a long song, which is best, as having the greatest variety of notes: but they sing chiefly either the titlark or nightingale notes. See SONG OF BIRDS.

(5.) CANARY BIRDS, DIRECTIONS FOR CHOOSING. These birds being much esteemed for their song, are sometimes sold at high prices, according to the excellency of their notes. To know whether a Canary bird is in good health, take him out of their store cage, and put him in a clean cage by himself; if he stand up boldly, without shrinking in his feathers, look with a brisk eye, and does not clap his head under his wing, it is a sign he is in good health; if he bolts his tail like a nightingale after he has dunged, it is a sign he is not in good health, or at least that he will soon be sick; but if his dung be very thin like water, or of a slimy white without any blackness, it is a sign of approaching death. When in perfect health, his dung lies round and hard, white on the outside, dark within, and dries quickly; though a seed bird seldom dungs so hard, unless he is very young.

(6.) CANARY BIRDS, MANAGEMENT OF. Canary birds are subject to many diseases, particularly imposthumes, which affect the head, cause them to fall suddenly from the perch, and die in a short time, if not speedily cured. The most approved medicine is an ointment made of fresh butter and capon's grease melted together. With this the top of the bird's head is to be anointed for 2 or 3 days, and it will dissolve the imposthume; but if the medicine has been too long delayed, then, after 3 or 4 times anointing, see whether the

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the place of his head be ſoft; and if ſo, open it gently, and let out the matter, which will be like the yolk of an egg; when this is done, anoint the place, and the bird will be cured. At the ſame time he muſt have figs with his other food, and in his water a ſlice or two of liquorice, with white ſugar-candy. The Canary birds may be bred with us; and, if treated with proper care, they will become as vigorous and healthful as if bred in their native country. The cages in which theſe birds are kept ſhould be made either of walnut tree or oak, with bars of wire; becauſe theſe, being ſtrong, do not require to be uſed in large pieces. The common ſhape of cages, which is cylindric, is very improper for theſe birds; for this allows little room to walk, and without that the birds uſually become melancholy. The moſt proper of all ſhapes is the high and long, but narrow. If theſe birds eat too much, they grow too fat, loſe their ſhape, and their ſinging is ſpoiled. In this caſe their victuals muſt be given them in a ſmaller quantity, and they will thus be gradually recovered to all their beauty, and will ſing as at firſt. When they are about to build their neſts, ſome hay muſt be put into their cages dried thoroughly in the ſun: with this muſt be mixed ſome moſs dried in the ſame manner, and ſome ſtag's hair. Great care is to be taken of breeding the young birds in the article of food. As ſoon as they are 8 days old, or ſomewhat more, and are able to eat and pick up food of themſelves, they ſhould be taken out of the cage, and each put ſeparately into another, and hung up in a room where it may never have an opportunity of hearing the voice of any other bird. After they have been kept thus about 8 days, they are to be excited to ſing by a bird pipe; but this muſt not be blown too ſhrill. For the firſt 15 days, the cages ſhould be covered with a black cloth, and for the 15 following with a green one. Five leſſons in a day from the pipe are ſufficient for theſe young creatures; and they muſt not be diſturbed with ſeveral ſounds at the ſame time, leſt they puzzle them. Two leſſons ſhould be given them early in the morning, one about the middle of the day, and two more at night. The genius and temper of the ſeveral birds of this kind are very different. The males are almoſt always melancholy, and will not ſing, unleſs excited by hearing others. They will often kill the female, and when there are ſeveral females together with the males, they will often kill each other from jealouſy. It is therefore proper to manage their breeding in this manner: let two female birds be put into one cage, and when they have lived together ſome time, they will have contracted a ſort of fondneſs for one another, which will not eaſily be diſſolved. Put a male bird into the cage with theſe two, and every thing will go well: their friendſhip will keep them from quarrelling about his favours, and from danger of his miſchievous diſpoſition; for if he attacks one of them, the other will immediately take her part; and after a few of theſe battles, the male will find that they are an overmatch for him at fighting, and will then diſtribute his favours to both, and there will ſoon be a young bird or two, which are to be taken away from their parents, and educated as before directed. Some males watch the time of the female's laying, and devour the eggs; others take the young ones in their beak as ſoon as hatched, and cruſh them to death againſt the ſides of the cage. When a male has been once guilty of this, he muſt be ſhut up in a ſmall cage, in the middle of the large one, in which the female is breeding her young, and thus he will comfort her with ſinging all day, while ſhe ſits upon the eggs or takes care of the young ones; and when the time of taking away, to put them into ſeparate cages, is come, the male is to be let out, and he will always after this live in friendſhip with the female. If the male become ſick during the time of the female's ſitting or bringing up her young, he muſt be removed immediately, and only brought to the ſide of her cage at certain times, that ſhe may ſee him, till he is perfectly cured; and then he is to be ſhut up again in his cage in the middle.

(7.) CANARY, GRAND. See CANARIA, N° 2.

(8.) CANARY GRASS. See PHALARIS.

(9.) CANARY ISLANDS are ſituated in the Atlantic ocean, over againſt the empire of Morocco in Africa. They were formerly called the *Fortunate Iſlands*, on account of the temperate healthy air, and excellent fruits. The land is very fruitful; both wheat and barley produce 130 for one. The cattle thrive well, and the woods are full of all ſorts of game. The birds are well known all over Europe. See N° 3, & 4. Sugar canes abound greatly, but the Spaniards firſt planted vines here, from whence we have the wine called *Canary*. Theſe iſlands were not unknown to the ancients; but they were long forgot, till John de Betencourt diſcovered them, in 1402. It is ſaid they were firſt inhabited by the Phœnicians, or Carthaginians, but the inhabitants could not tell from whence they were derived; on the contrary they did not know there was any other country in the world. Their language, manners, and cuſtoms, had no reſemblance to thoſe of their neighbours. However, they were like the people on the coaſt of Barbary in complexion. They had no iron. The Spaniards got poſſeſſion of all theſe iſlands, except Madeira, which belongs to the Portugueſe; and they ſtill retain them. The inhabitants are chiefly Spaniards; though there are ſome of the original natives remaining, whom they call GUANCHES. They are ſomewhat civilized by their intercourſe with the Spaniards; and are a hardy, active, bold people. They live on the mountains, and their chief food is goat's milk. Their complexion is tawny, and their noſes flat. The Spaniſh veſſels, when they ſail for the Weſt Indies, always rendezvous at theſe iſlands, going and coming. Their names are Allegranza, Canaria, Ferro, Fuertaventura, Gomera, Graciоſa, Infierno, Lancerotta, Lobos, Madeira, Palma, Rocca, St Clare, Salvages, and Teneriff. Lon. from 12° to 21° W. Lat. from 27° 30′ to 29° 30′ N.

(10) CANARY WEED. See ARCHIL.

* *To* CANARY. *v. a.* A cant word, which ſeems to ſignify to dance; to frolick.—Maſter, will you win your love with a French brawl?——How mean'ſt thou, brawling in French?——No, my compleat maſter; but to jigg off a tune at the tongue's end, *canary* to it with your feet, humour

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mour it with turning up your eyelids. *Shakespeare.*

(1.) CANCALLE, a town of France in the department of Morbihan, and ci-devant province of Upper Brittany. Here the Britiſh landed in 1758, in their way to St Maloes, where they burnt a greater number of ſhips in the harbour, and then retired without loſs. This town was in their power; but they acted like generous enemies, and did no hurt to it, nor any other on the coaſt. Lon. 1. 57. W. Lat. 47. 41. N.

(2.) CANCALLE BAY, a bay of France on the coaſt of Morbihan.

CANCAMUM, among ancient Greek phyſicians, a gum or reſin, ſuppoſed to be GUM LAC.

* *To* CANCEL. *v. a.* [*canceller*, Fr. from *cancellis notare*, to mark with croſs lines.] 1. To croſs a writing. 2. To efface; to obliterate in general.

Now welcome night, thou night ſo long expected,
That long day's labour doth at laſt defray,
And all my cares which cruel love collected,
Has ſumm'd in one, and *cancelled* for aye. *Spenſ.*

Know then, I here forget all former griefs,
Cancel all grudge; repeal thee home again.
Shakeſpeare.

Thou whom avenging pow'rs obey,
Cancel my debt, too great to pay,
Before the ſad accounting day. *Roſcommon.*

I paſs the bills, my lords,
For cancelling your debts. *Southerne.*

CANCELIER, in falconry, is when a light brown hawk, in her ſtooping, turns two or three times upon the wing, to recover herſelf before ſhe ſeizes.

CANCELLARIUS. See CHANCELLOR.

* CANCELLATED. *part. adj.* [from *cancel.*] Croſs-barred; marked with lines croſſing each other.—The tail of the caſtor is almoſt bald, though the beaſt is very hairy; and *cancellated* with ſome reſemblance to the ſcales of fiſhes. *Grew.*

* CANCELLATION. *n. ſ.* [from *cancel.*] According to Bartolus, is an expunging or wiping out of the contents of an inſtrument, by two lines drawn in the manner of a croſs. *Ayliffe.*

(1.) CANCELLI, in building, lattice windows, or thoſe made of croſs bars diſpoſed latticewiſe. It is alſo uſed for rails or balluſters incloſing the communion table, a court of juſtice, or the like; and for the network in the inſide of hollow bones.

(2.) CANCELLI, in military affairs, the ſame with barriers.

CANCELLING, in the civil law, an act whereby a perſon conſents that ſome former deed be rendered null and void; otherwiſe called *reſciſion.*

CANCELLUS, a ſynonime of the hermit crab. See CANCER, § IV. N° 4.

(I.) * CANCER. *n. ſ.* [*cancer*, Lat.] 1. A crab-fiſh. 2. The ſign of the ſummer ſolſtice.—

When now no more th' alternate Twins are fir'd,
And *Cancer* reddens with the ſolar blaze,
Short is the doubtful empire of the night. *Thomſ.*

3. A virulent ſwelling, or ſore, not to be cured. —Any of theſe three may degenerate into a ſchirrus, and that ſchirrus into a *cancer.* *Wiſeman.*—

As when a *cancer* on the body feeds,
And gradual death from limb to limb proceeds;
So does the chilneſs to each vital part,
Spread by degrees, and creeps into the heart.
Addiſon.

(II. 1.) CANCER, in aſtronomy, one of the 12 ſigns, repreſented on the globe in the form of a crab, and thus marked (♋) in books. It is the 4th conſtellation in the ſtarry zodiac. See ASTRONOMY, § 548. The reaſon generally aſſigned for its name as well as figure, is a ſuppoſed reſemblance which the ſun's motion in this ſign bears to the crab. As the latter walks backwards, ſo the former, in this part of his courſe, begins to go backwards, or recede from us. By others, the diſpoſition of ſtars in this ſign is ſuppoſed to have given the firſt hint to the repreſentation of a crab. It gives name to a quadrant of the ecliptic, viz.

(2.) CANCER, TROPIC OF, in aſtronomy, a leſſer circle of the ſphere parallel to the equator, and paſſing through the beginning of the ſign Cancer. See ASTRONOMY, *Index.*

(III.) CANCER, in medicine, a roundiſh, unequal, hard, and livid tumour, generally ſeated in the glandulous part of the body, ſuppoſed to be ſo called, becauſe it appears at length with turgid veins ſhooting out from it, ſo as to reſemble, as it is thought, the figure of a crab-fiſh; or, others ſay, becauſe, like that fiſh, where it has once got, it is ſcarce poſſible to drive it away. See MEDICINE, *Index.*

(IV.) CANCER, in zoology, a genus of inſects belonging to the order of inſecta aptera. The generic characters are theſe: they have 8 legs, (ſeldom ten or ſix,) beſides the two large claws which anſwer the purpoſe of hands. They have two eyes at a conſiderable diſtance from each other, and for the moſt part ſupported by a kind of pedunculi or footſtalks; the eyes are likewiſe elongated and moveable; they have two clawed palpi, and the tail is jointed. There are no leſs than 87 ſpecies of cancer, diſtinguiſhed principally by the length of their tails and the margins of their breaſts. The following are the moſt remarkable:

1. CANCER ASTACUS, or the craw-fiſh, with a projecting ſnout ſlightly ſerrated on the ſides; a ſmooth thorax; back ſmooth, with two ſmall ſpines on each ſide; claws large, beſet with ſmall tubercles; two firſt pair of legs clawed, the two next ſubulated; tail conſiſting of 5 joints; the caudal fins rounded. It inhabits many of the rivers in England, lodging in holes which they form in the clayey banks. Cardan ſays, that this ſpecies indicates the goodneſs of water; for in the beſt water they are boiled into the reddeſt colour.

2. CANCER ATOMOS, atom lobſter, with a ſlender body; filiform antennæ; three pair of legs near the head; behind which are two pair of oval veſiculæ; beyond are three pair of legs, and a ſlender tail between the laſt pair. It is very minute, and the help of the microſcope is often neceſſary for its inſpection.

3. CANCER CRANGON, the SHRIMP, with long ſlender feelers, and between them two projecting laminæ; claws with a ſingle, hooked, moveable fang; three pair of legs; 7 joints in the tail; the middle

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middle caudal fin ſubulated, the other 4 rounded and fringed, a ſpine on the exterior ſide of each of the outmoſt. It inhabits the ſhores of Britain in vaſt quantities, and is the moſt delicious of the genus.

4. CANCER DIOGENES, ſoldier crab, or hermit crab, with rough claws; the left claw is the longeſt (this being the only difference between the *diogenes* and *bernardus*); the legs are ſubulated, and ſerrated along the upper ridge; the tail naked and tender, and furniſhed with a hook by which it ſecures itſelf in its lodging. See *Plate* XLIX. This ſpecies is paraſitic; and inhabits the empty cavities of turbinated ſhells, changing its habitation according to its increaſe of growth from the ſmall *nerite* to the large *whelk*. Nature denies it the ſtrong covering behind, which it hath given to others of this claſs; and therefore directs it to take refuge in the deſerted caſes of other animals. They crawl very faſt with the ſhell on their back; and at the approach of danger draw themſelves within the ſhell, and, thruſting out the larger claw, will pinch very hard whatever moleſts them. Ariſtotle deſcribes it very exactly under the name of καρκινος. By the moderns it is called the *ſoldier*, from the idea of its dwelling in a tent; or the *hermit*, from retiring into a cell. When this animal wants to change its ſhell, it travels along that line of pebbles and ſhells which is formed by the extremeſt wave; ſtill, however, dragging its old incommodious habitation at its tail, unwilling to part with one ſhell, even though a troubleſome appendage, till it can find another more convenient. It is ſeen ſtopping at one ſhell, turning it, and paſſing it by; going on to another, contemplating that for a while, and then ſlipping its tail from its old habitation to try on the new: if this alſo is found to be inconvenient, it quickly returns to its old ſhell again. In this manner it frequently changes, till at laſt it finds one light, roomy, and commodious; to this it adheres, though the ſhell be ſometimes ſo large as to hide the body of the animal, claws and all. Yet it is not till after many trials, and many combats alſo, that the ſoldier is thus completely equipped; for there is often a conteſt between two of them for ſome well-looking favourite ſhell for which they are rivals. They both endeavour to take poſſeſſion; they ſtrike with their claws, they bite each other, till the weakeſt is obliged to yield by giving up the object of diſpute. It is then that the victor immediately takes poſſeſſion, and parades in his new conqueſt 3 or 4 times back and forward upon the ſtrand before his envious antagoniſt. When this animal is taken, it ſends forth a feeble cry, endeavouring to ſeize the enemy with its nippers; which if it faſtens upon it, will ſooner die than quit the graſp. The hermit crabs frequent moſtly thoſe parts of the ſea ſhores which are covered with ſhrubs and trees, producing various wild fruits on which they ſubſiſt; though they will alſo feed on the fragments of fiſh and other animal ſubſtances caſt on ſhore. When roaſted in the ſhell, they are eſteemed delicate. The hermit crab, hung in the air, diſſolves into a kind of oil, which ſpeedily cures the rheumatiſm, if rubbed upon the part.

5. CANCER ERYTHROPUS, or red-clawed crab, is of a ſmall ſize, and brown colour; it has two claws of unequal bigneſs, red at the ends; and 8 legs, which ſeem of leſs uſe to them than thoſe of other crabs; for when on the ground, they crawl with ſlow pace, dragging their bodies along; but they are moſtly ſeen graſping with their claws, and hanging to ſome ſea-plant, or other marine ſubſtance.

6. CANCER GAMMARUS, the common LOBSTER, with a ſmooth thorax, ſhort ſerrated ſnout; very long antennæ; and between them too ſhorter ones, bifid; claws and fangs large, the greater tuberculated; the leſſer ſerrated on the inner edge; four pair of legs; ſix joints in the tail; tail fins rounded. It inhabits all the rocky ſhores of our iſland, but chiefly where there is a depth of water. In Llyn in Caernarvonſhire a certain ſmall lobſter, nothing different except in ſize, burrows in the ſand. They are brought in vaſt quantities from the Orkney iſles, and many parts of the eaſtern coaſt of Scotland, to the London markets. From the neighbourhood of Montroſe alone, 60, or 70,000 are annually brought. The lobſter was well known to the ancients, and is well deſcribed by Ariſtotle under the name of καραβος. It is found as far as the Helleſpont; and is called at Conſtantinople *licuzda* and *licpuda*. Lobſters fear thunder, and are apt to caſt their claws on a great clap: It is ſaid that they will do the ſame on the firing of a great gun; and that, when men of war meet a lobſter boat, a jocular threat is uſed, that if the maſter does not ſell them good lobſters, they will *ſalute him*. This ſpecies inhabit the cleareſt water, at the foot of rocks that impend over the ſea; which has given opportunity of examining more cloſely into the natural hiſtory of the animal, than of many others who live in an element, that in a great meaſure, limits the inquiries of the moſt inquiſitive. Some lobſters are taken by hand; but the greater quantity in pots, a ſort of trap formed of twigs, and baited with garbage. They are formed like a wire mouſe trap, ſo that when the lobſter gets in, it cannot return. Theſe are faſtened to a cord ſunk in the ſea, and their place marked by a buoy. Lobſters begin to breed in ſpring, and continue breeding moſt part of the ſummer. They propagate *more humano*, and are extremely prolific. Dr Baſter ſays he counted 12,444 eggs under the tail, beſides thoſe that remained in the body unprotruded. They depoſite thoſe eggs in the ſand, where they are ſoon hatched. Lobſters change their ſhells annually. Previous to their putting off their old ones, they appear ſick, languid, and reſtleſs. They acquire an entire new coat in a few days; but during the time that they remain defenceleſs, they ſeek ſome very lonely place, for fear of being devoured by ſuch of their brethren as are not in the ſame ſituation. It is remarkable, that lobſters and crabs renew their claws, when accidentally torn off; and they grow again in a few weeks, though they never attain to the ſize of the firſt. They are very voracious animals, and feed on ſea-weeds, garbage, and all ſorts of dead bodies. The pincers of one of the lobſters large claws are furniſhed with knobs, and thoſe of the other are always ſerrated. With the former it keeps firm hold of the ſtalks of ſubmarine plants

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CANCER.

Hermit Crab.

Violet Crab.

Plated Lobster.

Horrid Crab.

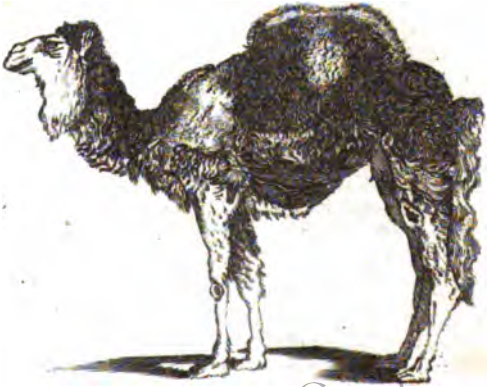
Canella Alba.

Cæsalpinia Brasiliensis,
or Brazilwood Tree.

African Camel,
or Dromedary.

CAMELUS.

Bactrian Camel.



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plants, and with the latter it cuts and minces its food very dexterously. The knobbed or *numb* claw, as the fishermen call it, is sometimes on the right and sometimes on the left side indifferently. It is more dangerous to be seized by them with the cutting claw than the other; but, in either case, the quickest way to get disengaged from the creature is to pull off its claw. The female or *hen* lobster does not cast her shell the same year that she deposites her ova, or, in the common phrase, is in *berry*. When the ova first appear under her tail, they are small, and extremely black; but they become in succession almost as large as ripe elder berries before they are deposited, and turn of a dark brown colour, especially towards the end of the time of her depositing them. They continue full, and deposite the ova in constant succession, as long as any of that black substance is in their bodies, which, when boiled, turns of a beautiful red colour, and is called their *coral*. Hen lobsters are found in berry at all times of the year, but chiefly in winter. It is a common mistake, that a berried hen is always in perfection for the table. When her berries appear large and brownish, she will always be found exhausted, watery, and poor. Though the ova be cast at all seasons, they seem only to come to life in July and August. Great numbers of them may then be found, in the form of tadpoles, swimming about the little pools left by the tides among the rocks, and many also under their proper form from half an inch to 4 inches in length. In casting their shells, it is hard to conceive how the lobster is able to draw the fish of their large claws out, leaving the shells entire and attached to the shell of their body, in which state they are constantly found. The fishermen say, the lobster pines before casting, till the fish of its large claw is no thicker than the quill of a goose, which enables it to draw its parts through the joints and narrow passage near the trunk. The new shell is quite membranaceous at first, but hardens by degrees. Lobsters only grow in size while their shells are in their soft state. They are chosen for the table, by their being heavy in proportion to their size; and by the hardness of their shells on their sides, which, when in perfection, will not yield to moderate pressure. Barnacles and other small fish adhering to them are reckoned certain signs of superior goodness. Cock lobsters are in general better than the hens in winter; they are distinguished by the narrowness of their tails, and by their having a strong spine upon the centre of each of the transverse processes beneath the tail, which support the 4 middle plates of their tail. The fish of a lobster's claw is more tender, delicate, and easy of digestion, than that of the tail. In summer, the lobsters are found near the shore, and thence to about 6 fathoms water: in winter, they are seldom taken in less than 12 or 15 fathoms. Like other insects, they are much more active and alert in warm weather than in cold. In the water, they can run nimbly upon their legs or small claws; and, if alarmed, can spring, tail foremost, to a surprising distance, as swift as a bird can fly. The fishermen can see them pass about 30 feet; and, by the swiftness of their motion, suppose they may go much farther. Athenæus remarks this circumstance, and says, that "the incurvated lobsters will spring with the activity of dolphins." Their eyes are raised upon moveable bases, which enables them to see readily every way. When frightened, they will spring from a considerable distance to their hold in the rock, and, what is not less surprising than true, will throw themselves into their hold in that manner through an entrance barely sufficient for their bodies to pass.

7. CANCER GRANULATUS, or rough-shelled crab: these crabs are pretty large, and are commonly taken from the bottom of the sea in shallow water; the legs are small in proportion to the body; the two claws are remarkably large and flat. The whole shell is covered over with innumerable little tubercles like shagreen: the colour is brown, variously stained with purple.

8. CANCER GRAPSUS, or the red mottled crab, has a round body, the legs longer and larger than in other kinds; the claws are red, and the rest of the animal is mottled in a beautiful manner with red and white. These crabs inhabit the rocks hanging over the sea; they are the nimblest of all crabs, and run with surprising agility along the upright side of a rock, and even under the rocks that hang horizontally below the water. This they are often necessitated to do for escaping the assaults of rapacious birds that pursue them. These crabs never go to land; but frequent mostly those parts of the promontories and islands of rocks in and near the sea, where, by the continual and violent agitation of the waves against the rocks, they are always wet, continually receiving the spray of the sea, which often washes them into it; but they instantly return to the rock again, not being able to live under water, and yet requiring more of that element than any of the crustaceous kind that are not fish.

9. CANCER HORRIDUS, the horrid crab, with a projecting bifurcated snout, the end diverging; body heart-shaped; with the claws and legs covered with long and very sharp spines.—It is a large species, and inhabits the rocks on the eastern coasts of Scotland. It is common to Norway and Scotland, as many of the marine animals and birds are. See *Plate* XLIX.

10. CANCER LOCUSTA, the locust lobster, with 4 antennæ; two pair of imperfect claws; the first joint ovated; the body consists of 14 joints. It abounds, in summer, on the shores, beneath stones and algæ, and leaps about with vast agility.

11. CANCER MÆNAS, the common CRAB, with 3 notches on the front; 5 serrated teeth on each side; claws ovated; next joint toothed; hind feet subulated; of a dirty green colour, but red when boiled. It inhabits all our shores; lurks under the algæ, or burrows under the sand; and is sold and eaten.

12. CANCER PAGURUS, or the black-clawed crab, with a crenated thorax; smooth body; quinquedentated front; smooth claws and black tips; hind feet subulated. It inhabits the rocky coasts; is very delicious meat, and casts its shell between Christmas and Easter. The tips of the claws of this species are used in medicine; to absorb acidities in the stomach and bowels.

13. CANCER PISUM, the pea crab, with round-

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ed and ſmooth thorax entire and blunt; with a tail of the ſize of the body, which commonly is the bulk of a pea. It inhabits the muſcle, and on that account has been deemed poiſonous; but the ſwelling after eating muſcles is wholly conſtitutional. Crabs of this kind the ancients believed to have been the conſentaneous inmates of the PINNÆ, which, being too ſtupid to perceive the approach of their prey, were warned of it by their vigilant friend.

14. CANCER PULEU, the flea lobſter, with 5 pair of legs, and two claws, imperfect; and 12 joints in the body. It is very common in fountains and rivulets; ſwims very ſwiftly in an incurvated poſture on its back; embraces and protects its young between the legs; does not leap.

15. CANCER RURICOLA, the land crab, or violet crab with a ſmooth entire thorax, and the two laſt joints of the feet armed with ſpines. It inhabits the Bahama iſlands, as well as moſt lands between the tropics; and feeds upon vegetables. Theſe animals live not only in a kind of orderly ſociety in the retreats in the mountains, but regularly once a year march down to the ſea-ſide in a body of ſome millions at a time. As they multiply in great numbers, they chooſe the month of April or May to begin their expedition; and then ſally out by thouſands from the ſtumps of hollow trees, from the cleſts of rocks, and from the holes which they dig for themſelves under the ſurface of the earth. At that time the whole ground is covered with this band of adventurers; there is no ſetting down one's foot without treading upon them. The ſea is their place of deſtination, and to that they direct their march with right-lined preciſion. No geometrician could ſend them to their deſtined ſtation by a ſhorter courſe; they neither turn to the right nor left, whatever obſtacles intervene; and even if they meet with a houſe, they will attempt to ſcale the walls to keep the unbroken tenor of their way. But though this be the general order of their route, they, upon other occaſions, are obliged to conform to the face of the country; and if it is interſected with rivers, they are then ſeen to wind along the courſe of the ſtream. The proceſſion ſets forward from the mountains with the regularity of an army under an experienced commander. They are commonly divided into three battalions; of which the firſt conſiſts of the ſtrongeſt and boldeſt males, who, like pioneers, march forward to clear the route and face the greateſt dangers. They are often obliged to halt for want of rain, and to go into the moſt convenient encampment till the weather changes. The main body of the army is compoſed of females, which never leave the mountains till the rain is ſet in for ſome time, and then deſcend in regular battalia, being formed into columns of 50 paces broad, and 3 miles deep, and ſo cloſe that they almoſt cover the ground. The rear guard follows, 3 or 4 days after; a ſtraggling undiſciplined tribe, conſiſting of males and females, but not ſo vigorous as the former. The night is their chief time of proceeding; but if it rains by day, they do not fail to profit by the occaſion; and they continue to move forward in their ſlow uniform manner. When the ſun ſhines and is hot upon the ſurface of the ground, they make an univerſal halt, and wait till the cool of the evening. When they are terrified, they march back in a confuſed diſorderly manner, holding up their nippers, with which they ſometimes tear off a piece of the ſkin, and then leave the weapon where they inflicted the wound. They even try to intimidate their enemies; for they often clatter their nippers together, as if to threaten thoſe that diſturb them. But though they thus ſtrive to be formidable to man, they are much more ſo to each other; for they are poſſeſſed of one moſt unſocial property, which is, that if any of them by accident is maimed in ſuch a manner as to be incapable of proceeding, the reſt fall upon and devour it on the ſpot, and then purſue their journey. When, after a fatiguing march, and eſcaping a thouſand dangers, (for they are ſometimes three months in getting to the ſhore,) they have arrived at their deſtined port, they prepare to caſt their ſpawn. The peas are as yet within their bodies, and not excluded, as is uſual in animals of this kind, under the tail; for the creature waits for the benefit of ſea water to help the delivery. It has no ſooner reached the ſhore, than it goes to the edge of the water, and lets the waves waſh over its body two or three times. This ſeems only a preparation for bringing the ſpawn to maturity; for, without farther delay, they withdraw to ſeek a lodging upon land: in the mean time the ſpawn grows larger, is excluded out of the body, and ſticks to the barbs under the flap, or more properly the tail. This bunch is ſeen as big as an hen's egg, and exactly reſembling the roes of herrings. In this ſtate of pregnancy they once more ſeek the ſhore for the laſt time; and ſhaking off their ſpawn into the water, leave accident to bring it to maturity. At this time whole ſhoals of hungry fiſh are at the ſhore in expectation of this annual ſupply; the ſea to a great diſtance ſeems black with them; and about two thirds of the crabs eggs are immediately devoured by theſe rapacious invaders. The eggs that eſcape are hatched under the ſand; and, ſoon after, millions at a time of theſe little crabs are ſeen quitting the ſhore, and ſlowly travelling up to the mountains. The old ones, however, are not ſo active to return; they have become ſo feeble and lean, that they can hardly creep along, and the fleſh at that time changes its colour. Moſt of them, therefore, are obliged to continue in the flat parts of the country till they recover, making holes in the earth, which they cover at the mouth with leaves and dirt, that no air may enter. There they throw off their old ſhells, which they leave quite whole; the place where they opened on the belly being unſeen. At that time they are quite naked, and almoſt without motion for ſix days together, when they become ſo fat as to be delicious food. They have then under their ſtomachs 4 large white ſtones, which gradually decreaſe in proportion as the ſhell hardens, and, when they come to perfection, are not to be found. It is at that time that the animal is ſeen ſlowly making its way back; which is commonly performed in ſix weeks. This animal, when poſſeſſed of its retreats in the mountains, is impregnable: for, only ſubſiſting upon vegetables, it ſeldom ventures out; and its habitation being in the moſt inacceſſible places,

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places, it remains for a great part of the ſeaſon in perfect ſecurity. It is only when impelled by the deſire of bringing forth its young, and when compelled to deſcend into the flat country, that it is taken. At that time the natives wait for its deſcent in eager expectation, and deſtroy thouſands; but, diſregarding their bodies, they only ſeek for that ſmall ſpawn which lies on each ſide of the ſtomach within the ſhell, of about the thickneſs of a man's thumb. They are much more valuable upon their return after they have caſt their ſhell; for, being covered with a ſkin reſembling ſoft parchment, almoſt every part except the ſtomach may be eaten. They are taken in the holes by feeling for them with an inſtrument; they are ſought after by night, when on their journey, by flambeaux. The inſtant the animal perceives itſelf attacked, it throws itſelf on its back, and with its claws pinches moſt terribly whatever it happens to faſten on. But the dexterous crab-catcher takes them by the hinder legs in ſuch a manner that the nippers cannot touch them, and thus he throws them into his bag. Sometimes alſo they are caught when they take refuge in the bottoms of holes in rocks by the ſea-ſide, by covering the mouth of the hole, to prevent their getting out; and then ſoon after, the tide coming, enters the hole, and the animal is found, upon its ebbing, drowned in its retreat. Theſe crabs are of various ſizes, the largeſt about 6 inches wide; they walk ſide-ways like the ſea crab, and are ſhaped like them: ſome are black, ſome yellow, ſome red, and others variegated with red, white, and yellow mixed. Some of theſe are poiſonous; and ſeveral people have died by eating them, particularly the black kind. The light coloured are reckoned beſt; and when full in fleſh, are very well taſted. In ſome of the ſugar iſlands they are eat without danger; and are no ſmall help to the negro ſlaves, who, on many of theſe iſlands, would fare very hard without them. See *Plate* XLIX.

16. CANCER SERRATUS, or the PRAWN, with a long ſerrated ſnout bending upwards; 3 pair of very long filiform feelers; claws ſmall, furniſhed with two fangs; ſmooth thorax; 5 joints to the tail; middle caudal fin ſubulated, two outmoſt flat and rounded. It is frequent in ſeveral ſhores among looſe ſtones; ſometimes found at ſea, and taken on the ſurface over 30 fathoms depth of water; cinereous when freſh; of a fine red when boiled.

17. CANCER SQUILLA, with a ſnout like a prawn, but deeper and thinner; the feelers longer in proportion to the bulk; the ſub-caudal fins rather larger; is, at full growth, not above half the bulk of the former.—It inhabits the coaſts of Kent; and is ſold in London under the name of the *white ſhrimp*, as it aſſumes that colour when boiled.

18. CANCER STRIGOSUS, or the plated lobſter, with a pyramidal ſpiny ſnout; thorax elegantly plated, each plate marked near its junction with ſhort ſtriæ; claws much longer than the body, thick, echinated, and tuberculated; the upper fang trifid; only 3 legs ſpiny on their ſides; tail broad. The largeſt of this ſpecies is about ſix inches long. It inhabits the coaſts of Angleſea, under ſtones and fuci. It is very active; and, if taken, flaps its tail againſt the body with much violence and noiſe. See *Plate* XLIX.

19. CANCER VELUTINUS, or velvet crab, with the thorax quinquedentated; body covered with ſhort, brown, velvet-like pile; claws covered with minute tubercles; ſmall ſpines round the top of the 2d joint; hind legs broadly ovated. This is among the ſpecies taken notice of by Ariſtotle on account of the broad feet, which, he ſays, aſſiſt them in ſwimming; as web-feet do the water-fowl. It inhabits the weſtern coaſt of Angleſea.

20. CANCER VOLANS, or ſand crab, is but of a ſmall ſize; its colour light brown, or duſky white. It has eight legs, and two claws, one of which is double the ſize of the other: theſe claws ſerve both to defend and feed them. The head has two ſquare holes, which are receptacles for its eyes; out of which it thruſts them, and draws them in again at pleaſure. Their abode is only on the ſandy ſhores of Ilathera, and others of the Bahama iſlands. They run very faſt, and retreat from danger into little holes they make in the ſand.

* *To* CANCERATE. *v. n.* [from *cancer*.] To grow cancerous; to become a cancer.—But ſtriking his fiſt upon the point of a nail in the wall, his hand *cancerated*, he fell into a fever, and ſoon after died on't. *L'Eſtrange.*

* CANCERATION. *n. ſ.* [from *cancerate*.] A growing cancerous.

* CANCEROUS. *adj.* [from *cancer*.] Having the virulence and qualities of a cancer.—How they are to be treated when they are ſtrumous, ſcirrhous, or *cancerous*, you may ſee in their proper places. *Wiſeman.*

* CANCEROUSNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *cancerous*.] The ſtate of being cancerous.

CANCHE, a river of France, which riſes in the department of the Straits of Calais, becomes navigable at Montreuil, and falls into the ſea below Staples.

CANCHERIZANTE, or } in the Italian muſic,
CANCHERIZATO, } a term ſignifying a piece of muſic that begins at the end, being the retrograde motion from the end of a ſong, &c. to the beginning.

CANCHRYS. See CACHRYS, N° II.

CANCRIFORM, *adj.* having the form of a crab.

* CANCRINE. *adj.* [from *cancer*.] Having the qualities of a crab.

CANCROMA, or BOAT-BILL, in ornithology, a genus of birds belonging to the order of *Grallæ*: the characters of which are: The bill is broad, with a keel along the middle; the noſtrils are ſmall, and lodged in a furrow; the tongue is ſmall; and the toes are divided. There are two ſpecies:

1. CANCROMA CANCROPHAGA, or the brown boat-bill, reſembles the COCHLEARIA (ſee N° 2.) ſo much in ſize, head, creſt, and every thing almoſt, except the colour, that Mr Latham conſiders them both as only varieties of the ſame ſpecies. Linnæus however ranks them as diſtinct. In this ſpecies the under parts, inſtead of aſh colour, are of a pale rufous brown; the tail rufous aſh; and the upper parts wholly of a cream colour; the bill and legs of a yellow brown. It inhabits Cayenne, Guiana, and Braſil, and chiefly frequents

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such parts as are near the water: in such places it perches on the trees which hang over the streams, and, like the king's-fisher, drops down on the fish which swim beneath. It has been thought to live on crabs likewise, whence the Linnæan name.

2. CANCROMA COCHLEARIA, the crested boat-bill, as well as the CANCROPHAGA, (N°1.) is of the size of a fowl; the length 22 inches. The bill is four inches long, and of singular form, not unlike a boat with the keel uppermost, or, as some think like the bowls of two spoons, placed with the hollow parts together; the upper mandible has a prominent ridge at the top, and on each side of this along channel, at the bottom of which the nostrils are placed; these are oval, and situated obliquely; the general colour of the bill is dusky, and in some dark brown: the skin between the under jaw capable of distension: from the hind head springs a long black crest, the feathers which compose it narrow, and end in a point; the middle ones are six inches in length, the others lessen by degrees, the outer ones being not more than one inch: between the bill and eye the skin is bare and dusky; the plumage on the forehead white; the rest of the bird of a pale bluish ash colour; across the lower part of the neck behind is a transverse band of brownish black, which passes forwards on each side towards the breast ending in a point, but does not encompass it: the fore part of the neck, and under parts, are bluish white, except the belly and thighs, which are rufous: the feathers which hang over the breast are loose, like those of the heron: the tail is 3½ inches long, and the wings, when closed, reach nearly to the end of it: the leg is 3 inches; and the thigh, from its insertion to the knee, 4; the middle toe 2½; the bare part above the knee, 1½: the colour of the bare parts yellowish brown; claws black: the toes are connected at the base by a membrane, which, as in the umbre, is deepest in the outer one. Its place and manners are the same with those of the CANCROPHAGA. See *Plate* LIV.

CANDACE, a queen of Ethiopia, who is said to have been converted to Christianity by her eunuch, whose conversion by Philip is recorded in Acts viii. 27.

(1.) CANDAHAR, a kingdom of Asia, between Persia and the river Indus, formerly a province of Persia; bounded on the N. by the province of Balk; on the E. by that of Cabul; on the S. by Buchor and Sableſtan; and on the W. by Sigestan. There have been bloody wars between the Indians and Persians on account of this province; but in 1650 it fell to the Persians. The inhabitants are known by the name of *Aghuans*, or AFGHANS, who have often endeavoured to thrown off the yoke. In 1737, they were severely punished for the attempt. See PERSIA. Candahar, however, is now governed by its own sovereign, Timur Shah Abdalla, whose dominions extend W. to near the city of Tersbish; including Cabul, Presbore, Ghizni, Gaur, Seistan, and Korasan: a tract not less than 650 miles in length. Its breadth is not known. On the E. side of the Indus he possesses the territory of Cashimere and several other districts above Attock.

(2.) CANDAHAR, the capital of the kingdom, N° 1.) is seated on a mountain; and being a place of great trade, has a considerable fortress. The caravans that travel from Persia and the parts about the Caspian sea to the E. Indies, pass through Candahar, because there is no danger of robbery, and provisions are very reasonable. The religion is Mahometanism, but there are many Banians and Guebres in it. It is 145 miles SW. of Cabul, and is the gate of India to Persia. Lon. 67. 15. E. Lat. 33. 0. N.

CANDAL-BISHOPS, CANDAL-MARSH, CANDAL-PURSE, CANDAL-STURTON, & CANDAL-WAKE, } The names of 5 English villages, in Dorsetshire, near the vale of White-Hart.

CANDAULES, the last king of Lydia, of the family of the Heraclidæ. See LYDIA.

CANDELA FUMALIS, the SMOKING CANDLE, is an odoriferous mass shaped like a candle, the use of which is to fumigate rooms where there is any contagion or noxious smell. The *candela fumalis*, or *candela pro suffitu odorata*, as it is also called, consists of aromatic powders, mixed up with a third or more of the charcoal of willow or lime tree, and reduced to a proper consistence with a mucilage of gum tragacanth, labdanum, or turpentine. It excites a grateful smell without any flame, and corrects the state of the air.

CANDELARES, [from *candela*, a candle,] an order in the first editions of Linnæus's Fragments of a natural method, consisting of these 3 genera, *rhizophora*, *nyssa*, and *mimusops*. They are removed, in the later editions, into the order HOLERACEÆ. See BOTANY, § 231, 291.

(1.) CANDELARIA, in botany, a name given by some authors to the great white mullein. See VERBASCUM.

(2.) CANDELARIA, in entomology, a species of insect, belonging to the genus of fulgora, and order of hemiptera in the Linnæan system. It is common in China.

* CANDENT. *adj.* [*candens*, Lat.] Hot; in the highest degree of heat, next to fusion.—If a wire be heated only at one end, according as that end is cooled upward or downward, it respectively acquires a verticity, as we have declared in wires totally *candent*. *Brown*.

CANDERROS, in the materia medica, an East Indian gum, not much known among us though sometimes imported. It has much the appearance of amber, only it is white and pellucid. Garcias and others tell us, that the people of Borneo, have the art of adulterating the crude camphor, with large quantities of this gum.

(1. 1.) CANDIA, the modern name of the island of Crete. See CRETE. The word is a variation of KHUNDA, which was originally the Arabian name of the metropolis only, but in time came to be applied to the whole island.

(2.) CANDIA, ANIMALS OF. The quadrupeds belonging to the island are not of a ferocious temper. There are no lions, tigers, bears, wolves, foxes, nor indeed any dangerous animal here. Wild goats are the only inhabitants of the forests that overspread the lofty mountains; and these have nothing to fear but the ball of the hunter; hares inhabit the hills and the plain; sheep graze in security on the thyme and the heath; they are folded every night, and the shepherd sleeps sound-

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ly without being disturbed with the fear that wild animals may invade and ravage his folds. The inhabitants are happy in not being exposed to the troublesome bite of noxious insects, the poison of serpents, and the rapacity of the wild beasts of the desart. The ancient Cretans believed that the island enjoyed these singular advantages, on account of its having been the birth-place of Jupiter. "The Cretans, says Ælian, celebrate in their songs the beneficence of Jupiter, and the favour which he conferred on their island, which was the place of his birth and education, by freeing it from every noxious animal, and even rendering it unfit for nourishing those that are introduced into it from foreign countries."

(3.) CANDIA, CLIMATE AND NATURAL ADVANTAGES OF. Of the climate of Candia travellers speak with rapture. The heat is never excessive; and in the plains violent cold is never felt. In the warmest days of summer, the atmosphere is cooled by breezes from the sea. Winter properly begins here with December and ends with January; and during that short period snow never falls on the lower grounds, and the surface of the water is rarely frozen over. Most frequently the weather is as fine then, as in Britain at the beginning of June. These two months have received the name of *winter*, because in them there is a copious fall of rain, the sky is obscured with clouds, and the north winds blow violently; but the rains are favourable to agriculture, the winds chase the clouds towards the summits of the mountains, where a repository is formed for those waters which are to fertilize the fields; and the inhabitants of the plain suffer no inconvenience from these tranfient blasts. In February, the ground is overspread with flowers and rising crops. The rest of the year is almost one continued fine day. The inhabitants of Crete never experience any of those mortifying returns of piercing cold, which are so frequently felt in Britain and even more southern countries; and which, succeeding suddenly after the cherishing heats of spring, nip the blossoming flowers, wither the open buds, destroy half the fruits of the year, and are fatal to delicate constitutions. The sky is always unclouded and serene; the winds are mild and refreshing breezes. The radiant sun proceeds in smiling majesty along the azure vault, and ripens the fruits on the lofty mountains, the rising hills, and the plains. The nights are no less beautiful; their coolness is delicious. The atmosphere not being overloaded with vapours, the sky unfolds to the observer's view a countless profusion of stars; sparkling with the most vivid rays. Nothing can be more magnificent than this sight, and the Cretans enjoy it for six months in the year. To the charms of the climate are added other advantages: There are scarce any morasses in the island; the waters never stagnate; they flow in numberless streams from the top of the mountains, and form large fountains or small rivers that empty themselves into the sea; the elevated situation of their springs causes them to dash down with such rapidity, that they never gather in pools or lakes; consequently insects cannot deposit their eggs upon them, as they would be immediately hurried down into the sea; and Candia is not infested like Egypt, with those clouds of insects, and whose sting is insufferably painful; nor is the atmosphere loaded with those noxious vapours which rise from marshy grounds. The mountains and hills are overspread with various kinds of thyme, savoury, wild thyme, and with a multitude of odoriferous and balsamic plants; the rivulets which flow down the vallies are overhung with myrtles and laurel roses; clumps of orange, citron and almond trees, are plentifully scattered over the fields; the gardens are adorned with tufts of Arabian jasmine. In spring, they are bestrewed with beds of violets, some extensive plains are arrayed in saffron; and the cavities of the rocks are fringed with sweet smelling dittany. In a word, from the hills, the vales, and the plains, on all hands, there arise clouds of exquisite perfumes, which embalm the air, and render it a luxury to breathe it.

(4.) CANDIA, DISEASES OF. Diseases are very rare in a country whose atmosphere is exceedingly pure; and in Candia, epedemical diseases are unknown. Fevers prevail here in summer, but are not dangerous; and the plague would be wholly unknown, had not the Turks destroyed the lazarets that were established by the Venetians, for strangers to perform quarantine in. Since these were demolished it is occasionally introduced by ships from Smyrna and Constantinople. As no precautions are taken against it, it gains ground, and spreads over the island from one province to another; and as the colds and heats are never intemperate, it sometimes continues its ravages for six months at a time. This fine country is infested with a disease less dangerous than the plague, but whose symptoms are more hideous, viz leprosy. In ancient times, Syria was the focus in which it raged with most fury; and from Syria it was carried into several of the islands of the Archipelago. It is infectious, and is instantaneously communicated by contact. The victims who are attacked by it are driven from society, and confined to little ruinous houses on the high way. They are strictly forbidden to leave these miserable dwellings, or hold intercourse with any person. Those poor wretches have generally beside their huts a small garden producing pulse, and feeding poultry; and with that support, and what they obtain from passengers, they find means to drag out a painful life in circumstances of shocking bodily distress. Their bloated skin is covered with a scaly crust, speckled with red and white spots; which afflict them with intolerable itchings. A hoarse and tremulous voice issues from the bottom of their breasts. Their words are scarce articulated; because their distemper inwardly preys upon the organs of speech. These frightful spectres gradually lose the use of their limbs. They continue to breathe till such time as the whole mass of their blood is corrupted, and their bodies are entirely in a state of putrefaction. The rich are not attacked by this distemper: it confines itself to the poor, chiefly to the Greeks. But those Greeks observe strictly their 4 lents; and eat nothing during that time but salt fish, botorgo, salted and smoked pickled olives

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olives and cheese. They drink plentifully of the hot and muddy wines of the island. The natural tendency of such a regimen must be, to fire the blood, to thicken the fluid part of it, and thus at length to bring on a leprosy.

(5.) CANDIA, GOVERNMENT OF. Candia is at present governed by 3 Pachas, who reside respectively at Candia, Canea, and Retimo. The first, who is always a Pacha of 3 tails, may be considered as viceroy of the island. He enjoys more extensive powers than the others. To him the inspection of the forts and arsenals is entrusted. He nominates to such military employments as fall vacant, as well as to the governments of the Sude, Grabusa, Spina Longua, and Girapetra. The governors of these forts are denominated Beys. Each of them has a constable and 3 general officers under him: one of whom is commander of the artillery; another of the cavalry; and the third of the janissaries. The council of the pacha consists of a kyaia, who is the channel through which all orders are issued, and all favours bestowed; an aga of the janissaries, colonel general of the troops, who has the chief care of the regulation of the police; two topigi bachi; a defterdar, who is treasurer general for the imperial revenues; a keeper of the imperial treasury; and the chief officers of the army. This government is entirely military, and the power of the pacha seraiquier is absolute. The justice of his sentences is never called into question; they are instantly carried into execution. The people of the law are the mufti, who is the religious head and the cadi. The first interprets those laws which regard the division of the patrimony among the children of a family, successions, and marriages; in a word, all that are contained in the Koran; and he also decides on every thing that relates to the ceremonies of the Mussulman religion. The cadi cannot pronounce sentence on affairs connected with these laws, without first taking the opinion of the mufti in writing, which is named *Fatifa*. It is his business to receive the declarations, complaints, and donations of private persons; and to decide on such differences as arise among them. The pacha is obliged to consult those judges, when he puts a Turk legally to death; but the pacha, who is dignified with 3 tails, sets himself above all laws, condemns to death, and sees his sentence executed, of his own authority. All the mosques have their *Itam*, a kind of curate, whose duty is to perform the service. There are schoolmasters in the different quarters of the city. These persons are much respected in Turky, and are honoured with the title of Effendi. The pachas of Canea and Retimo are no less absolute, within the bounds of their respective provinces, than the pacha of Candia. They enjoy the same privileges with him, and their council consists of the same officers. Their chief object is to get rich as speedily as possible; and to accomplish this, they practise all the arts and cruelties of oppression, to squeeze money from the Greeks. In truth, those poor wretches run to meet the chains with which they are loaded. Envy always preys upon them, and if some one among them, enjoys a decent fortune, the rest assiduously seek some pretence for accusing him before the pacha, who takes advantage of these dissentions, to seize the property of both the parties. It is by no means astonishing, that under so barbarous a government, the number of the Greeks is daily diminished. See § 9.

(6.) CANDIA, HISTORY OF THE SIEGE AND CAPTURE OF. Candia came into the possession of the Venetians by purchase, in the year 1194, and soon began to flourish under the laws of that republic. The inhabitants, encouraged by their masters, engaged in commerce and agriculture. The Venetian commandants readily afforded to those travellers who visited the island, every assistance necessary to enable them to extend and improve useful knowledge. Belon, the naturalist, is lavish in praise of their good offices, and describes, in an interesting manner, the flourishing state of that part of the island which he visited. The seat of government was established at Candia. The magistrates and officers, who composed the council, resided there. The provisor general was president. He possessed the chief authority; and his power extended over the whole principality. It continued in the possession of the Venetians for five centuries and an half. Cornaro held the chief command when it was threatened with a storm, on the side of Constantinople. The Turks, for a whole year, had been employed in preparing a vast armament. They deceived Cornaro, by assuring him that it was intended against Malta. In 1645, in the midst of a solemn peace, they appeared unexpectedly before Crete with a fleet of 400 sail, having on board 60,000 land forces, under the command of 4 pachas. The emperor Ibrahim, under whom this expedition was undertaken, had no fair pretext to offer in justification of its enterprize. He made use of all that perfidy which characterizes the people of the east, to impose on the Venetian senate. He loaded their ambassador with presents, directed his fleet to bear for Cape Matapan, as if they had been going beyond the Archipelago; and caused the governors of Tina and Cerigna to be solemnly assured, that the republic had nothing to fear for her possessions. At the very instant when he was making those assurances, his naval armament entered the gulf of Canea; and, passing between that city and St Theodore, anchored at the mouth of Platania. The Venetians, not expecting this sudden attack, had made no preparations to repel it. The Turks landed without opposition. The isle of St Theodore is but a league and a half from Canea, and is only three quarters of a league in compass. The Venetians had erected two forts there; one of which, standing on the summit of the highest eminence, on the coast of that little isle, was called Turluru; the other on a lower situation, was named St Theodore. It was an important object to the Mussulmans to make themselves masters of that rock, which might annoy their ships. They immediately attacked it with ardour. The first of those fortresses, being destitute of soldiers and cannon, was taken without striking a blow. The garrison of the other consisted of no more than 60 men. They made a gallant defence and stood out till the last extremity; and when the Turks at last prevailed, their number was diminished to ten, whom the captain acha

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pacha cruelly caused to be beheaded. Being now masters of that important post, as well as of Lazaret, an elevated rock, standing above half a league from Canea, the Turks invested the city by sea and land. General Cornaro was struck, as with a thunder-clap, when he learned the descent of the enemy. In the whole island there were no more than a body of 3500 infantry, and a small number of cavalry. The besieged city was defended only by 1000 regular troops, and a few citizens, who were able to bear arms. He made haste to give the republic notice of his distress; and posted himself off the road, that he might the more readily succour the besieged city. He threw a body of 250 men into the town, before the lines of the enemy were completed. He afterwards made several attempts to strengthen the besieged with other reinforcements; but in vain. The Turks had advanced in bodies close to the town, had carried a half-moon battery, which covered the gate of Retimo; and were battering the walls night and day with their numerous artillery. The besieged defended themselves with resolute valour, and the smallest advantage which the besiegers gained cost them dear. General Cornaro made an attempt to arm the Greeks, particularly the Spachiots, who boasted loudly of their valour. He formed a battalion of these. But the æra of their valour was long past. When they beheld the enemy, and heard the thunder of the cannon, they took to flight; not one of them would stand fire. While the senate of Venice were deliberating on the means to be used for relieving Canea, and endeavouring to equip a fleet, the Mahometan generals were sacrificing the lives of their soldiers to bring their enterprise to a glorious termination. In different engagements they had already lost 20,000 warriors; but, descending into the ditches, they had undermined the walls, and blown up the most impregnable forts with explosions of powder. They sprung one of those mines beneath the bastion of St Demetri. It overturned a considerable part of the wall, which crushed all the defenders of the bastion. That instant the besiegers sprung up with their sabres in their hands, and taking advantage of the general consternation of the besieged on that quarter, made themselves masters of the post. The besieged, recovering from their terror, attacked them with unequalled intrepidity. About 400 men assailed 2000 Turks already firmly posted on the wall, and pressed upon them with such obstinate and dauntless valour, that they killed a great number, and drove the rest down into the ditch. In this extremity, every person in the city was in arms. The Greek monks took up muskets; and the women, forgetting the delicacy of their sex, appeared on the walls among the defenders, either supplying the men with ammunition and arms, or fighting themselves; and several of those daring heroines lost their lives. For 50 days the city held out against all the forces of the Turks. If even at the end of that time, the Venetians had sent a naval armament to its relief, the kingdom of Candia might have been saved. Doubtless, they were not ignorant of this well known fact. The north wind blows straight into the harbour of Canea. When it blows a little briskly, the sea rages. It is then impossible for any squadron of ships, however numerous, to form in line of battle in the harbour, and to meet an enemy. If the Venetians had set out from Cerigo with a fair wind, they might have reached Canea in five hours, and might have entered the harbour with full sails, without being exposed to one cannon shot; while none of the Turkish ships would have dared to appear before them; or if they had ventured, must have been driven back on the shore, and dashed in pieces among the rocks. But, instead of thus taking advantage of the natural circumstances of the place, they sent a few galleys, which, not daring to double Cape Spada, coasted along the southern shore of the island, and failed of accomplishing the design of their expedition. At last, the Caneans, despairing of relief from Venice, seeing three breaches made in their walls, through which the infidels might easily advance upon them, exhausted with fatigue and covered with wounds, and reduced to the number of 500 men, who were obliged to scatter themselves round the walls, which were half a league in extent, and undermined in all quarters, demanded a parley, and offered to capitulate. They obtained very honourable conditions; and after a glorious defence of two months, which cost the Turks 20,000 men, marched out of the city with the honours of war. Those citizens, who did not chuse to continue in the city, were permitted to remove; and the Ottomans faithfully observed their stipulations. The Venetians, after the loss of Canea, retired to Retimo. The captain pacha laid siege to the citadel of the Sude, situated in the entrance of the bay, on a high rock, of about a quarter of a league in circumference. He raised earthen batteries, and made an ineffectual attempt to level its ramparts. At last, despairing of taking it by assault, he left some forces to block it up from all communication, and advanced towards Retimo. That city, being unwalled, was defended by a citadel, standing on an eminence which overlooks the harbour. General Cornaro had retired thither. At the approach of the enemy, he advanced from the city, and waited for them in the open field. During the action, he encouraged his soldiers, by fighting in the ranks. A glorious death was the reward of his valour; but his fall determined the fate of Retimo. The Turks having landed additional forces, they introduced the plague, which was almost a constant attendant on their armies. This dreadful pest destroyed most part of the inhabitants. The rest escaped into the Venetian territories, and the island was left almost desolate. The siege of the capital commenced in 1646, and was protracted much longer than that of Troy. For two years the Turks scarce gained any advantages before that city. They were often routed by the Venetians, and sometimes compelled to retire to Retimo. In 1649, Ussein Pacha, who blockaded Candia, receiving no supplies, owing to the revolutions at Constantinople by the deposition and death of Ibrahim, and accession of Mahomet IV. was compelled to raise the siege, and retreat to Canea. The Venetians were then on the sea with a strong squadron. They attacked the Turkish fleet in the bay of Smyrna, burnt 12 of their ships and

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and 2 gallies, and killed 6000 of their men. Some time after, the Mahometans having landed an army on Candia, renewed the ſiege of the city with greater vigour, and made themſelves maſters of an advanced fort that was very troubleſome to be beſieged; which obliged them to blow it up. From 1650 till 1658, the Venetians, continuing maſters of the ſea, intercepted the Turks every year in the ſtraits of the Dardanelles, and fought them in 4 naval engagements; in which they defeated their numerous fleets, ſunk a number of their caravels, took others, and extended the terror of their arms even to the walls of Conſtantinople. That capital became a ſcene of tumult and diſorder. The Grand Signior, alarmed, left the city with precipitation. Theſe great ſucceſſes revived the hopes of the Venetians, and depreſſed the courage of the Turks. They converted the ſiege of Candia into a blockade, and ſuffered conſiderable loſſes. The Sultan, to exclude the Venetian fleet from the Dardanelles, cauſed two fortreſſes to be built at the entrance of the ſtraits. He ordered the Pacha of Canea to appear again before the walls of Candia, and to make every poſſible effort to gain the city. In the mean time, the Venetians made ſeveral attempts on Canea. In 1660, the city was about to ſurrender, when the Pacha of Rhodes reinforced it with a body of 2000 men. He doubled the extremity of Cape Melec, within ſight of the Venetian fleet, which was becalmed off Cape Spada, and could not advance one fathom to oppoſe an enemy conſiderably weaker than themſelves. Kiopruli, knowing that the murmurs of the people againſt the long continuance of the ſiege of Candia was riſing to a height, and fearing a general revolt, ſet out from Conſtantinople about the end of 1666, at the head of a formidable army. Having eſcaped the Venetian fleet, which was lying off Canea, he landed at Palio Caſtro, and formed the lines around Candia. Under his command were 4 Pachas, and the flower of the Ottoman forces. Thoſe troops, being encouraged by their chiefs, and ſupported by a great quantity of artillery, performed prodigies of valour. All the exterior forts were deſtroyed. Nothing now remained to the beſieged but the bare line of the walls, unprotected by fortreſſes; and theſe being battered by an inceſſant diſcharge of artillery, ſoon gave way on all quarters. Still, however, (incredible as it may appear,) the Caneans held out 3 years againſt all the forces of the Ottoman empire. At laſt they were going to capitulate, when the hope of aſſiſtance from France reanimated their valour. The expected ſuccours arrived on the 26th of June 1669. They were conducted by the duke of Noailles. Next day the ardour of the French prompted them to make a general ſally. The duke of Beaufort, admiral of France, aſſumed the command. He was the firſt to advance againſt the Muſſulmans, and was followed by a numerous body of infantry and cavalry. They advanced furiouſly upon the enemy, forced the trenches, and would have compelled them to abandon their lines and artillery, had not an unforeſeen accident damped their courage. In the midſt of the engagement a powder magazine blew up; the D. of Beaufort and the foremoſt of the combatants loſt their lives; the French ranks were broken, and fled in diſorder; and the duke of Noailles, with difficulty, effected a retreat within the walls of Candia. The French accuſed the Italians of having betrayed them; and on that pretext prepared to ſet off ſooner than the time agreed upon. No intreaties of the commandant could prevail with them to delay their departure. This determined the fate of the city, which had only 500 men left to defend it. Morofini capitulated with Kiopruli, to whom he ſurrendered the kingdom of Crete, excepting only the Sude, Grabuſa, and Spina-Longua. The grand viſir made his entrance into Candia, Oct. 4th, 1670; and ſtayed 8 months in it, inſpecting the reparation of its walls and fortreſſes. The 3 fortreſſes left in the hands of the Venetians continued long in their poſſeſſion, but were all taken at laſt. In ſhort, after a war of 30 years continuance, in the courſe of which, more than 200,000 men fell, Candia was entirely ſubdued by the Turks, in whoſe hands it ſtill continues.

(7.) CANDIA, INHABITANTS OF. The Mahometan men are generally from 5½ to 6 feet. They bear a ſtrong reſemblance to ancient ſtatues; and it muſt have been after ſuch models that the ancient artiſts wrought. The women alſo are generally beautiful. Their dreſs does not reſtrain the growth of any part of their bodies, and their ſhape therefore aſſumes thoſe admirable proportions, with which the hand of the Creator has graced his faireſt workmanſhip on earth. They are not all charming, but ſome of them are beautiful, particularly the Turkiſh ladies. In general, the Cretan women have a riſing throat, a neck gracefully rounded, black eyes ſparkling with animation, a ſmall mouth, a fine noſe, and cheeks delicately coloured with the freſh vermilion of health. But the oval of their form is different from that of the Europeans, and the character of their beauty is peculiar to their own nation.

(8.) CANDIA, MILITARY FORCE OF. The garriſon of Candia conſiſts of 46 companies, compoſing a military force of about 10,000 men. All theſe forces do not reſide conſtantly in the city, but they can be muſtered in a very ſhort time. They are all regularly paid every 3 months, excepting the janiſſaries, none of whom but the officers receive pay. The different gradations of this military body do not depend on the pacha. The council of each company, conſiſting of veterans, and of officers in actual ſervice, has the power of naming them. A perſon can occupy the ſame poſt for no longer than two years; but the poſt of *Sorbagio*, or captain, which is purchaſed at Conſtantinople, is held for life. The *ouſta*, or cook, is alſo continued in his employment as long as the company to which he belongs is ſatisfied with him. Each company has an almoner, denominated *imam*. The garriſons of Canea and Retimo, formed on a ſimilar plan, are much leſs numerous. The firſt conſiſts of about 3000 men, the other of 500; but as all the male children of the Turks are enrolled among the janiſſaries as ſoon as born, the number of theſe troops might be greatly augmented in time of war. They are, however, far from formidable. Moſt of them have

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have never ſeen fire, nor are they ever exerciſed in military evolutions.

(9.) CANDIA, POPULATION OF. The total number of inhabitants in this iſland does not exceed 350,200. There are ſcarcely 150,000 Greeks in the iſland, of whom 65,000 pay the carach. The Turks have not poſſeſſed the iſland for more than 120 years; yet, as they are not expoſed to the ſame oppreſſion, they have multiplied in it, and raiſed themſelves upon the ruin of the ancient inhabitants. Their number amounts to 200,000. The Jews amount only to 200. This fertile country is in want of nothing but induſtrious huſbandmen, ſecure of enjoying the fruit of their labours. It might maintain four times its preſent number of inhabitants. Antiquity has celebrated the iſland of Crete as containing 100 populous cities; and geographers have preſerved their names and ſituations. Many of theſe cities contained no fewer than 30,000 inhabitants. By reckoning them, on an average, at 6,000 each, we ſhall in all probability be rather within than beyond the truth, This calculation gives for 100 cities 600,000
Allowing as many in the reſt of the iſland, 600,000

the whole number of the inhabitants of ancient Crete will amount to 1,200,000
This number cannot be exaggerated. When Candia was in the hands of the Venetians, it was reckoned to contain 996 villages. It appears therefore, that when this iſland enjoyed the bleſſings of liberty, it maintained to the number of 849,800 more inhabitants than it does at preſent. But ſince thoſe happy times, ſhe has been deprived of her laws by the tyranny of the Romans; has groaned under the deſtructive ſway of the monarchs of the lower empire; has been expoſed for a period of 120 years to the ravages of the Arabians; has next paſſed under the dominion of the Venetians; and has at laſt been ſubjected to the deſpotiſm of the Turks, who have produced a dreadful depopulation in all the countries which have been ſubdued by their arms.

(10.) CANDIA, RIVERS, MOUNTAINS, AND PRODUCE OF. This iſland is watered by many fine rivers, anciently known by the names of *Ceraius*, *Loaxus*, *Therenus*, *Triton*, &c. which in ſpite of Turkiſh indolence, render it very productive. Weſt of the city, (N° II.) there is an extenſive range of hills, which are a continuation of mount Ida, and of which the extremity forms the promontory of Dion. For more than half a league round the walls of Candia there is not a ſingle tree to be ſeen. The Turks cut them all down in the time of the ſiege, and laid waſte the gardens and orchards. Beyond that extent, the country is plentifully covered with corn and fruit trees. The neighbouring hills are overſpread with vineyards which produce the *malmſey* of mount Ida, worthy of preference at the table of the moſt exquiſite connoiſſeur in wines. This ſpecies of wine has a fine flavour, a very pleaſant reliſh, and is highly eſteemed in the iſland. Candia produces alſo oil, ſilk, and excellent honey.

(11.) CANDIA, STATE OF THE GREEK HIERARCHY IN. The Turks allow the Greeks the free exerciſe of their religion, but forbid them to repair their churches or monaſteries; and accordingly they cannot obtain permiſſion to repair their places of worſhip, or religious houſes, but by the powerful influence of gold. From this article the pachas derive very conſiderable ſums. They have 12 biſhops as formerly, the firſt of whom has the title of Abp. of Gortynia. He reſides at Candia; in which city the metropolitan church ſtands. He is appointed by the patriarch of Conſtantinople; and has the right of nominating to all the other biſhoprics of the iſland; the names of which are, Gortynia, Cnoſſou, Mirabella, Hyera, Gira-petra, Arcadia, Cherroneſe, Lambis-Milopotamo, Retimo, Canea, Ciſamo. Theſe biſhoprics are nearly the ſame as under the reign of the Greek emperors. The patriarch wears a triple tiara, writes a ſignature in red ink, and anſwers for all the debts of the clergy. To enable him to fulfil his engagements, he lays impoſitions on the reſt of the biſhops, and paticularly on the monaſteries, from which he draws very handſome contributions. He is conſidered as the head of the Greeks, whom he protects, as far as his ſlender credit goes. The orders of government are directed to him on important occaſions; and he is the only one of all the Greeks in the iſland who enjoys the privilege of entering the city on horſeback.

(II.) CANDIA, the capital of the iſland (N° I.) is ſituated on its northern coaſt, on the ſite of the ancient Heraclea, and is the ſeat of government under the Turks. Its walls, which are more than a league in compaſs, are in good repair, and defended by deep ditches, but not protected by any exterior fort. Towards the ſea, it has no attacks to fear; becauſe the ſhallowneſs of the harbour renders it inacceſſible to ſhips of war. The Pacha of 3 tails with the principal officers, and ſeveral bodies of the Ottoman ſoldiery, are ſtationed here. This city, when under the Venetians, was opulent, commercial, and populous; but is has now loſt much of its former ſtrength and grandeur. The harbour, naturally a fine baſon, in which ſhips are ſecurely ſheltered from every ſtorm, is every day becoming narrower and ſhallower. At preſent it admits only boats, and ſmall ſhips after they have diſcharged a part of their freight. Thoſe veſſels, which the Turks freight at Candia, are obliged to go almoſt empty to the ports of Standie, whether their cargoes are conveyed to them in barks. Candia, which was embelliſhed by the Venetians with regular ſtreets, handſome houſes, a fine ſquare, and a magnificent ciſtern, contains at preſent but a ſmall number of inhabitants, notwithſtanding the vaſt extent of the area incloſed within its walls. Several diviſions of the city are void of inhabitants. That in which the market place ſtands is the only one which diſcovers any ſtir of buſineſs, or ſhow of affluence. The Mahometans have converted moſt of the Chriſtian temples into moſques; yet they have left two churches to the Greeks; one to the Armenians, and a ſynagogue to the Jews. The Capuchins poſſeſs a ſmall convent, with a chapel in which the vice-conſul of France hears maſs. At preſent he is the only Frenchman who attends it, as the French merchants have taken up their reſidence at Canea. Candia lies 500 miles from Conſtantinople. Lon. 25, 23. E. Lat. 35. 16. N.

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(1.) CANDIAC, a town of France in the department of Gard, and ci-devant province of Languedoc.

(2.) CANDIAC, John Lewis, a premature genius, born at Candiac, (N° 1.) in 1719. In the cradle he diſtinguiſhed his letters: at 13 months, he knew them perfectly: at 3 years of age he read Latin, either printed or in MS.: at 4 he tranſlated from that tongue: at 6, he read Greek and Hebrew; was maſter of the principles of arithmetic, hiſtory, geography, heraldry, and the ſcience of medals; and had read the beſt authors on almoſt every branch of literature. He died of a complication of diſorders, at Paris, in 1626.

* CANDICANT. *adj.* [*candicans*, Lat.] Growing white; whitiſh. *Dict.*

* CANDID. *adj.* [*candidus*, Lat.] 1. White. This ſenſe is very rare.—

The box receives all black: but, pour'd from thence,
The ſtones came *candid* forth, the hue of innocence. *Dryden.*

2. Free from malice; not deſirous to find faults; fair; open; ingenuous.—The import of the diſcourſe will, for the moſt part, if there be no deſigned fallacy, ſufficiently lead *candid* and intelligent readers into the true meaning of it. *Locke.*—

A *candid* judge will read each piece of wit,
With the ſame ſpirit that its author writ. *Pope.*

(1.) * CANDIDATE. *n. ſ.* [*candidatus*, Lat.] 1. A competitor; one that ſolicits, or purpoſes himſelf for ſomething of advancement.—

So many *candidates* there ſtand for wit,
A place at court is ſcarce ſo hard to get.
Anonymous.

—One would be ſurpriſed to ſee ſo many *candidates* for glory. *Addiſon.* 2. It has generally *for* before the thing ſought.—

What could thus high thy raſh ambition raiſe?
Art thou, fond youth, a *candidate for* praiſe? *Pope.*

3. Sometimes *of*.—

Thy firſt-fruits of poeſy were giv'n,
To make thyſelf a welcome inmate there,
While yet a young probationer,
And *candidate of* heav'n. *Dryden.*

(2.) CANDIDATE is derived, by Mr Chambers, from *candidus*, white, becauſe in the Roman commonwealth, candidates were obliged to wear a white gown during the time of their ſoliciting a place. This garment, according to Plutarch, they wore without any other clothes, that the people might not ſuſpect they concealed money for purchaſing votes, and alſo that they might more eaſily ſhow to the people the ſcars of thoſe wounds they had received in fighting for the defence of the commonwealth. The candidates uſually declared their pretenſions a year before the time of election, which they ſpent in making intereſt and gaining friends. Various arts of popularity were practiſed for this purpoſe, and frequent circuits made round the city, and viſits and compliments to all ſorts of perſons, the proceſs of which was called *ambitus*. See AMBITUS.

(1.) CANDIDATI MILITES, an order of ſoldiers, among the Romans, who ſerved as the emperor's body guards to defend him in battle. They were the talleſt and ſtrongeſt of the whole troops, and moſt proper to inſpire terror. They were called *candidati*, becauſe cloathed in white, either that they might be more conſpicuous, or becauſe they were conſidered in the way of preferment.

(2.) CANDIDATI PRINCIPIS, perſons recommended to any office by the emperors

* CANDIDLY. *adv.* [from *candid*.] Fairly; without trick; without malice; ingenuouſly.—We have often deſired, they would deal *candidly* with us; for if the matter ſtuck only there, we would propoſe, that every man ſhould ſwear, that he is a member of the church of Ireland. *Swift.*

* CANDIDNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *candid*.] Ingenuity; openneſs of temper; purity of mind.—It preſently ſees the guilt of a ſinful action; and, on the other ſide, obſerves the *candidneſs* of a man's very principles, and the ſincerity of his intentions. *South.*

* *To* CANDIFY. *v. a.* [*candifico*, Lat.] To make white; to whiten. *Dict.*

CANDIOT, *adj.* belonging to Candia.

CANDISATION, *n. ſ.* the candying of ſugar.

CANDISH, a conſiderable province of Aſia, in the dominions of the Great Mogul, bounded by Chytor and Malva on the N. Orixa on the E. Decan on the S. and Guzarat on the W. It is populous and rich; and abounds in cotton, rice, and Indigo. Brampore is the capital town. It is ſubject to the Poonal Mahrattas.

CANDITEERS, in fortification, frames to lay bruſhwood on, to cover the workmen.

(1.) * CANDLE. *n. ſ.* [*candela*, Lat.] 1. A light made of wax or tallow, ſurrounding a wick of flax or cotton.—

Here burns my *candle* out, ay, here it dies,
Which, while it laſted, gave king Henry light.
Shakeſpeare.

—We ſee that wax *candles* laſt longer than tallow *candles*, becauſe wax is more firm and hard. *Bacon's Nat. Hiſtory.*—Take a child and, ſetting a *candle* before him, you ſhall find his pupil to contract very much to exclude the light, with the brightneſs whereof it would otherwiſe be dazzled. *Ray.* 2. Light or luminary.—

By theſe bleſſed *candles* of the night,
Had you been there, I think you would have begg'd
The ring of me to give the worthy doctor.
Shakeſpeare.

(2.) CANDLE. A tallow candle to be good, muſt be half ſheep's and half bullock's tallow. Hog's tallow makes the candle gutter, and always gives an offenſive ſmell, with a thick black ſmoke. The wick ought to be pure, ſufficiently dry, and properly twiſted; otherwiſe the candle will emit an inconſtant vibratory flame, which is both prejudicial to the eyes and inſufficient for the diſtinct illumination of objects. There are two ſorts of tallow candles; the one dipped, the other moulded: (See § 8.) the former are the common candles; the others the invention of the ſieur le Brege at Paris. Candles are alſo made of ſpermaceti.

(3.) CANDLE, in medicine. See CANDELA.

(4.) CANDLE, MEDICATED. See BOUGIE.

(5.) CANDLE, SALE, or AUCTION BY INCH OF, is when a ſmall piece of candle, being lighted, the byſtanders are allowed to bid for the merchandize

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dize that is selling; but the moment the candle is out, the commodity is adjudged to the last bidder. This mode of sale seems to have been borrowed from the church of Rome, where there is an excommunication by inch of candle, when the sinner is allowed to come to repentance while a candle continues burning; but after it is consumed he remains finally excommunicated.

(6.) CANDLES, ANCIENT. The Roman candles were at first little strings dipt in pitch, or surrounded with wax; though afterwards they made them of papyrus, covered likewise with wax; and sometimes also of rushes, by stripping off the outer rind, and only retaining the pith.—For religious offices, wax candles were used; for common uses, those of tallow.

(7.) CANDLES, METHOD OF LIGHTING, BY ELECTRIC SPARKS. This method, invented by Dr Ingenhousz, is recorded in the *Phil. Trans.* vol. xviii. It is done by a small phial, having 8 or 10 inches of metallic coating, or even less, charged with electricity, which may be done at any time of the night by a person who has an electrical machine in his room. "When I have occasion to light a candle, (says he,) I charge a small coated phial, whose knob is bent outwards, so as to hang a little over the body of the phial; then I wrap some loose cotton over the extremity of a long brass pin or a wire, so as to stick moderately fast to its substance. I next roll this extremity of the pin wrapped up with cotton in some fine powder of resin, which I always keep in readiness upon the table for this purpose, either in a wide-mouthed phial or in a loose paper; this being done, I apply the extremity of the pin or wire to the external coating of the charged phial, and bring as quickly as possible the other extremity wrapped round with cotton to the knob: the powder of resin takes fire, and communicates its flame to the cotton, and both together burn long enough to light a candle. As I do not want more than half a minute to light my candle in this way, I find it a readier method than kindling it by a flint and steel, or calling a servant. I have found that powder of white or yellow resin lights easier than that of brown. The *farina lycopodii* may be used for the same purpose, but it is not so good as the powder of resin, because it does not take fire quite so readily, requiring a stronger spark not to miss; besides, it is soon burnt away. By dipping the cotton in oil of turpentine, the same effect may be as readily obtained, if you take a jar somewhat greater in size. This oil will inflame so much the readier if you strew a few fine particles of brass upon it. The pin dust is the best for this purpose; but as this oil is scattered about by the explosion, and when kindled fills the room with much more smoke than the powder of resin, I prefer the last."

(8.) CANDLES, METHOD OF MAKING. After the tallow has been weighed, and mixed in the due proportions, it is cut into very small pieces, that it may melt the sooner; for the tallow in lumps, as it comes from the butchers, would be in danger of burning or turning black, if it were left too long over the fire. Being perfectly melted and skimmed, they pour a certain quantity of water, into it proportionable to the quantity of tallow. This serves to precipitate to the bottom of the vessel the impurities of the tallow which may have escaped the skimmer. No water, however, must be thrown into the tallow designed for the three first dips; because the wick being still quite dry, would imbibe the water, which makes the candles crackle in burning. The tallow, thus melted, is poured into a tub, through a coarse sieve of horse hair, to purify it still more, and may be used after having stood 3 hours. It will continue fit for use 24 hours in summer and 15 in winter. The wicks are made of spun cotton, which the tallow chandlers buy in skains, and which they wind up into bottoms or clues; whence they are cut out, with an instrument contrived on purpose, into pieces of the length required; then put on the sticks of broaches, or else placed in the moulds, as the candles are intended to be either dipped or moulded.

(9.) CANDLES, PROPORTIONAL VALUE OF DIFFERENT KINDS OF. Lord Bacon proposes candles of divers compositions and ingredients, and of different sorts of wicks; with experiments of the degrees of duration, and light of each. Some good housewives bury their candles in flour or bran, which it is said lengthens their duration nearly one half. It is observed in optics, that the flames of two candles joined, give a much stronger light than both of them separate. The remark was first made by Dr Franklin. Probably the union of the two flames produces a greater degree of heat, whereby the vapour is attenuated, and the particles of which light consists more copiously emitted. Experiments have been made to determine the real and comparative expence of burning candles of different sorts and sizes. The following table exhibits the result of these. The time that one candle lasted was calculated from an average of several different trials in each size. The last column though stated at 6d per dozen will also show the proportion of expence at any price.

TABLE *exhibiting the* REAL *and* COMPARATIVE EXPENCE, *in farthings and* 100th *parts; of* CANDLES *of different sorts and sizes.*

	N° of candles in one pound.	Weight of one candle.	Time one candle lasted.	Time that one lb. will last.	Expence in 12 hours, at 6d per doz.
		oz. dr.	h. min.	h. min.	
Sm. wick	18⅓	0 14	3 15	59 26	4·85
Lar. wick	19	0 13½	2 40	56 34	5·70
	16½	0 15½	2 40	44 2	6·54
	12	1 ⅓	3 27	41 24	6·96
	10¼	1 8	3 36	38 24	7·56
	7¼	2 1	4 9	32 12	8·94
	8	2 0	4 15	34 0	8·47
	5½	2 13	5 19	30 15	9·55
Moulded Candles.					
					at 7d per doz
		oz. dr.	h. min.	h. min.	
	5½	2 12	7 20	42 39	7·87
	4	4 0	9 3	36 20	9·28

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(10.) CANDLES, RUSH, uſed in different parts of England, are made of the pith of a ſort of ruſhes, peeled or ſtripped of the ſkin, except on one ſide, and dipped in melted tallow.

(11.) CANDLES, STATUTES RESPECTING THE MAKING OF. If any chandlers mix with their wares any thing deceitfully, &c. the candles ſhall be forfeited. Stat. 23 Eliz. and a tax or duty is granted on candles, by 8 & 9 Anne, cap. 6. made for ſale, of one penny a pound, beſides the duty upon tallow, by 8 Anne, cap. 9. And by 24 Geo. III. cap. 11. an additional duty of an half-penny a pound: and by the ſame an additional duty of an halfpenny a pound is laid upon all candles imported, (except thoſe of wax and ſpermaceti, for which ſee WAX CANDLES,) ſubject alſo to the two additional 5 per cents. impoſed by 19 and 22 Geo. III. beſides the duty of 2¼d. formerly impoſed by 2 W. ſeſſ. 2. cap. 4. 8 Anne, cap. 9. and 9 Anne, cap. 6. And every maker of candles, other than wax candles for ſale, ſhall annually take out a licence at 1 l. The maker of candles, ſhall, in 4 weeks within the bills, and elſewhere in 6 weeks, after entry, clear off the duties on pain of double duty: nor ſell any after default in payment on pain of double value; 8 Anne, cap. 9. The makers of candles are not to uſe melting houſes, without making a true entry, on pain of 100 l. and to give notice of making candles to the excife officer for the duties; and of the number, &c. or ſhall forfeit 50 l. Stat. 12 Geo. I. cap. 30. See alſo 23 Geo. II. cap. 21. and 26 Geo. II. cap. 32. No maker of candles for ſale ſhall begin to make candles, without notice firſt given to the officer, unleſs from September 29th to March 25th yearly, between ſeven in the morning and five in the evening, and from March 25th to September 29th, between five in the morning and ſeven in the evening, on pain of 10 l. 10 Anne, cap. 26. The penalty of obſtructing the officer is 20 l. and of removing candles before they are ſurveyed 20 l. 8 Anne, cap. 9. The penalty of privately making candles is the forfeiture of the ſame and utenſils, and 100 l. 5 Geo. III. cap. 43. And the penalty of mingling weighed with unweighed candles, of removing them before they are weighed, or of concealing them, is the forfeiture of 100 l. 11 Geo. cap. 30. Candles, for which the duty hath been paid, may be exported, and the duty drawn back; but no draw-back ſhall be allowed on the exportation of any foreign candles imported. 8 Anne, cap. 9. 22 Geo. II. cape. 21.

(12.) CANDLES, WAX. See WAX CANDLES.

(1.) * CANDLEBERRY TREE. See SWEET-WILLOW; of which it is a ſpecies.

(2.) CANDLEBERRY TREE. See MYRICA.

CANDLE BOMBS, a name given to ſmall glaſs bubbles, having a neck about an inch long, with a very ſlender bore, by means of which a ſmall quantity of water is introduced into them, and the orfice afterwards cloſed up. The ſtalk being put through the wick of a burning candle, the vicinity of the flame ſoon rarifies the water into a ſteam, by the elaſticity of which the glaſs is burſt with a loud crack.

* CANDLEHOLDER. *n. ſ.* [from *candle* and *hold.*] 1. He that holds the candle. 2. He that remotely aſſiſts.—

Let wantons, light of heart,
Tickle the ſenſeleſs ruſhes with their heels;
For I am proverb'd with a grandſire phraſe,
To be a *candleholder*, and look on. *Shakeſp.*

* CANDLELIGHT. *n. ſ.* [from *candle* and *light.*] 1. The light of a candle.—In darkneſs *candlelight* may ſerve to guide men's, ſteps, which, to uſe in the day, were madneſs. *Hooker.*—

Before the day was done, her work ſhe ſped,
And never went by *candlelight* to bed.
Dryden's Fables.

The boding owl
Steals from her private cell by night,
And flies about by *candlelight*. *Swift.*

—Such as are adapted to meals, will indifferently ſerve for dinners or ſuppers, only diſtinguiſhing between daylight and *candlelight*. *Swift.* 2. The neceſſary candles for uſe.—I ſhall find him coals and *candlelight*. *Molineux to Locke.*

CANDLE-MAKER, one who makes candles.

CANDLE-MAKING, the art of making candles. See CANDLES, § 8.

(1.) * CANDLEMAS. *n. ſ.* [from *candle* and *maſs.*] The feaſt of the Purification of the Bleſſed Virgin, which was formerly celebrated with many lights in churches.—The harveſt dinners are held by every wealthy man, or, as we term it, by every good liver, between Michaelmas and *Candlemas*. *Carew's Survey of Cornwall.*—There is a general tradition in moſt parts of Europe, that inferreth the coldneſs of the ſucceeding winter, upon ſhining of the ſun upon *Candlemas* day. *Brown's Vulg. Err.*

Come *Candlemas* nine years ago ſhe dy'd,
And now lies bury'd by the yew-tree ſide. *Gay.*

(2.) CANDLEMAS is held on the 2d of February. The ancient Chriſtians on that day uſed lights in their churches and proceſſions, in memory, it is ſaid, of our Saviour's being on that day declared by Simon "to be a light to lighten the Gentiles." In imitation of this cuſtom, the Roman catholics on this day conſecrate all the tapers and candles which they uſe in their churches during the whole year. At Rome, the Pope performs that ceremony himſelf; and diſtributes wax-candles to the cardinals and others, who carry them in proceſſion through the great hall of the Pope's palace. This ceremony was prohibited in England by an order of council in 1548.

(3.) CANDLEMAS is one of the 4 terms of the year for paying and receiving rents or borrowed money, &c. In the courts of law, Candlemas term begins 15th January, and ends 3d February.

CANDLESBY, } two villages in Lincolnſh.
CANDLESHOW, } NE. of Spilſby.

(1.) * CANDLESTICK. *n. ſ.* [from *candle* and *ſtick.*] The inſtrument that holds candles.—

The horſemen ſit like fixed *candleſticks*,
With torch-ſtaves in their hand; and their poor jades
Lob down their heads. *Shakeſpeare.*

—Theſe countries were once Chriſtian, and members of the church, and where the golden *candleſticks* did ſtand. *Bacon.*—I know a friend, who has converted the eſſays of a man of quality, into a kind of *fringe* for his *candleſticks*. *Addiſon.*

(2.) CAN-

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(2.) CANDLESTICK, GOLDEN, was one of the ſacred utenſils made by Moſes to be placed in the Jewiſh tabernacle. It was made of hammered gold, a talent in weight. It conſiſted of 7 branches ſupported by a baſe or foot. Theſe branches were adorned at equal diſtances with ſix flowers like lilies, and with as many bowls and knobs placed alternately. Upon the ſtock and 6 branches of the candleſtick were the golden lamps, which were immoveable, wherein were put oil and cotton. Theſe 7 lamps were lighted every evening, and extinguiſhed every morning. They had their tongs or ſnuffers to draw the cotton in or out, and diſhes under them to receive the ſparks or droppings of the oil. This candleſtick was placed in the antichamber of the ſanctuary on the S. ſide, and ſerved to illuminate the altar of perfume and the tabernacle of the ſhew-bread. When Solomon had built the temple of the Lord, he placed in it ten golden candleſticks of the ſame form as that deſcribed by Moſes, 5 on the N. and 5 on the S. ſide of the holy place: But after the Babyloniſh captivity, the golden candleſtick was again placed in the temple, as it had been before in the tabernacle by Moſes. This ſacred utenſil, upon the deſtruction of the temple by the Romans, was lodged in the temple of peace built by Veſpaſian; and the repreſentation of it is ſtill to be ſeen on the triumphal arch at the foot of mount Palatine, on which Veſpaſian's triumph is delineated.

* CANDLESTUFF. *n. ſ.* [from *candle* and *ſtuff*.] Any thing of which candles may be made; kitchenſtuff, greaſe; tallow.—By the help of oil, and wax, and other *candleſtuff*, the flame may continue, and the wick not burn. *Bacon.*

* CANDLEWASTER. *n. ſ.* [from *candle* and *waſte*.] One that conſumes candles; a ſpendthrift.

Patch grief with proverbs, make misfortune drunk
With *candlewaſters*. *Shakeſpeare.*

CANDLE Wood, ſlips of pine about the thickneſs of a finger, uſed in New England and other colonies to burn inſtead of candles, giving a very good light. The French inhabitants of Tortuga uſe ſlips of yellow ſantal wood for the ſame purpoſe, and under the ſame denomination, which yields a clear flame though of a green colour.

CANDO, CONDI, or CUNDI, in commerce, a long meaſure uſed in ſeveral parts of the Eaſt Indies, particularly at Goa, to meaſure linen. The cando uſed in Pegu is equal to the Venetian ell.

* CANDOCK. *n. ſ.* a weed that grows in rivers.—Let the pond lie dry ſix or twelve months, both to kill the water-weeds, as water-lilies, *candocks*, reate, and bulruſhes, and alſo, that as theſe die for want of water, ſo graſs may grow on the pond's bottom. *Walton.*

* CANDOUR. *n. ſ.* [*candor*, Lat.] Sweetneſs of temper; purity of mind; openneſs; ingenuity; kindneſs.—He ſhould have ſo much of a natural *candour* and ſweetneſs, mixed with all the improvement of learning, as might convey knowledge with a ſort of gentle inſinuation. *Watts.*

(1.) CANDY, a large kingdom of Aſia, in Ceylon. It contains about a quarter of the iſland; and as it is encompaſſed with high mountains, and covered with thick foreſts, through which the roads and paths are narrow and difficult, the king has them guarded to prevent his ſubjects from going into other countries. It is full of hills, from whence rivulets proceed which are full of fiſh; but as they run among the rocks, they are not fit for boats: however, the inhabitants are very dexterous in turning them to water their land, which is fruitful in rice, pulſe, and hemp. The king is abſolute, and his ſubjects are idolaters.

(2.) CANDY, the capital of the above kingdom. (N° 1.) It has been often burnt by the Portugueſe, when they were maſters of theſe coaſts. The houſes are very poor, low, and badly furniſhed. Lon. 80. 52. E. Lat. 7. 45. N.

(3.) CANDY, or SUGAR CANDY, a preparation of ſugar made by melting and cryſtallizing it 6 or 7 times over, to render it hard or tranſparent. It is of three kinds, white, yellow, and red. The white comes from the loaf-ſugar, the yellow from the caſſonado, and the red from the muſcavado.

(1.) * *To* CANDY. *v. a.* [probably from *candare*, a word uſed in later times for *to whiten*.] 1. To conſerve with ſugar, in ſuch a manner as that the ſugar lies in flakes or breaks into ſpangles.—

Should the poor be flatter'd?
No, let the *candy'd* tongue lick abſurd pomp,
And crook the pregnant hinges of the knee,
Where thrift may follow fawning. *Shakeſpeare.*

—They have in Turky confections like to *candied* conſerves, made of ſugar and lemons, or ſugar and citrons, or ſugar and violets, and ſome other flowers, and mixture of amber. *Bacon.*—

With *candy'd* plantanes, and the juicy pine,
On choiceſt melons and ſweet grapes they dine.
Waller.

2. To form into congelations.—

Will the cold brook,
Candied with ice, candle thy morning toaſt,
To cure thy o'er night's ſurfeit? *Shakeſpeare.*

3. To incruſt with congelations.—

Since when thoſe froſts that winter brings,
Which *candy* every green,
Renew us like the teeming ſprings,
And we thus freſh are ſeen. *Drayton.*

(2.) * *To* CANDY. *v. n.* To grow congealed.

CANDYING, the act of preſerving ſimples in ſubſtance, by boiling them in ſugar. The performance of this originally belonged to the apothecaries, but is now become a part of the buſineſs of the confectioner.

(1.) * CANDY LION'S FOOT. [*catananche*, Lat.] A plant. *Miller.*

(2.) CANDY LION'S FOOT. See CATANANCHE.

CANDY TUFT. See IBERIS.

(1.) * CANE. *n. ſ.* [*canna*, Lat.] 1. A kind of ſtrong reed, of which walking ſtaffs are made; a walking ſtaff.—

Shall I to pleaſe another wine-ſprung mind
Loſe all mine own? God hath given me a meaſure
Short of his *cane* and body: muſt I find
A pain in that wherein he finds a pleaſure?
Herbert.

—The king thruſt the captain from him with his *cane*; whereupon he took his leave and went home. *Harvey.*—If the poker be out of the way or broken, ſtir the fire with your maſter's *cane*. *Swift.* 2. The plant which yields the ſugar.—This *cane* or reed grows plentifully both in the Eaſt

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Eaſt and Weſt Indies. Other reeds have their ſkin hard and dry, and their pulp void of juice; but the ſkin of the ſugar *cane* is ſoft and the ſpongy matter or pith it contains very juicy. It uſually grows four or five feet high, and about half an inch in diameter. The ſtem or ſtalk is divided by knots a foot and a half a part. At the top it puts forth a number of long green tufted leaves, from the middle of which ariſe the flower and the ſeed. There are likewiſe leaves ſpringing out from each knot; but theſe uſually fall as the *cane* riſes. They uſually plant them in pieces cut a foot and a half below the top of the flower, and they are ordinarily ripe in ten months, though ſometimes not till fifteen; at which time they are found quite full of a white ſucculent marrow, whence is expreſſed the liquour of which ſugar is made. When ripe, they are cut, and carried in bundles to the mills, which conſiſt of three wooden rollers, covered with ſteel plates. *Chambers.*—

And the ſweet liquour on the *cane* beſtow,
From which prepar'd the luſcious ſugars flow.
Blackmore.

3. A lance; a dart made of cane; whence the Spaniſh *inego de cannas.*—

Abenamar, thy youth theſe ſports has known,
Of which thy age is now ſpectator grown;
Judge-like thou ſitt'ſt, to praiſe or to arraign,
The flying ſkirmiſh of the darted *cane.* *Dryd-n.*

4. A reed.—Food may be afforded to bees, by ſmall *canes* or troughs conveyed into their hives. *Mortimer's Huſbandry.*

(2.) CANE, in botany. See § 1. *def.* 2. ARUNDO and CALAMUS.

(3.) CANE is alſo the name of a long meaſure, which differs in the ſeveral countries where it is uſed. At Naples the cane is equal to 7 feet 3¾ inches Engliſh meaſure: the cane of Thouloufe and the Upper Languedoc, is equal to the varre of Arragon, and contains 5 feet 8½ inches; at Montpellier, Provence, Dauphine, and the Lower Languedoc, to 6 Engliſh feet 5¼ inches.

(4.) CANES (§ 1. *def.* 1.) are commonly adorned with a head of gold, ſilver, agate, &c. Some are without knots, and very ſmooth and even; others are full of knots about two inches diſtance from one another. Theſe laſt have very little elaſticity, and will not bend ſo well as the others. The canes of Bengal are the moſt beautiful which the Europeans bring into Europe. Some of them are ſo fine, that people work them into bowls or veſſels, which being varniſhed over in the inſide, with black or yellow lacca, will hold liquors as well as glaſs or China ware does; and the Indians uſe them for that purpoſe.

(5.) CANE, SUGAR. See SACCHARUM.

* *To* CANE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To beat with a walking ſtaff.

CANEA, a conſiderable town of the iſland of Candia, where a baſhaw reſides. See CANDIA, § 6. It was built by the Venetians, and occupies part of the ſite of the ancient CYDONIA. It is but about two miles in compaſs; encircled on the land ſide with a ſingle wall, extremely thick; and defended by a broad and deep ditch, cut through a bed of rock, which extends all round the wall. By cutting it ſtill deeper, they might cauſe the ſea to flow round its ramparts: on which they have raiſed high platforms, that their great guns may command a wider extent of the adjacent plain. The city has only one gate, viz. that of Retimo, protected by a half-moon battery, which is the only exterior fort. The ſide which faces the ſea is the beſt fortified. On the left of the harbour are four batteries, riſing one above another, and planted with a number of large cannons of caſt metal, marked with the arms of Venice. The firſt of theſe batteries ſtands cloſe on the brink of the ſea. The right ſide of the harbour is defended only by a ſtrong wall, extending along a chain of pointed rocks which it is dangerous for ſhips to approach. At the extremity of this wall, there is an old caſtle, falling into ruins. Beneath that caſtle, the Venetians had immenſe arſenals, vaulted with ſtone. Each of theſe vaults was of ſufficient length, breadth, and height, to ſerve as a workſhop for building a ſhip of the line. The ground is ſloping, and the outermoſt part of theſe capacious arſenals is on a level with the ſea; ſo that it was very eaſy to launch the ſhips built there into the water. The Turks are ſuffering that magnificent work to fall into ruins. Canea is laid out on a fine plan. The ſtreets are large and ſtraight; and the ſquares adorned with fountains. There are no remarkable buildings in it. Moſt of the houſes are flat-roofed, and have only one ſtory. Thoſe contiguous to the harbour are adorned with galleries, from which there is a delightful proſpect. From the windows are ſeen the large bay formed between Cape Spada and Cape Melec, and all the ſhips that are entering in or paſſing out. The harbour, at preſent, receives ſhips of 200 tons burden; and it might be enlarged ſo as to admit the largeſt frigates. Its mouth is expoſed to the violence of the north winds, which ſometimes ſwell the billows above the ramparts. But, as it is narrow, and the bottom is good, ſhips that are well moored run no danger. At the time when Tournefort viſited Crete, Canea did not contain more than 5 or 6000 inhabitants. But, at preſent, when the gates of Gira-Petra, Candia, and Retimo are choaked up, the merchants have retired to Canea; and it is reckoned to contain 16,000 ſouls. The environs of the town are admirable; being adorned with foreſts of olive trees mixed with fields, vineyards, gardens, and brooks bordered with myrtle trees and laurel roſes. The chief revenue of this town conſiſts in olive oil. Lon. 24. 15. E. Lat. 35. 20. N.

CANE, GROTTO DEL, [*i. e.* the dog's grotto,] a cave of Naples, 7 miles from Puzzoli, where many poor dogs have been ſuffocated, to ſhew the effect of a mephitic vapour, which riſes a foot above the bottom of this grotto.

CANELLA, in botany, a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the dodecandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 12th order, *Holoraceæ.* The calyx is 3 lobed; the petals are 5; the antheræ 16, growing to an urceolated or bladder-ſhaped nectarium; and the fruit is a trilocular berry, with two ſeeds. There is but one ſpecies, viz.

CANELLA ALBA. It grows uſually about 20 feet high, and eight or ten inches in thickneſs, in moſt of the Bahama iſlands. The leaves are narrow at the ſtalk, growing wider at their ends, which are broad

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broad and rounding, having a middle rib only; they are very ſmooth, and of a light ſhining green. See *Plate* XLIX. In May and June the flowers, which are pentapetalous, come forth in cluſters at the ends of the branches: they are red, and very fragrant, and are ſucceeded by round berries, of the ſize of large peas, green, and when ripe (which is in February,) purple, containing two ſhining black ſeeds, flat on one ſide, otherwiſe not unlike in ſhape to a kidney bean: theſe ſeeds in the berry are enveloped in a ſlimy mucilage. The whole plant is very aromatic, the bark particularly, being more uſed in diſtilling, and in greater eſteem in the more northern parts of the world than in Britain. The bark is the canella alba of the ſhops. It is brought to us rolled up into long quills, thicker than the cinnamon, and both outwardly and inwardly of a whitiſh colour, lightly inclining to yellow. Infuſions of it in water are of a yelloviſh colour, and ſmell of the canella: but they are rather bitter than aromatic. Tinctures in rectified ſpirit have the warmth of the bark, but little of its ſmell. Proof ſpirit diſſolves the aromatic as well as the bitter matter of the canella, and is therefore the beſt menſtruum. The canella is the interior bark freed from an outward thin rough one, and dried in the ſhade. The ſhops diſtinguiſh two ſorts of canella, differing from each other in the length and thickneſs of the quills: they are both the bark of the ſame tree; the thicker being taken from the trunk, and the thinner from the branches. This bark is a warm pungent aromatic, though not of the moſt agreeable kind: nor are any of the preparations of it very grateful. Canella alba is often employed where a warm ſtimulant to the ſtomach is neceſſary, and as a corrigent of other articles. It is now, however, little uſed in compoſition by the London college; the only official formula which it enters being the *pulvis aloeticus*: but with the Edinburgh college it is an ingredient in the *tinctura amara*, *vinum amarum*, *vinum rhei*, &c. It is uſeful as covering the taſte of ſome other articles.—This bark has been confounded with Winter's bark, which belongs to a very different tree. See WINTERA.

CANELLE, or CANE-LAND, a large country in the iſland of Ceylon, formerly called COTA. It contains a great number of cantons, the principal of which are occupied by the Dutch. The chief riches of this country conſiſt in cinnamon, of which there are large foreſts. There are five towns on the coaſt, ſome forts, and a great number of harbours. The reſt of the country is inhabited by the natives; and there are ſeveral rich mines, from whence rubies, ſapphires, topazes, cats eyes, and ſeveral other precious ſtones are obtained.

CANEPHORÆ, in Grecian antiquity, virgins, become marriageable. See next article.

(1.) CANEPHORIA, a ceremony which made part of a feaſt, celebrated by the Athenian virgins on the eve of their marriage day. It conſiſts in this; the maid, conducted by her father and mother, went to the temple of Minerva, carrying with her a baſket full of little curioſities, as preſents to Diana to engage her to make the marriage ſtate happy; or, as the ſcholiaſt of Theocritus has it, the baſket was intended as a kind of honourable amends made to that goddeſs, the protectrix of virginity, for abandoning her party; or as a ceremony to appeaſe her wrath. Suidas calls it a feſtival in honour of Diana.

(2.) CANEPHORIA, was alſo a feſtival in honour of Bacchus, celebrated particularly by the Athenians, in which the young maids carried golden baſkets full of fruit, covered to conceal the myſtery from the uninitiated.

CANES, in Egypt and other eaſtern countries, a poor ſort of buildings for the reception of ſtrangers and travellers; who are accommodated with a room at a ſmall price, but with no other neceſſaries; ſo that, excepting the room, there are no greater accommodations in theſe houſes than in the deſarts, except that there is a market near.

CANESBY, a village in Lincolnſhire, near Weſt Haulton.

CANESCENT, *adj.* tending to whiteneſs.

CANESTELLUS, [old Lat.] *n. ſ.* a baſket.

CANES VENATICI, in aſtronomy, the GREY HOUNDS, two new conſtellations firſt eſtabliſhed by Hevelius, between the tail of the Great Bear and Bootes's arms, above the Coma Berenices. The firſt is called *aſterion*, being next the Bear's tail; the other *chara*. See ASTRONOMY, § 550. Their longitudes and latitudes are given by Hevelius.

CANETO, a ſtrong town of Italy in Mantua, ſeated on the Oglio, which was ſeveral times taken and retaken by the French and Imperialiſts. It lies 12 miles S. of Mantua, and is now included in the new republic of Ciſpadana. Lon. 10. 45. E. Lat. 40. 55. N.

CANEWDON, a town in Eſſex, near Wallfleet, anciently called CANUTI DOMUS, king Canute the Great having held his court in it. It has a fair June 25.

CANE-WOOD, near Hampſtead, Middleſex.

CANFIELD MAGNA, } two ſmall towns near
CANFIELD PARVA, } Dunmow, in Eſſex.

CANFORD-LAWNDS, } two villages, E. of
CANFORD PARVA, } Winborn-Minſter, near the Stour, Dorſetſhire.

CANG, a gulf of Aſia lying between China and Tartary, at the E. end of the Long Wall.

CANGA, in the Chineſe affairs, a wooden clog born on the neck, by way of puniſhment for divers offences. The canga is compoſed of two peices of wood notched, to receive the criminal's neck; the load lies on his ſhoulders, and is more or leſs heavy according to the quality of his offence. Some cangas weigh 200lb.; the generality from 50 to 60. The Mandarins condemn to the puniſhment of the canga. Sentence of death is ſometimes changed for this kind of puniſhment.

CANGANI. See CEANGI.

CANGE, Sieur DU. See FRESNE, DU.

CANGERECORA, a large river in the peninſula of Indoſtan, which riſes in the Gaut Mountains, and runs SW. to the coaſt of Malabar.

CANGI. See CEANGI.

CANGIAGIO, or CAMBIASI, Lowis, one of the moſt eminent of the Genoeſe painters, was born in 1527. His works at Genoa are very numerous; and he was employed by the king of Spain to adorn part of the Eſcurial. He was

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not

not only expeditious, but worked equally well with both hands; and, by that unuſual power, executed more deſigns, and finiſhed more grand works with his own pencil, in a much ſhorter time, than moſt other artiſts could do with ſeveral aſſiſtants. He died in 1585.

CANHAM, a village in Suffolk, near Edmundſbury.

CANIA, in botany, a name uſed by Pliny and others for the Nettle. See UTRICA.

CANIADERAGO, a lake of the United States, in New York, W. of lake Oſwego, about 9 miles long, but narrow.

CANIBAL. See CANIBAL.

(1.) CANICULA, in aſtronomy, a ſtar in the conſtellation *canis major*, called alſo the DOG STAR; by the Greeks Σειριος, SIRIUS. It is the 20th in order in the Britannic catalogue; in Tycho's and Ptolemy's it is the 2d. It is ſituated in the mouth of the conſtellation; and is of the firſt magnitude, being the largeſt and brighteſt ſtar in the heavens. From the riſing of this ſtar not coſmically, or with the ſun, but heliacally, that is, its emerſion from the ſun's rays, which now happens about the 15th of Auguſt, the ancients reckoned their *dies caniculares*, CANICULAR DAYS, or DOG-DAYS. The Egyptians and Ethiopians began their year at the riſing of the canicula, reckoning to its riſe again the next year, which is called the *canus canarius*, or CANICULAR YEAR. The reaſon of their choice of the canicula before the other ſtars to compute their time by, was not only the ſuperior brightneſs of that ſtar, but becauſe its heliacal riſing was in Egypt a time of ſingular note, as falling on the greateſt augmentation of the Nile. Epheſtion adds that from the aſpect and colour of canicula, the Egyptians drew prognoſtics concerning the riſe of the Nile; and, according to Horus, predicted the future ſtate of the year; ſo that the firſt riſing of this ſtar was annually obſerved with great attention.

(2.) CANICULA, in zoology, the name by which Ariſtotle, Rondeletius, Aldrovandus, and others, have called the CATULUS.

(3.) CANICULA was alſo uſed by Pliny, and other Roman writers, for the fiſh which the Italians expreſs by the name, LAMIOLA, and in Cornwallis called the *tope*. It is a ſpecies of SQUALUS.

(1.) * CANICULAR, *adj.* [*canicularis*, Lat.] Belonging to the dog-ſtar; as *canicular*, or dog-days. —In regard to different latitudes, unto ſome the *canicular* days are in the winter; as unto ſuch as are under the equinoctial line: for, unto them, the dog-ſtar ariſeth, when the ſun is about the tropick of Cancer, which ſeaſon unto them is winter. *Brown's Vulgar Errours.*

(2.) CANICULAR DAYS, } See CANICULA, N° 1.

(3.) CANICULAR YEAR, } The canicular year among the ancient Egyptians, conſiſted of 365 days, and had an intercalary day every 4th year.

CANICULUM, or } in the Byzantine antiquiCANICULUS, } ties, a golden ſtandiſh or ink-veſſel, decorated with precious ſtones, wherein was kept the ſacred *encauſtum*, or red ink, wherewith the emperors ſigned their decrees, letters, &c. The name alludes to the figure of a dog which is repreſented, or rather becauſe it was ſupported by the figures of dogs. The caniculum was under the care of a particular officer of ſtate.

CANICUM, in botany, a name given by Avicenna and others, to the ſmall celandine. See RANUNCULUS.

CANIGAU, the higheſt peak of the Pyrenean mountains. It is ſaid to be 1440 fathoms, or 8640 feet high.

(1.) CANINA, a diſtrict in the N. of Turkey, part of Albania, the ancient Epirus. It lies off the entrance of the gulph of Venice.

(2.) CANINA, the capital of the diſtrict, (N° 1.) ſeated on the ſea coaſt, at the foot of the mountains of Chimera. Lon. 19. 25. E. Lat. 40. 55. N.

(3.) CANINA LAPPA, in botany, a name given by ſome of the old Roman authors to the fruit of aparine or gooſe-graſs. See GALIUM.

CANINANA, in zoology, a ſpecies of ſerpent found in America, and eſteemed one of the leſs poiſonous kinds. It grows to about two feet long; and is green on the back, and yellow on the belly. It feeds on eggs and ſmall birds: the natives cut off the head and tail, and eat the body as a delicate fiſh.

(1.) * CANINE. *adj.* [*caninus*, Lat.] 1. Having the properties of a dog.—A kind of women are made up of *canine* particles: theſe are ſcolds who imitate the animals out of which they were taken, always buſy and barking, and ſnarl at every one that comes in their way. *Addiſon.* 2. *Canine* hunger, in medicine, is an appetite which cannot be ſatisfied.—It may occaſion an exorbitant appetite of uſual things, which they will take in ſuch quantities, till they vomit them up like dogs, from whence it is called *canine*. *Arbuthnot.*

(1.) CANINE APPETITE. See § 1. *def.* 2. and BULIMY.

(3.) CANINE MADNESS. See MEDICINE, INDEX.

(4.) CANINE SULPHUR, a ſort of native ſulphur diſcovered near Reggio, intermixed with earthy or ſtony matters; ſo called becauſe dogs are ſo fond of it, as to dig it out of the earth.

(5.) CANINE TEETH are two ſharp edged teeth in each jaw: one on each ſide, placed between the inciſores and molares.

CANINI, John Angelo, and } two brothers naCANINI, Mark Anthony, } tives of Rome, celebrated for their love of antiquities. John excelled in deſigns for engraving on ſtones, particularly heads; Mark engraved them. They were encouraged by Colbert to publiſh a ſucceſſion of heads of the heroes and great men of antiquity, deſigned from medals, antique ſtones, and other ancients remains; but John died at Rome ſoon after the work was begun: Mark Anthony, however, procured aſſiſtance, finiſhed and publiſhed it in Italian, in 1669. The cuts of this edition were engraved by Canini, Picard, and Valet; and a curious explanation is given, which diſcovers the ſkill of the Canini's in hiſtory and mythology. The French edition of Amſterdam, 1731, is ſpurious.

CANINUS MUSCULUS, the ſame as *levator labii ſuperioris*. See ANATOMY, § 197.

CANINUS SERPENS, in zoology, a name given to the MAUBALLA of Ceylon, a ſnake that flies at every thing that comes in its way, like a dog.

(1.) CANIS, the DOG, in zoology, a genus of quadrupeds,

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quadrupeds, belonging to the order of feræ. The characters of the dog are these: He has six fore-teeth in the upper jaw, those in the sides being longer than the intermediate ones, which are lobated; in the under jaw there are likewise six fore-teeth, those on the sides being lobated. He has 6 grinders in the upper, and 7 in the lower jaw. The teeth called *dog-teeth* are 4 one on each side, both in the lower and upper jaw; they are sharp-pointed, bent a little inward, and stand at a distance from any of the rest. Zoologists commonly reckon 14 species of this genus. Mr Robert Kerr, in his *Animal Kingdom*, *Vol.* I. enumerates 17. But zoological arrangement seems not yet to have arrived at its utmost degree of perfection. Mr Pennant, with considerable propriety, (as Mr Kerr remarks,) excludes all the Hyenæ from this genus. Indeed to ordinary readers it must appear somewhat strange to class animals of such very opposite-natures as the fox, the wolf and the hyena, under the same genus with the dog. But such is the present state of this branch of science. Adopting Mr Kerr's arrangement in general, as far as our lexicographical order will permit, we state the different species and varieties as follows:

i. CANIS ADIVE, the BARBARY FOX, the CHACAL of Buffon, or the jackal adive, has a long and slender nose, sharp upright ears, long bushy tail; colour, a very pale brown; space above and below the eyes, black; from behind each ear, there is a black line, which soon divides into two, which extend to the lower part of the neck: and the tail is surrounded with 3 broad rings. This species is of the size of the common fox; but the limbs are shorter, and the nose is more slender. M. de Buffon informs us, that Mr Bruce told him this animal was common in Barbary, where it was called *thaleb*. But Mr Pennant observes, that Mr Bruce should have given it a more distinguishing name; for *thaleb*, or *taaleb*, is no more than the Arabic name for the common fox, which is also frequent in that country.

ii. CANIS ANTARCTICUS, the NEW HOLLAND DOG, or Dog of New South Wales, mentioned by Gov. Phillips in his *Voyages*, is thus described by Mr Kerr, p. 136. "The tail is bushy, and hangs downwards: the ears are short and erect; and the muzzle is pointed. It inhabits New Holland; is rather less than 2 feet high; and about 2½ in length. His head resembles that of a fox, having a pointed muzzle, garnished with whiskers, and short erect ears; the body and tail light brown; paler towards the belly, on the sides of the face and throat. The hind parts of the fore legs, the fore parts of the hind legs and all the feet are white. On the whole it is a very elegant animal, but fierce and cruel; from which, with its figure, (see *Pl.* LIV.) the total want of the common voice of the dog, and from general resemblance in other respects, it seems more properly to belong to the wolf than the dog kind."

iii. CANIS AUREUS, the SCHACKAL, or JACKAL as described by Mr Pennant, has yellowish brown irides; ears erect, formed like those of a fox, but shorter and less pointed: hairy with white within; brown without, tinged and dusky: head shorter than that of a fox, and nose blunter: lips black, and somewhat loose: neck and body very much resembling those of that animal, but the body more compressed; the legs have the same resemblance, but are longer: tail thickest in the middle, tapering to the point: 5 toes on the fore feet; the inner toe very short, and placed high: 4 toes on the hind feet; all covered with hair even to the claws. The hairs are much stiffer than those of a fox, but scarcely so stiff as those of a wolf; short about the nose; on the back 3 inches long; on the belly shorter: Those at the end of the tail 4 inches long: Colour of the upper part of the body a dirty tawny; on the back, mixed with black: lower part of the body of a yellowish white: tail tipt with black; the rest of the same colour with the back: the legs of an unmixed tawny brown: the fore legs marked (but not always) with a black spot on the knees; but on no part are those vivid colours which could merit the title of *golden*, bestowed on it by Kæmpfer. The length of this animal from the nose to the root of the tail is little more than 29 inches English: the tail, to the ends of the hairs 10¼; the tip reaching to the top of the hind legs: the height, from the space between the shoulders to the ground, rather more than 18¼ inches; the hind parts a little higher. This species inhabits all the hot and temperate parts of Asia, India, Persia, Arabia, Great Tartary, and about Mount Caucasus, Syria, and the Holy Land. It is found in most parts of Africa, from Barbary to the Cape of Good Hope. Professor Guelderstaedt, the able describer of this long lost animal, remarks, that the cæcum entirely agrees in form with that of a dog, and differs from that of the wolf and fox. And Mr Pennant observes, that there is the same agreement in the teeth with those of a dog; and the same variation in them from those of the two other animals. These circumstances strengthen the opinion entertained by some writers, that the dogs of the old world derived their origin from one or other of them. The jackals have indeed so much the nature of dogs, as to give reasonable cause to imagine that they are at least the *chief* stock from which is sprung the various races of those domestic animals. When taken young, they grow instantly tame; attach themselves to mankind; wag their tails; love to be stroked: distinguish their masters from others; will come on being called by the name given to them; will leap on the table, being encouraged to it: they drink, lapping; and make water sideways, with their leg held up. Their dung is hard: *odorat anum alterius, cohæret copula junctus.* When they see dogs, instead of flying, they seek them, and play with them. They will eat bread eagerly; notwithstanding they are in a wild state carnivorous. They have a great resemblance to some of the Calmuc dogs, which perhaps were but a few descents removed from the wild kinds. Our dogs are probably derived from those reclaimed in the first ages of the world; altered by numberless accidents into the many varieties which now appear among us. The wild schackals go in packs of 40, 50, and even two hundred, and hunt like hounds in full cry from evening to morning. They destroy flocks and poultry, but in a less degree than the wolf or fox: ravage the streets of villages and gardens near towns, and will even destroy children.

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ren, if left unprotected. They will enter ſtables and out houſes, and devour ſkins, or any thing made of that material. They will familiarly enter a tent, and ſteal whatſoever they can find from the ſleeping traveller. In defect of living prey, they will feed on roots and fruits; and even on the moſt infected carrion: they will greedily diſinter the dead, and devour the putrid carcaſes; for which reaſon, in many countries the graves are made of a great depth. They attend caravans, and follow armies, in hopes that death will provide them a banquet. Their voice naturally is a howl. Barking, Mr Pennant obſerves, is latently inherent; and in their ſtate of nature ſeldom exerted: but its different modifications are adventitious, and expreſſive of the new paſſions and affections gained by a domeſtic ſtate. Their howlings and clamours in the night are dreadful, and ſo loud that people can ſcarcely hear one another ſpeak. Dellon ſays, their voice is like the cries of a great many children of different ages mixed together: when one begins to howl, the whole pack join in the cry. Kæmpfer ſays, that every now and then a ſort of bark is intermixed; which confirms what is above aſſerted by Mr Pennant. Dellon agrees in the account of their being tamed, and entertained as domeſtic animals. During day they are ſilent. They dig burrows in the earth, in which they lie all day, and come out at night to range for prey: they hunt by the noſe, and are very quick of ſcent. The females breed only once a year, and go with young only 4 weeks; they bring from 6 to 8 at a time. Both Mr Gueldenſtaedt and Mr Bell contradict the opinion of their being very fierce animals. This animal is vulgarly called the *Lion's Provider*, from an opinion that it rouzes the prey for that bad noſed quadruped. The fact is, every creature in the foreſt is ſet in motion by the fearful cries of the jackals; the lion, and other beaſts of rapine, by a ſort of inſtinct, attend to the chace, and ſeize ſuch timid animals as betake themſelves to flight at the noiſe of this nightly pack. The jackal is deſcribed by Oppian, under the name of Αυρεη ξανθος, or *yellow wolf*; who mentions its horrible howl. It may, as M. de Buffon conjectures, be the Θως of Ariſtotle, who mentions it with the wolf, and ſays that it has the ſame internal ſtructure as the wolf, which is common with congenerous animals. The Thoes of Pliny may alſo be a variety of the ſame animal: for his account of it agrees with the modern hiſtory of the ſchackal, except in the laſt article. See *Lib.* viii. *c.* 34.

iv. CANIS CERDO, the ZERDA, has a very pointed viſage; large bright black eyes; very large ears, of a bright roſe colour, internally lined with long hairs; the orifice ſo ſmall as not to be viſible, probably covered with a valve or membrane; the legs and feet are like thoſe of a dog; the tail is taper; colour between a ſtraw and pale brown. Length from noſe to tail ten inches; ears 3½ inches long; tail, ſix: height not 5. It inhabits the vaſt deſert of Saara, which extends beyond mount Atlas. It burrows in the ſandy ground, which ſhows the neceſſity of the valves to the ears; and is ſo exceſſively ſwift, that it is very rarely taken alive. It feeds on inſects, eſpecially locuſts: ſits on its rump: is very vigilant: barks like a dog, but much ſhriller, and that chiefly in the night: never is obſerved to be ſportive. We are indebted to Mr Eric Skioldebrand, the late Swediſh conſul at Algiers, for our knowledge of this ſingular animal. He never could procure but one alive, which eſcaped before he examined its teeth: the genus is very uncertain: the form of its head and legs, and ſome of its manners, determined Mr Pennant to rank it in this genus. That which was in poſſeſſion of Mr Skioldebrand fed freely from the hand, and would eat bread or boiled meat. Buffon has given a figure of this animal; but from the authority of Mr Bruce aſcribes to it a different place, and different manners. He ſays that it is found to the S. of the Palus Tritonides, in Libya; that it has ſomething of the nature of the hare, and ſomething of the ſquirrel; and that it lives on the palm-trees, and feeds on the fruits.

v. CANIS CINEREO-ARGENTEUS, the SILVERY FOX of Louiſiana, reſembles the common fox in form, but has a moſt beautiful coat. The ſhort hairs are of a deep brown; and over them ſpring long ſilvery hairs, which give the animal a very elegant appearance. They live in foreſts abounding in game, and never attempt the poultry which run at large. The woody eminences in Louiſiana are every where pierced with their holes.

vi. CANIS FAMILIARIS, the DOMESTIC, or FAITHFUL DOG, is diſtinguiſhed from the other ſpecies by having its tail bent to the left ſide; which mark is ſo ſingular, that perhaps the tail of no other quadruped is bent in this manner. Of this ſpecies there are a great number of varieties. Linnæus enumerates 11; Buffon gives figures of 27; and Mr Kerr, enumerates no fewer than 40. See *Plates* LI, LII, LIII, and LIV. The maſtiff is about the ſize of a wolf, with the ſides of the lips hanging down, and a full robuſt body. The large Daniſh dog differs only from the former in being fuller in body, and generally of a large ſize. The grey-hound is likewiſe the ſame with the maſtiff; but its make is more ſlender and delicate. Indeed the difference between theſe 3 dogs, although perfectly diſtinguiſhable at firſt ſight, is not greater than that betwixt a Dutchman, a French man, and an Italian. The ſhepherd's dog, the wolf dog, the Siberian dog, Lapland dog, the Canada dog, and, in general, all thoſe which have ſtraight ears and a pointed ſnout, are all one kind, differing only in thickneſs, the roughneſs or ſmoothneſs of their ſkin, the length of their legs and tails. The hound or beagle, the terrier, the braque or harrier, and the ſpaniel, may be conſidered as the ſame kind: they have the ſame form and the ſame inſtincts; and differ only in the length of their legs and ſizes of their ears, which in each of them are long, ſoft, and pendulous. The bull-dog, the ſmall Daniſh dog, the Turkiſh dog, and the Iceland dog, may likewiſe be conſidered as the ſame kind, all the varieties in their appearance taking their riſe merely from climate. For inſtance, the Turkiſh dog, which has no hair, is nothing elſe but the ſmall Daniſh dog tranſported to a warm climate, which makes the hair fall off. A dog of any kind loſes its hair in very warm climates. But this is not the only change which ariſes from difference of climate. In ſome countries, the voice is changed; in

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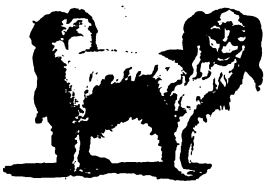
Spaniel.



Turnspits.

Hound.

Dalmatian Dog.

Small Water Dog.

Harrier.

Great Water Dog.

Bull Dog.

Mastiff.

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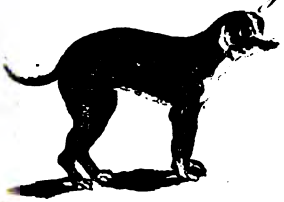
King Charles's Dog.

Pyrame Dog.

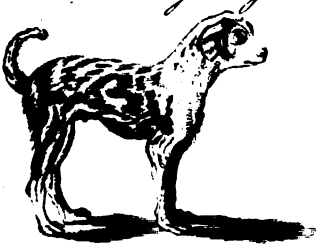
Shock Dog.

Lion Dog.

Small Danish Dog.



Bastard Pug Dog.



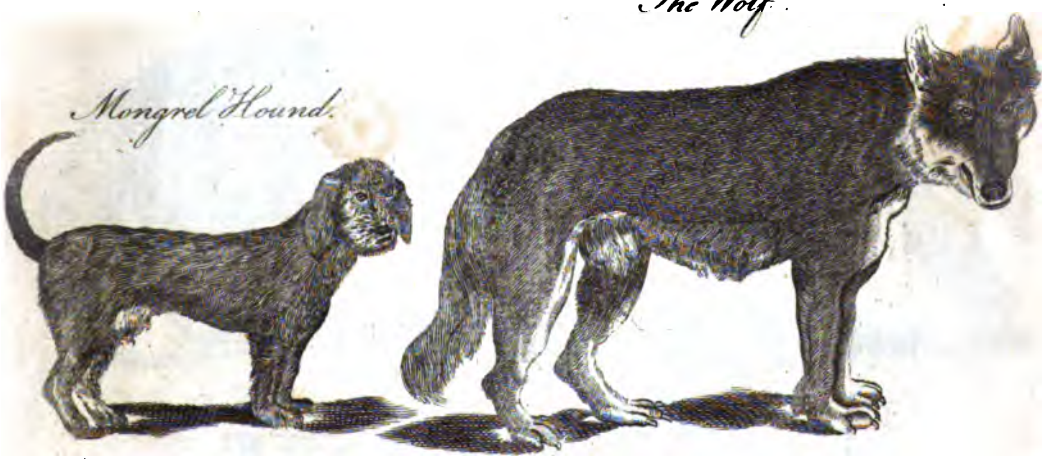
Pug Dog.

Naked Turkish Dog.

Mongrel Turkish Dog.

The Wolf.

Mongrel Hound.



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Shepherds Dog.

Pomeranian Dog.

Siberian Dog.

Grephound.

Irish Grephound.

Ixatis.

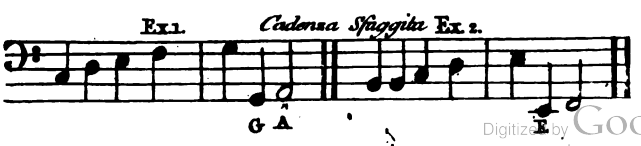
The Fox.

Jackal Adive.

Zerda.

Striped Hyæna.

Spotted Hyæna.



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Danish Dog.

Iceland Dog.

New Holland Dog.

American Alco.

Cancroma Cochlearia.

Cancer.

CAIRNS.

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in others, dogs become altogether ſilent. In ſome climates they loſe the faculty of barking, and howl like wolves, or yelp like foxes. Warm climates even change their form and inſtincts: they grow ill ſhaped, and their ears become ſtraight and pointed. It is only in temperate climates that dogs preſerve their natural courage, ardour, and ſagacity. The Count de Buffon has given a genealogical table of all the known dogs, in which he makes the *Chien de berger*, or ſhepherd's dog, (§ 2. N° 14.) the origin of the whole ſpecies, becauſe it is naturally the moſt ſenſible. See an account of his genealogical ſcheme under the Engliſh name, Dog. From the ſtructure of the teeth, it is evident that the dog is a carnivorous animal. He does not, however, eat indiſcriminately every kind of animal ſubſtance. There are ſome birds, as the *columbus arcticus*, which the water dog will lay hold of with keenneſs, but will not bring out of the water, becauſe its ſmell is exceedingly offenſive to him. He will not eat the bones of a gooſe, crow, or hawk; but he devours even the putrid fleſh of moſt other animals. He is poſſeſſed of ſuch ſtrong digeſtive powers, as to draw nouriſhment from the hardeſt bones. When fleſh cannot be procured, he will eat fiſh, fruits, ſucculent herbs, and bread of all kinds. When oppreſſed with ſickneſs, to which he is very ſubject, eſpecially in the beginning of ſummer, and before ill weather, in order to procure a puke, he eats the leaves of the quicken graſs, the bearded wheatgraſs, or the rough cock's foot graſs, which give him immediate relief. When he ſteals a piece of fleſh, as if conſcious of the immorality of the action, he runs off with his tail hanging and bent in betwixt his legs. His drink is water, which he takes in ſmall quantities at a time, by licking with his tongue. He is obliged to lick in this manner, otherwiſe his noſe would be immerſed in the water. His excrements are generally hard ſcybals, which, eſpecially after eating bones, are white, and once went by the abſurd name of *album græcum*. This album græcum was for a long time in great repute as a drug; but it is now juſtly diſregarded. He does not throw out his excrements promiſcuouſly upon every thing that happens to be in the way, but upon ſtones, trunks of trees, or barren places. This is a wiſe inſtitution of nature; for the excrements of a dog deſtroy almoſt every vegetable or animal ſubſtance. They are of ſuch an acrid nature, that if a man's ſhoe touches them when recently expelled, that particular part will rot in a few days. He obſerves the ſame method in making his urine, which he throws out at a ſide. It is remarkable, that a dog will not paſs a ſtone or a wall againſt which any other dog has piſſed, without following his example, although a hundred ſhould occur in a few minutes; ſo much that it is aſtoniſhing how ſuch a quantity can be ſecreted in ſo ſhort a time. The dog is an animal not only of quick motion, but remarkable for travelling very long journeys. He can eaſily keep up with his maſter, either on foot or horſeback, for a whole day. When fatigued, he does not ſweat, but lolls out his tongue. Every kind of dog can ſwim; but the water dog excels in that article. The dog turns round when about to lie down, in order to diſcover the moſt proper ſituation. He lies generally on his breaſt, with his head turned to one ſide, and ſometimes with his head above his two fore feet. He ſleeps little, and even that does not ſeem to be very quiet; for he often ſtarts, and ſeems to hear with more acuteneſs in ſleep than when awake. Dogs have a tremulous motion in ſleep, frequently move their legs, and bark, which is an indication of dreaming. They are poſſeſſed of the ſenſation of ſmelling in a high degree. They can trace their maſter by the ſmell of his feet in a church, or in the ſtreets of a populous city. This ſenſation is not equally ſtrong in every kind. The hound can trace game, or his maſter's ſteps, 24 hours afterwards. He barks more furiouſly the nearer he approaches the fowls, unleſs he be trained to ſilence. The dog eats enviouſly, with oblique eyes; is an enemy to beggars; bites at a ſtone flung at it; is fond of licking wounds; howls at certain notes in muſic, and often urines on hearing them. The females admit the males before they are 12 months old. They remain in ſeaſon 10, 12, or even 15 days, during which time they admit a variety of males. They come in ſeaſon generally twice a-year, and more frequently in the cold than in the hot months. The male diſcovers the condition of the female by the ſmell; but ſhe ſeldom admits him the firſt 6 or 7 days. One coitus will make her conceive a great number of young; but, when not reſtrained, ſhe will admit ſeveral dogs every day: ſhe ſeems to have no choice or predilection, except in favour of large dogs: from this circumſtance it ſometimes happens, that a ſmall female, who has admitted a maſtiff, periſhes in bringing forth her young. During the time of copulation, theſe animals cannot ſeparate themſelves, but remain united ſo long as the erection ſubſiſts. This is owing to the ſtructure of theſe parts. The dog has not only a bone in his penis, but in the middle of the corpus cavernoſum there is a large hollow, which is blown up in time of erection to a conſiderable bulk. The female, on the other hand, has a larger clitoris than perhaps any other animal: beſides, a large firm protuberance riſes in the time of copulation, and remains perhaps longer than that of the male, and prevents him from retiring till it ſubſides: accordingly, after the act of copulation is over, the male turns about in order to reſt himſelf on his legs, and remains in that poſition till the parts turn flaccid. The female goes with young about 9 weeks. They generally bring forth from 6 to 12 puppies. Thoſe of a ſmall ſize bring forth 4 or 5, ſometimes but two. They continue to copulate and bring forth during life, which laſts generally about 14 or 15 years. The whelps are commonly blind, and cannot open their eyes till the 10th or 12th day: the males reſemble the dog, the females the bitch. In the 4th month, they loſe ſome of their teeth, which are ſoon ſucceeded by others. The dog has ſuch a ſtrong reſemblance to the wolf and the fox, that he has by ſome been ſuppoſed to be the production of one or other of theſe animals tamed and civilized. But this is an erroneous idea. They are at leaſt quite diſtinct ſpecies, if not different genera. Buffon informs us, that he kept a young dog and a young wolf together till they were 5 years of

age, without their discovering the least inclination to copulate. He made the same experiment upon a dog and a fox; but their antipathy was rather increased when the female was in season. From these experiments he concludes, that dogs, wolves, and foxes, are perfectly distinct genera of animals. There has, however, been lately an instance to the contrary: Mr Brooke, animal merchant in Holborn, turned a wolf to a Pomeranian bitch in heat; the congress was immediate, and as usual between dog and bitch: she produced ten puppies. Mr Pennant saw one of them at Gordon Castle, that had very much the resemblance of a wolf, and also much of its nature: being slipped at a weak deer, it instantly caught at the animal's throat and killed it. "I could not learn (says Mr Pennant) whether this mongrel continued its species; but another of the same kind did, and stocked the neighbourhood of Fochabers, in the county of Moray (where it was kept,) with a multitude of curs of a most wolfish aspect.—There was lately living a mongrel offspring of this kind. It greatly resembled its wolf parent. It was first the property of Sir Wolstein Dixey; afterwards of Sir Willughby Aston. During day it was very tame; but at night sometimes relapsed into ferocity. It never barked, but rather howled; when it came into the fields where sheep were, it would feign lameness, but if no one was present would instantly attack them. It had been seen in copulation with a bitch, which, afterwards puppied: the breed was imagined to resemble in many respects the supposed fire. It died between the age of 5 and 6.—The bitch will also breed with the fox. The woodman of the manor of Mongewell, in Oxfordshire, has a bitch, which constantly follows him, the offspring of a tame dog fox by a shepherd's cur; and she again has had puppies by a dog. Since there are such authentic proofs of the further continuance of the breed, we may surely add the wolf and fox to the other supposed stocks of these faithful domestics." With regard to the natural disposition of the dog: in a savage state, he is fierce, cruel, and voracious; but, when civilized and accustomed to live with men, he is possessed of every amiable quality. He seems to have no other desire than to please and protect his master. He is gentle, obedient, submissive, and faithful. These dispositions, joined to his almost unbounded sagacity, justly claim the esteem of mankind. Accordingly no animal is so much caressed or respected: he is so ductile, and so much formed to please, that he assumes the very air and temper of the family in which he resides. An animal endowed with such uncommon qualities must answer many useful purposes. His fidelity and vigilance are daily employed to protect our persons, our flocks, or our goods. The acuteness of his smell gains him employment in hunting: he is frequently employed as a turnspit: at Brussels and in Holland he is trained to draw little carts to the herb market; and in the northern regions draws a sledge with his master in it, or loaden with provisions. The Kamschatkans, Esquimaux, and Greenlanders, strangers to the softer virtues, treat these poor animals with great neglect. The former, during summer, the season in which they are useless, turn them loose to provide for themselves; and recal them in October into their usual confinement and labour; from that time till spring they are fed with fish-bones and *opana*, i. e. putrid fish preserved in pits, and served up to them mixed with hot water. Those used for draught are castrated; and 4 yoked to the carriage, will draw five poods, or 190 English pounds, besides the driver; and thus loaden, will travel 30 versts, or 20 miles a-day; or if unloaden, on hardened snow, on sliders of bone, 150 versts, or 100 English miles. It is pretty certain, Mr Pennant says, that the Kamschatkan dogs are of wolfish descent; for wolves abound in that country, in all parts of Siberia, and even under the arctic circle. If their master is flung out of his sledge, they want the affectionate fidelity of the European kind, and leave him to follow, never stopping till the sledge is overturned, or else stopped by some impediment. The great traveller of the 13th century, Marco Paolo, had knowledge of this species of conveyance from the merchants who went far north to traffic for the precious furs. He describes the sledges; adds, that they were drawn by six great dogs; and that they changed them and the sledges on the road, as we do our horses in riding post. The Kamschatkans make use of the skins of dogs for clothing, and the long hair for ornament: some nations are fond of them as food; and reckon a fat dog a great delicacy. Both the Asiatic and American savages use these animals in sacrifices to their gods. When the Koreki dread any infection, they kill a dog, wind the intestines round two poles, and pass between them. The Greenlanders are not better masters. They leave their dogs to feed on muscles or berries; unless in a great capture of seals, when they treat them with the blood and garbage. These people also sometimes eat their dogs; use the skins for coverlets, for clothing, or to border and seam their habits; and their best thread is made of the guts. These northern dogs in general are large; and in the frigid parts at least have the appearance of wolves; are usually white, with a black face; sometimes varied with black and white, sometimes all white; rarely brown or all black: have sharp noses, thick hair, and short ears; and seldom bark, but set up a sort of growl or savage howl. They sleep abroad; and make a lodge in the snow, lying with only their noses out. They swim most excellently; and will hunt in packs the ptarmigan, arctic fox, polar bear, and seals on the ice. The natives sometimes use them in the chase of the bear. They are excessively fierce; and, like wolves, instantly fly on the few domestic animls introduced into Greenland. They will fight among themselves even to death. Canine madness is unknown in Greenland. Being used by the natives instead of horses, the Greenlanders fasten to their sledges from 4 to 10; and thus make their visits in savage state, or bring home the animals they have killed. Egede says that they will travel over the ice 15 German miles in a day, or 60 English, with sledges loaden with their masters and five or six large seals. Those of the neighbouring island of Iceland have a great resemblance to them. As to those of Newfoundland, it is not certain that there is any distinct breed; most of them are curs, with a cross

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of the maſtiff; ſome take the water, others will not, abſolutely refuſing to go in. The country was found uninhabited, which makes it more probable that they were introduced by the Europeans; who uſe them as the factory does in Hudſon's bay, to draw firing from the woods to the forts. The ſavages who trade to Hudſon's bay make uſe of the wolfiſh kind to draw their furs. It is ſingular, that the race of European dogs ſhow as ſtrong an antipathy to this American ſpecies, as they do to the wolf itſelf. They never meet with them, but they ſhow all poſſible ſigns of diſlike, and will fall on and worry them; while the wolfiſh breed, with every mark of timidity, puts its tail between its legs, and runs from the rage of the others. This averſion to the wolf is natural to all genuine dogs; for it is well known that a whelp, which has never ſeen a wolf, will at firſt ſight tremble, and run to its maſter for protection: an old dog will inſtantly attack it. Yet theſe animals may be made to breed with one another as above ſhown; and the following abſtract of a letter from Dr Paſlas to Mr Pennant, dated Oct. 5th, 1781, affords a firm confirmation of the fact. "I have ſeen at Moſcow, about 20 ſpurious animals from dogs and black wolves. They are for the moſt part like wolves, except that ſome carry their tails higher, and have a kind of hoarſe barking. They multiply among themſelves; and ſome of the whelps are greyiſh, ruſty, or even of the whitiſh hue of the arctic wolves; and one of thoſe I ſaw, in ſhape, tail, and hair, and even in barking, ſo like a cur, that was it not for his head and ears, his ill-natured look, and fearfulneſs at the approach of man, I ſhould hardly have believed that it was of the ſame breed." The dog is liable to many diſeaſes, as the ſcab, madneſs, &c. and he ſeldom wants the tænia or tape worm in his guts, eſpecially if he drinks dirty water.

(1.) CANIS FAMILIARIS, BRITISH VARIETIES OF THE. Having thus delineated the natural hiſtory of the domeſtic dog, we proceed to deſcribe the numerous varieties of this ſpecies. We begin with thoſe of our own iſland, as deſcribed by Dr Caius, among which are ſome varieties now loſt; and ſhall next give a brief account of all the known varieties in the world, as enumerated by Mr Kerr. Dr Caius, (or more properly KAYE,) arranges the Britiſh dogs in three grand diviſions, which he ſubdivides as follows:

Dr CAIUS's SYNOPSIS *of* BRITISH DOGS.

I. The MOST GENEROUS KINDS.			II. RUSTICI, or FARM DOGS.	III. DEGENERES, or MONGRELS.
Dogs of Chace.		Fowlers.	Lap-dogs.	(*a*) Shepherd's dog, N° 9.	(*a*) Wappe, N° 16.
Hounds.	Such as hunt by the eye.	(*b*) Spaniel, N° 3.	(*k*) Spaniel gentle or comforter, N° 8.	(*b*) Maſtiff, or ban dog, N° 15.	(*b*) Turnſpit, N° 13.
(*a*) Terrier. See N° 12.	(*d*) Gaze-hound, N° 1.	(*b*) Setter, N° 4.			(*c*) Dancer, N° 10.
(*b*) Harrier, N° 6.	(*e*) Grey-hound, N° 5.	(*i*) Water Spaniel or Finder, N° 2.			
(*c*) Bloodhound N° 11.	(*f*) Leviner, N° 7.				
	(*g*) Tumbler, N° 14.				

1. CANIS FAMILIARIS AGASÆUS, the gaze-hound, was amazingly ſwift and quick-ſighted. It chaced indifferently the fox, hare, or buck. It would ſelect from the herd the faſteſt and faireſt deer; purſue it by the eye; and, if loſt, recover it by its ſingular diſtinguiſhing faculty; nay, ſhould he rejoin the herd, this dog would fix unerringly on the ſame. This ſpecies is now loſt, or at leaſt unknown to us.

2. CANIS F. AQUATICUS, or finder, was uſed in fowling; was the ſame with our water ſpaniel; and was uſed to find or recover the game that was ſhot.

3. CANIS F. HISPANIOLUS, the ſpaniel. From the name it may be ſuppoſed that we were indebted to Spain for this breed. There were two varieties of this kind; the firſt uſed to ſpring the game, which are the ſame with our ſtarters. The other variety was uſed only for the net, and was called

4. CANIS F. INDEX, or the ſetter; a kind well known at preſent. This kingdom has been long remarkable for producing dogs of this ſort, particular care having been taken to preſerve the breed in the utmoſt purity. They are ſtill diſtinguiſhed by the name of *Engliſh ſpaniels*; ſo that, notwithſtanding the derivation of the name, it is probable they are natives of Great Britain.

5. CANIS F. LEPORARIUS, the grey-hound. Dr Caius informs us, that it takes its name *quod præcipui gradus ſit inter canes*, the firſt in rank among dogs. That it was formerly eſteemed ſo, appears from the foreſt laws of king Canute, who enacted that no one under the degree of a *gentleman* ſhould preſume to keep a grey-hound; and ſtill more ſtrongly from an old Welſh ſaying which ſignifies, that "you may know a gentleman by his hawk, his horſe and his grey-hound:" diſtinctions, after all, of no great merit. The variety called the *Highland grey-hound*, and now become very ſcarce, is of very great ſize, ſtrong, deep-cheſted, and covered with long rough hair. This kind was much eſteemed in former days, and uſed in great numbers by the powerful chieftains in their magnificent hunting matches. It had as ſagacious noſtrils as the blood-hound, and was as fierce.

6. CANIS F. LEVERARIUS, the harrier, is a ſpecies well known at preſent: it derives its name from its uſe, that of hunting the hare.

7. CANIS F. LEVINARIUS, or LORARIUS: the leviner or lyemmer: the firſt name is derived from the lightneſs of the kind; the other from the old

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old word *lyemme*, a thong; this ſpecies being uſed to be led in a thong, and ſlipped at the game. Dr Caius, ſays, that this dog was a kind that hunted both by ſcent and ſight; and in the form of its body obſerved a medium between the hound and the grey-hound. This probably is the kind now known among us by the name of the *Iriſh grey-hound*, a dog now extremely ſcarce in that kingdom, the late king of Poland having procured from them as many as poſſible. They were of the kind called by Buffon *le grand Danois*, and probably imported there by the Danes who long poſſeſſed that kingdom. Their uſe ſeems originally to have been for the chace of wolves, with which Ireland ſwarmed till the end of the laſt century. As ſoon as theſe animals were extirpated, the number of the dogs decreaſed; for, from that period, they were kept only for ſtate.

8. CANIS F. MELITÆUS, or FOTOR, the ſpaniel gentle, or comforter, of Dr Caius, the modern lap-dog. The Malteſe little dogs were as much eſteemed by the fine ladies of paſt times, as thoſe of Bologna are among the modern. Old Hollingſhed is ridiculouſly ſevere on the fair of his days for their exceſſive paſſion for theſe little animals; which is ſufficient to prove that it was, in his time (in the reign of Q. Elizabeth,) a novelty.

9. CANIS F. PASTORALIS, the ſhepherd's dog, is the ſame that is uſed at preſent, either in guarding our flocks, or in driving herds of cattle. This kind is ſo well trained for theſe purpoſes as to attend to every part of the herd, be it ever ſo large; confine them to the road; and force in every ſtraggler, without doing it the leaſt injury.

10. CANIS F. SALTITATOR, the dancing dog, was taught variety of tricks, and carried about as a ſhew.

11. CANIS F. SANGUINARIUS, the blood-hound or *ſleuth-hounde* of the Scots, was a dog of great uſe. See BLOOD-HOUND.

12. CANIS F. TERRARIUS, the TERRIER, takes its name from *terra*, earth, alluding to its ſubterraneous employments, being a ſmall kind of hound uſed to force the fox or other beaſts of prey out of their holes; and in former times, rabbits out of their burrows into nets.

13. CANIS F. VERSATOR, the turn-ſpit.

14. CANIS F. VERTAGUS, the tumbler, took its prey by mere ſubtlety, depending neither on the ſagacity of its noſe, nor its ſwiftneſs.—If it came into a warren, it neither barked, nor ran on the rabbits; but by a ſeeming neglect of them or attention to ſomething elſe, deceived the object till it got within reach, ſo as to take it by a ſudden ſpring. This dog was leſs than the hound, more ſcraggy, had prickt up ears, and by Dr Caius's deſcription ſeems to anſwer to the modern Jurcher.

15. CANIS F. VILLATICUS, or CATENARIUS, the maſtiff or ban dog; a ſpecies of great ſize and ſtrength, and a very loud barker. Caius tells us that 3 of theſe were reckoned a match for a bear; and 4 for a lion; but from an experiment made in the tower of London, that noble quadruped was found an unequal match to only 3. Two of the dogs were diſabled in the combat, but the 3d forced the lion to ſeek for ſafety by flight. The Engliſh bull-dog ſeems to belong to this ſpecies; and probably is the dog our author mentions under the title of LANIARIUS. Great Britain was ſo noted for its maſtiffs, that the Roman emperors appointed an officer in this iſland under the name of *procurator ſyngrii*, whoſe ſole buſineſs was to breed, and tranſmit from hence to the amphitheatre, ſuch as would prove equal to the combats of the place. Gratius ſpeaks in high terms of the excellency of the Britiſh dog. Strabo tells us that the maſtiffs of Britain were trained to war, and were uſed by the Gauls in their battles; and it is certain a well trained maſtiff might be of uſe in diſtreſſing ſuch half armed and irregular combatants, as the adverſaries of the Gauls ſeem generally to have been before the Romans conquered them.

16. CANIS F. WAPPE derived this name from its note; its only uſe was to alarm the family by barking, if any perſon approached the houſe; being a variety of the mongrel kind, or what we now call *curs*; which were of no certain ſhape, being mixtures of all kinds of dogs.

(2.) CANIS FAMILIARIS, VARIETIES OF THE, IN GENERAL. The following liſt exhibits all the different varieties of the domeſtic dog, enumerated by Mr Kerr, whoſe liſt is more complete than that of any other zoologiſt. It includes the whole of Mr Pennant's ſyſtematic catalogue, inſerted in his *Hiſt. of Quadrupeds*, along with many others.

1. CANIS F. ÆGYPTIUS, the Egyptian or Turkiſh dog, without hair.

2. 3. CANIS F. AMERICANUS, the American dog, or Alco, is about the ſize of a ſquirrel, has a ſmall head, pendulous ears, a curved body and ſhort tail. Mr Kerr mentions two ſubdiviſions of this variety: viz.

a. CANIS F. AMERICANUS OBESUS, the Ytzcuintepotzotli of Hernandes, is prodigiouſly fat, has yelloviſh ears, ſhort neck and arched back covered with yellow hair: the tail is white, ſhort, and pendulous: the belly is large and ſpotted with black. The legs and feet are white. See *Plate* LIV. The female has 6 conſpicuous paps.

b. CANIS F. AMERICANUS PLANCUS, or the *techichi*, reſembles the ſmall dogs of Europe, but has a melancholy air.

4. CANIS F. ANGLICUS, the Engliſh MASTIFF; the MOLOSSUS of Linnæus, and the VILLATICUS of Dr Caius. See § 1. N° 15. This noble animal is peculiar to Britain, and grows to a great ſize. He has a large head, great lips, which hang down on each ſide of the mouth, and a very robuſt body, thick and ſtrongly made. He is extremely uſeful as a watch dog, and fulfils his duty, with fidelity and even judgment. If a ſtranger come into the place he is appointed to guard, he will go peaceably along with him, ſo long as he touches nothing, but if he attempts to touch the goods, or leave the place, he will inform him, firſt by gentle growling, and then by harſher methods, that he muſt neither do miſchief nor go away. He never uſes violence, unleſs reſiſted, and even in that caſe, will often ſeize the perſon, throw him down, and hold him for hours without biting him, until his maſter comes.

5. CANIS F. AQUATICUS MAJOR, the great water dog, with hair long and curled like the fleece of a ſheep. See § 1. N° 2.

6. CANIS

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6. CANIS F. AQUATICUS MINOR, the leſſer water dog, differs only in ſize from the preceding, except that the hair about the ears is longer.

7. CANIS F. AQUATILIS, the barbet, has long coarſe hair, and the tail is truncated, or ſeems cut off in the middle. This ſeems to be the ſame, ſays Mr Kerr, with the Aquaticus Major (N° 5.) but he has ranked it as a diſtinct variety. Mr Pennant gives a different deſcription of it.

8. CANIS F. AVICULARIS, the POINTER, has a ſhort tail appearing as if cut. It is often ſpotted like a panther, and is uſed for catching birds whence the name *avicularis*. See § 1. N° 4.

9. 10. CANIS F. BREVIPILIS, the PYAME, or ſmall cocking ſpaniel; the MELITÆUS of Dr Caius. See § 1. N° 8. It has a ſmall rounded head, with a ſhort ſnout, and the tail turned up on the back. Mr Kerr reckons two ſub-varieties; and ſays "Dr Gmelin has evidently confounded 2 diſtinct varieties of the ſmall cocking ſpaniel:" viz.

a. CANIS F. BREVIDIPILIS GALLICUS, or the pyrame, is black but marked on the legs and above each eye with red or flame colour:

b. CANIS F. BREVIPILIS REGALIS, the King Charles's ſpaniel, is entirely black and has black palate. Mr Pennant ſays K. Charles II. never went out unattended by numbers of this kind.

11. CANIS F. CURSORIUS, the grey-hound, or CURS-HUND of Ridinger, has a long narrow head, with a ſtrong lengthened ſnout, and ſmall half pendulous ears: the legs are long and ſtrongly made, and the body is long and thin.

12. CANIS F. CURSORIUS HIBERNICUS, the Iriſh grey-hound, or MATIN of Buffon, ſuppoſed to be the LEVINARIUS of Dr Caius, (See § 1. N° 7. is nearly as large as a maſtiff, having an arched body, and narrow projecting ſnout.

13. CANIS F. CURSORIUS TURCICUS, the Turkiſh grey-hound, is of the ſize of a maſtiff, with an arched body and narrow ſnout, and the fur ſomewhat curled.

14. CANIS F. DOMESTICUS, or PASTORALIS, the ſhepherd's dog, (See § 1. N° 9.) has erect ears, and the tail is woolly underneath. It is the *chien de berger* of Buffon, ſo called, becauſe it becomes without diſcipline almoſt inſtantly the guardian of the flocks, keeps them within bounds, and defends them from the attacks of the wolves. This variety in England is ſmall and weak. Thoſe of France and the Alps are very large and ſtrong; ſharp-noſed; ſharp eared; very hairy, eſpecially about the neck; and have their tails turned up or curled. Their faces often ſhow the marks of their combats with the wolf.

15. CANIS F. EXTRARIUS, or HISPANICUS, the ſpaniel; the HISPANIOLUS of Caius, (§ 1. N° 3.) and *epagneul* of Buffon; has long pendulous woolly ears. Mr Pennant includes under this variety all the ſub-varieties from the ſetting dog to the little lap dog.

16—18. CANIS F. FRICATOR, the *doguin* of Buffon, or pug-dog, has the noſe crooked upwards, the ears pendulous, and the body ſquare built. It reſembles the bull dog; but is much ſmaller, and entirely wants his ferocity. Mr Kerr diſtinguiſhes two ſub-varieties; viz.

a. CANIS F. FRICATOR GALLICUS, the Artois dog of Buffon, produced between the pug dog, and baſtard pug dog.

b. CANIS F. FRICATOR HISPANICUS, the Alicant dog of Buffon, produced between the pug dog and ſpaniel.

19. CANIS F. GALLICUS, the hound, or *chien courant* of Buffon, is of a whitiſh colour, has pendulous ears and a dew-claw on each hind foot. Mr Pennant confounds it with the blood-hound.

20. CANIS F. GRAIUS, the common GREY-HOUND; the LEPORARIUS of Caius, (See § 1. N° 5.) the Greek, or Scotch hunting dog of Ray and Geſner, and the *levrier* of Buffon; is about the ſize of a wolf; has an arched body and narrow ſnout.

21. CANIS F. GRAIUS HIRSUTUS, the rough grey-hound, or *Zotiger wind-hund* of Ridinger, is of the ſame ſize, body, and ſnout with the laſt variety, (N° 20.) but has the hair longer and curled. This ſeems to be the *Grand Danois*, or great Daniſh dog of Buffon. Mr Pennant thinks it probable, that of this kind were the dogs of Epirus, mentioned by Ariſtotle, lib. iii. c. 21: or thoſe of Albania, ſo beautifully deſcribed by Pliny, lib. viii. c. 40. Perhaps to this head may be referred the vaſt dogs of Thibet, ſaid by Marco Paolo to be as big as aſſes, and uſed in that country to take wild beaſts, and eſpecially the wild oxen called *beyamini*.

22. CANIS F. GRAIUS ITALICUS, the Italian grey-hound, is of the ſame form of body and ſnout with the two laſt (N° 20, 21.) but is of a ſmall ſize.

23. CANIS F. GRAIUS ORIENTALIS, the oriental grey-hound, is tall, ſlender, and has very pendulous ears, with long hairs on the tail hanging down a great length.

24. CANIS F. HYBRIDUS the *roquet* of Buffon, or baſtard pug dog, has ſmall half pendulous ears, and a thick flattiſh noſe.

25. CANIS F. ISLANDICUS, the Iceland dog, has ears erect, with pendulous points, and long hair, except on the ſnout, which is ſhort.

26. CANIS F. LANIARIUS, the lurcher, has a narrow body covered with ſhort thick-ſet hair. The legs are ſtrong, and the tail is thick and ſtraight.

27. CANIS F. LANIARIUS APRINUS, the rough lurcher, reſembles the laſt (N° 26.) in body, legs and tail, but is covered with long harſh hair.

28. CANIS F. LANIARIUS SUILLUS, the boar lurcher, has a ſtrong head and ſnout; the hind part of the body is lank; the legs are long, and the hair long and harſh.

29. CANIS F. LEONINUS, the lion dog, is exceedingly ſmall, and has long hair on the fore part of the body; but ſhort and ſmooth on the hind parts.

30. CANIS F. MELITÆUS, the Malteſe or ſhock dog, (See § 1. N° 8.) the *bichon* of Buffon, is about the ſize of a ſquirrel, having very long ſoft ſilky hair all over the body.

31. CANIS F. MOLOSSUS, the bull dog, *le dogue* of Buffon, the ſagacious ſanguinary dog of Geſner, is as large as a wolf, very ſtrong and robuſt, has a ſhort noſe, the ſides of the lips very pendulous, and the under jaw longer than the upper. It is cruel and very fierce, often biting before it barks

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barks; peculiar to England; the breed fcarcer than it has been, fince the barbarous cuftom of bull-baiting has declined. There are feveral fubvarieties, differing in fize and colour.

32. CANIS F. POMERANUS, the Pomeranian or wolf dog of Buffon has long hairs on the head, erect ears, and the tail much curved upwards on the rump.

33. CANIS F. SAGAX, the fagacious dog, or German hound, has pendulous ears, and a dew-claw on each hind foot.

34. CANIS F. SCOTICUS, the blood-hound, or fagacious Scotch dog of Gefner. See § 1. N° 11: and BLOOD-HOUND, § 2.

35. CANIS F. SIBERICUS, the Siberian dog, has erect ears, a curled up tail, and long hair on the whole body.

36. CANIS F. VARIEGATUS, the little Daniſh dog, has fmall half pendulous ears, a fmall pointed nofe, and thin legs.

37. CANIS F. VENATICUS, the *leit-hund* of Ridinger. Mr Kerr fays he is "uncertain what particular variety of hound is here meant, as no defcription of it is given by Dr Gmelin;" whom Mr Kerr chiefly follows in his *Animal Kingdom*.

38—40. CANIS F. VERTEGUS, the turnfpit, or VERSATOR of CAIUS, (§ 1. N° 13.) has fhort legs and a long body, which is moftly fpotted. Mr Kerr mentions 3 fub-varieties of this kind; viz.

a. CANIS F. VERTEGUS RECTUS, with ſtraight legs:

b. CANIS F. VERTEGUS VALGUS, with crooked legs; and,

c. CANIS F. VERTEGUS VILLOSUS, with long fhaggy hair.

vii. CANIS HYÆNA has a ſtraight jointed tail, with the hair of its neck erect, fmall naked ears and four toes on each foot. It inhabits Aſiatic Turky, Syria, Perſia, and Barbary. Like the jackal, it violates the repofitories of the dead, and greedily devours the putrid contents of the grave; like it, preys on the herds and flocks; yet for want of other food, will eat the roots of plants, and the tender ſhoots of the palms: but, contrary to the nature of the former, it is an unſociable animal; is ſolitary, and inhabits the chaſms of the rocks. The ſuperſtitious Arabs, when they kill one, carefully bury the head, leſt it ſhould be employed for magical purpoſes; as the neck was of old by the Theſſalian ſorcereſs. (*Lucan.* vi. 672.) The ancients were wild in their opinion of the hyæna; they believed that its neck conſiſted of one bone without any joint; that it changed its ſex; imitated the human voice; had the power of charming the ſhepherds, and, as it were rivetting them to the place they ſtood on: no wonder that an ignorant Arab ſhould attribute preternatural powers to its remains. They are cruel, fierce, and untameable animals, of a moſt malevolent aſpect; have a ſort of obſtinate courage, which will make them face ſtronger quadrupeds than themſelves. Kæmpfer relates, that he ſaw one which had put two lions to flight, regarding them with the utmoſt coolneſs. Their voice is hoarſe, a diſagreeable mixture of growling and roaring. Mr Kerr mentions two varieties: viz.

1. CANIS HYÆNA ÆTHIOPICUS, the Abyſſinian Hyæna. "The tail is bufhy, and the body is marked with curved ſtripes. It inhabits the NE. of Africa. Whether this animal (ſays Mr Kerr) as deſcribed and figured by Mr Bruce, be a diſtinct ſpecies, I do not pretend to determine. In magnitude, ferocity, and manners, it reſembles the following ſpecies;" (N° 2.) "but its body, which is of a yelloviſh brown colour, is marked with curved ſtripes of black, in form of a reverſed Italian *f*; the muzzel is black; the legs are ſtriped acroſs with black, and the bufhy tail is of a reddiſh brown colour.

2. CANIS HYÆNA CROCUTA, the SPOTTED HYÆNA, is thus deſcribed by Mr Pennant. It has a large and flat head; ſome long hairs above each eye; very long whiſkers on each ſide of the noſe; a ſhort black mane; hair on the body ſhort and ſmooth; ears ſhort and little pointed, their outſide black, inſide cinerous; face and upper part of the head black; body and limbs reddiſh brown, marked with diſtinct black round ſpots; the hind legs with black tranſverſe bars; the tail ſhort, black and full of hair. It inhabits Guinea, Ethiopia, and the Cape: lives in holes in the earth, or cliffs of the rocks; preys by night; howls horribly; breaks into the folds, and kills two or three ſheep: devours as much as it can, and carries away one for a future repaſt; will attack mankind, ſcrape open graves, and devour the dead. Boſman has given this creature the name of *jackal*; by which Buffon being miſled, makes it ſynonymous with the common jackal. This hyæna is called the TIGER WOLF by the coloniſts at the Cape, where it is a very common and formidable beaſt of prey. Of this animal, formerly but imperfectly known, the following account is given by Dr Sparmann in his voyage to the Cape. "The night or the duſk of the evening only, is the time in which theſe animals ſeek their prey, after which they are uſed to roam about both ſeparately and in flocks. But one of the moſt unfortunate properties of this creature is, that it cannot keep its own counſel. The language of it cannot eaſily be taken down upon paper; however, with a view to make this ſpecies of wolf better known than it has been hitherto, I ſhall obſerve, that it is by means of a ſound ſomething like the following *aauae*, and ſometimes *ooao*, yelled out with a tone of deſpair (at the interval of ſome minutes between each howl,) that nature obliges this, the moſt voracious animal in all Africa, to diſcover itſelf, juſt as it does the moſt venomous of all the American ſerpents, by the rattle in its tail, itſelf, to warn every one to avoid its mortal bite. This ſame rattle-ſnake would ſeem, in conſequence of thus betraying its own deſigns, and of its great inactivity (to be as it were nature's ſtep-child,) if, according to many credible accounts, it had not the wondrous property of charming its prey by fixing its eye upon it. The like is affirmed alſo of the tiger-wolf. This creature, it is true, is obliged to give information againſt itſelf, but on the other hand, is actually poſſeſſed of the peculiar gift of being enabled, in ſome meaſure, to imitate the cries of other animals; by which means this arch deceiver is ſometimes lucky enough to beguile and attract calves, foals, lambs, and other animals. Near ſome of the larger farms, where there is a great deal of cattle, this ravenous beaſt is to be found

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found almoſt every night; and at the ſame time frequently from one hour to another betraying itſelf by its howlings, gives the dogs the alarm. The peaſants aſſured me, that the cunning of the wolves was ſo great, (adding, that the trick had now and then even ſucceeded with ſome of them,) that a party of them, half flying, and defending themſelves, would decoy the whole pack of dogs to follow them to the diſtance of a gun-ſhot or two from the farm, with a view to give an opportunity to the reſt of the wolves to come out from their ambuſcade, and, without meeting with the leaſt reſiſtance, carry off booty ſufficient for themſelves and their fugitive brethren. As the tiger-wolf, though a much larger and ſtronger animal, does not venture, without being driven to the utmoſt neceſſity, to meaſure its ſtrength with the common dog, this is certainly an evident proof of its cowardice. Neither does this ſame voracious beaſt dare openly to attack oxen, cows, horſes, or any of the larger animals, while they make the leaſt appearance of defending themſelves, or even as long as they do not betray any ſigns of fear. On the other hand, it has art enough to ruſh in upon them ſuddenly and unexpectedly, at the ſame time ſetting up a horrid and ſtrange cry, ſo as to ſet them a running in conſequence of the fright, that it may afterwards keep cloſe to their heels with ſafety, till it has an opportunity with one bite or ſtroke to rip up the belly of its prey, (even though it ſhould be ſo large an animal as a draught-ox,) or elſe give it ſome dangerous bite, and ſo at one ſingle bout make itſelf maſter of its antagoniſt. On this account the peaſants are obliged to drive their cattle home every evening before it is dark; excepting the more conſiderable droves of draught oxen, which they let roam about day and night to ſeek their food unattended, by reaſon that they are uſed both to the country and the artifices of the wolves, and can therefore the eaſier depend upon and defend each other. Travellers, on the other hand, who are obliged to keep on in their journey, frequently ſuffer great loſſes by turning their cattle out at night; eſpecially of the young ones, which are eaſieſt ſcared. The Hottentots informed me that it was ſtill within the memory of many, that the tiger-wolf was bold enough to ſteal upon them and moleſt them in their huts, particularly by carrying off their children. This, however, is now no longer the caſe; a circumſtance, perhaps, proceeding from the introduction of fire arms into the country, a circumſtance which, in theſe latter times, has cauſed this, as well as other wild beaſts, to ſtand in greater awe of man than it did formerly. I have heard the following ſtory of the tiger-wolf mentioned, as being related in a certain treatiſe on the Cape, of which I now cannot exactly remember the title. The tale is laughable enough, though perhaps not quite ſo probable. 'At a feaſt near the Cape one night, a trumpeter who had got his fill was carried out of doors, in order that he might cool himſelf, and get ſober again. The ſcent of him ſoon drew thither a tiger-wolf, which threw him on his back, and dragged him along with him as a corpſe, and conſequently a fair prize, up towards Table-mountain. During this, however, our drunken muſician waked, enough in his ſenſes to know the danger of his ſituation, and to ſound the alarm with his trumpet, which he carried faſtened to his ſide. The wild beaſt, as may eaſily be ſuppoſed, was not leſs frightened in his turn,' Any other beſides a trumpeter would, in ſuch circumſtances, have undoubtedly been no better than wolf's meat. In the mean while it is certain, that theſe wolves are to be found almoſt every dark night about the ſhambles at the Cape, where they devour the offals of bones, ſkin, &c. which are thrown out there in great quantities, and drag away with them what they cannot eat. The inhabitants repay theſe good offices of the hyæna with a free and unlimited privilege of acceſs and egreſs. The dogs too hereabouts, perfectly accuſtomed to their company, are ſaid never to throw any impediment in their way; ſo that the beaſt, entertained and fed in the very heart of the town, has been ſeldom known to do any miſchief there. It is alſo true, that theſe wolves, in different parts of Africa, exhibit different degrees of courage; this, however, may perhaps proceed from their being of different ſpecies in different parts. Yet in this very greedineſs of the hyæna, and its diſpoſition to conſume every thing it can get at, the provident economy of nature is abundantly evinced. The flowery fields at the Cape would certainly ſoon become hideous and diſfigured with carcaſes and ſkeletons, the relics of the great quantity of game of all ſorts which graze and die there in ſucceſſion, were not the tiger-wolf manifeſtly ſubſervient to nature in the revelation of her police, by clearing her theatre from them; nay, I had almoſt ſaid the wolf alone; for lions and tigers, for example, never eat bones, and are not very fond of carcaſes. Theſe are ſerviceable in another way. They make the other animals vigilant and attentive to the functions for which nature has deſigned them; and beſides anſwering ſeveral other intentions of providence, they ſerve in conjunction with mankind, to keep in a juſt equilibrium the increaſe of the animal kingdom; ſo that it may not exceed the ſupplies afforded it by the vegetable part of the creation, and by this means prevent the neceſſary renewal of the latter by ſeeds, &c. and thus, by deſolating it, and laying it waſte, in the end impoveriſh and deſtroy themſelves, and die moſt wretched victims to want and hunger; ſo that, notwithſtanding the immenſe quantities of game exiſting in this country, there are very ſeldom found any bones in the haunts they have left, and never after the tiger, lion, jackal, wild cat, and wild dog. Theſe latter animals, that they may not encumber and litter the ground which nature has ordained them to clear, never go out of their dens and caverns when they find themſelves ſick and diſabled; but there, oppreſſed with hunger and diſeaſe, await the tranſitory moment, when they muſt pay obedience to nature's laſt law."

viii. CANIS INDICUS, or AUSTRALIS, the antarctic fox, the COYOTL of Fernandez, and the LOUP-RENARD of Bougainville, has ſhort pointed ears; irides hazel; head and body cinereous brown; hair more woolly than that of the common fox, reſembling much that of the arctic; legs daſhed with ruſt colour; tail duſky, tipped with white,

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white, shorter and more bushy than that of the common fox, to which it is about one third superior in size. It has much the habit of the wolf, in ears, tail, and strength of limbs. Hence the French name, *loup-renard*, or wolf-fox. It may be a wolf degenerated by climate. The largest are those of Senegal: the next are the European: those of North America are still smaller. The Mexican wolves, (N° xiii.) which Mr Pennant apprehends to be this species, are again less; and this, which inhabits the Falkland isles, near the extremity of South America, is dwindled to the size described. This is the only land animal of those distant isles: it has a fetid smell, and barks like a dog. It lives near the shores; kennels like a fox; and forms regular paths from bay to bay, probably for the convenience of surprising the water-fowl, on which it lives. It is at times very meagre, from want of prey; and is extremely tame. The islands were probably stocked with those animals by means of masses of ice broken from the continent, and carried by the currents.

ix. CANIS KARAGAN, or DESERT FOX, is thus described by Mr Kerr: "The tail is straight; the body is of a grey colour, and the ears are black. It inhabits the deserts belonging to the Kalmucks and Kirgises."

x. CANIS LAGOPUS, the arctic fox, has a sharp nose; short rounded ears, almost hid in the fur; long and soft hair, somewhat woolly; short legs; toes covered on all parts, like that of a common hair, with fur; tail short and more bushy than that of the common fox, of a blueish grey or ash colour, sometimes white: the young of the grey are black before they come to maturity: the hair much longer in winter than summer, as is usual with animals of cold climates. It inhabits the countries bordering on the Frozen Sea; Kamschatka; the isles between it and America, and the opposite parts of America discovered in captain Bering's expedition, in 1741; and is found in Greenland, Iceland, Spitzbergen, Nova Zembla, and Lapland. It burrows under ground, forms holes many feet in length, and strews the bottom with moss. In Greenland and Spitzbergen it lives in the clefts of rocks, not being able to burrow, by reason of the frost: 2 or 3 pair inhabit the same hole. They are in heat about Lady-day; and during that time they continue in the open air, but afterwards take to their holes. They go with young 9 weeks: like dogs, they continue united in copulation: they bark like that animal, for which reason the Russians call them *pestzi*, or dogs. They have all the cunning of the common fox; prey on geese, ducks and other water fowl, before they can fly; on grouse, hares, and the eggs of birds; and in Greenland (through necessity) on berries, shellfish, or any thing the sea throws up. But their principal food in the N. of Asia and in Lapland is the leming, or Lapland marmot: those of the countries last mentioned are very migratory, pursuing the leming, which is a wandering animal: sometimes these foxes will desert the country for 3 or 4 years, probably in pursuit of their prey; for it is well known that the migrations of the leming are very inconstant, it appearing in some countries only once in several years. The people of Jenesea suspect they go to the banks of the Oby. Their chief rendezvous is on the banks of the Frozen Sea, and the rivers that flow into it, where they are found in great troops. The Greenlanders take them either in pitfalls dug in the snow, and baited with the capelin fish; or in springs made with whalebone, laid over a hole made in the snow, strewed over at bottom with the same kind of fish; or in traps made like little huts, with flat stones, with a broad one by way of door, which falls down (by means of a string baited on the inside with a piece of flesh) whenever the fox enters and pulls at it. The Greenlanders preserve the skins for traffic; and in cases of necessity eat the flesh. They also make buttons of the skins; and split the tendons, and make use of them instead of thread. Mr Kerr mentions two varities; viz.

1. CANIS LAGOPUS ALBUS, the ISATIS, or white arctic fox: and

2. CANIS LAGOPUS CÆRULESCENS, the bluish arctic fox. The furs of these are more esteemed than those of the white.

xi. 1. CANIS LUPUS, the WOLF, has a long head, pointed nose, ears erect and sharp, long legs well clothed with hair; tail bushy and bending down, with the tip black; head and neck ash coloured; body generally pale brown tinged with yellow: sometimes found white, and sometimes entirely black. The wolf is larger and fiercer than a dog. His eyes sparkle, and there is a great degree of fury and wildness in his looks. He draws up his claws when he walks, to prevent his tread from being heard. His neck is short, but admits of very quick motion to either side. His teeth are large and sharp; and his bite is terrible, as his strength is great. The wolf, cruel, but cowardly and suspicious, flies from man; and seldom ventures out of the woods, except pressed by hunger: but when this becomes extreme, he braves danger, and will attack men, horses, dogs, and cattle of all kinds: even the graves of the dead are not proof against his rapacity. Unlike the dog, he is an enemy to all society, and keeps no company even with those of his own species. When several wolves appear together, it is not a society of peace, but of war; it is attended with tumult and dreadful prowlings, and indicates an attack upon some large animal, as a stag, an ox, or a formidable mastiff. This military expedition is no sooner finished than they separate, and each returns in silence to his solitude. There is even little intercourse between the males and females; they feel the mutual attractions of love but once a year, and never remain long together. The females come in season in winter: many males follow the same female; and this association is more bloody than the former; for they growl, chase, fight, and tear one another, and often sacrifice him that is preferred by the female. The female commonly flies a long time, fatigues her admirers, and retires while they sleep, with the most alert or most favourite male. The season of love continues only 12 or 15 days; it commences with the oldest females; the young ones are not so early disposed. The males have no marked period, but are equally ready at all times. They go from female to female, according as they are in a condition to receive them. They begin with the old females about the end of December, and finish with

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with the young ones in February or beginning of March. The time of geſtation is about 4½ months; and young whelps are found from the end of April to the month of July. The wolves copulate like the dogs, and have an oſſeous penis, ſurrounded with a ring, which ſwells and hinders them from ſeparating. When the females are about to bring forth they ſearch for a concealed place in the inmoſt receſſes of the foreſt. After fixing on the ſpot, they make it ſmooth and plain for a conſiderable ſpace, by cutting and tearing up with their teeth all the brambles and bruſh-wood. They then bring great quantities of moſs, and prepare a commodious bed for their young, which are generally 5 or 6, though ſometimes they bring forth 7, 8, and even 9, but never leſs than three. They come into the world blind, like the dogs; the mother ſuckles them ſome weeks, and ſoon learns them to eat fleſh, which ſhe prepares for them by tearing it into ſmall pieces. Some time after ſhe brings them field mice, young hares, partridges, and other fowls. The young wolves begin by playing with theſe animals, and at laſt worry them; then the mother pulls off the feathers, tears them in pieces, and gives a part to each of her young. They never leave their den till the end of ſix weeks or two months. They then follow their mother, who leads them to drink in the hollow trunk of a tree, or in ſome neighbouring pool. She conducts them back to the den, or, when any danger is apprehended, obliges them to conceal themſelves elſewhere. Though, like other females, the ſhe wolf is naturally more timid than the male; yet when her young are attacked, ſhe defends them with intrepidity; ſhe loſes all ſenſe of danger, and becomes perfectly furious. She never leaves them till their education is finiſhed, till they are ſo ſtrong as to need no aſſiſtance or protection, and have acquired talents fit for rapine, which generally happens in 10 or 12 months after their firſt teeth (which commonly fall out in the firſt month) are replaced. Wolves acquire their full growth at the end of 2 or 3 years, and live 15 or 20 years. When old, they turn whitiſh, and their teeth are much worn. When full, or fatigued, they ſleep, but more during the day than the night, and it is always a kind of ſlight ſlumber. They drink often; and, in the time of drought, when there is no water in the hollows, or in the trunks of old trees, they repair, ſeveral times in a day, to the brooks or rivulets. Though extremely voracious, if ſupplied with water, they can paſs 4 or 5 days without meat. The wolf has great ſtrength, eſpecially in the anterior parts of the body, in the muſcles of the neck and jaws. He carries a ſheep in his mouth, and, at the ſame time, outruns the ſhepherds; ſo that he can only be ſtopped or deprived of his prey by dogs. His bite is cruel, and always more obſtinate in proportion to the ſmallneſs of the reſiſtance; for when an animal can defend itſelf, he is cautious and circumſpect. He never fights but from neceſſity, and not from motives of courage. When wounded with a ball, he cries; and yet, when diſpatching him with bludgeons, he complains not. When he falls into a ſnare, he is ſo overcome with terror, that he may either be killed or taken alive without reſiſtance: he allows himſelf to be chained, muzzled, and led any-where, without exhibiting the leaſt ſymptom of reſentment or diſcontent. The ſenſes of the wolf are excellent, but particularly his ſenſe of ſmelling, which often extends farther than his eye. The odour of carrion ſtrikes him at the diſtance of more than a league. He likewiſe ſcents live animals very far, and hunts them a long time by following their tract. When he iſſues from the wood, he never loſes the wind. He ſtops upon the borders of the foreſt, ſmells on all ſides, and receives the emanations of living or dead animals brought to him from a diſtance by the wind. Though he gives the preference to living animals, yet he devours the moſt putrid carcaſes. He is fond of human fleſh; and, if ſtronger, he would perhaps eat no other. Wolves have been known to follow armies, to come in troops to the field of battle, where bodies are carelefsly interred, to tear them up, and to devour them with an inſatiable avidity. And, when once accuſtomed to human fleſh, theſe wolves ever after attack men, prefer the ſhepherd to the flock, devour women, and carry off children. Wolves of this vicious diſpoſition are called *Loups garoux* by the French peaſants, who ſuppoſe them to be poſſeſſed with ſome evil ſpirits; and of this nature were the *were wulfs* of the old Saxons. The wolf inhabits the continents of Europe, Aſia, Africa, and America; Kamtſchatka, and even as high as the arctic circle. The wolves of North America are the ſmalleſt; and, when reclaimed, are the dogs of the natives: the wolves of Senegal are the largeſt and fierceſt; they prey in company with the lion. Thoſe of the Cape are grey ſtriped with black; others are black. They are found in Africa as low as the Cape; and are believed to inhabit New Holland, animals reſembling them having been ſeen there by the late circumnavigators. Dampier's people alſo ſaw ſome half-ſtarved animals in the ſame county, which they ſuppoſed to be wolves. In the eaſt, and particularly in Perſia, wolves are exhibited as ſpectacles to the people. When young, they are learned to dance, or rather to perform a kind of wreſtling with a number of men. Chardin tells us, that a wolf, well educated in dancing, is ſold at 300 French crowns. This fact proves, that theſe animals, by time and reſtraint, are ſuſceptible of ſome kind of education. M. Buffon brought up ſeveral of them: "When young, or during the firſt year, (he informs us,) they are very docile, and even careſſing; and, if well fed, neither diſturb the poultry nor any other animal: but, at the age of 18 months or two years, their natural ferocity appears, and they muſt be chained, to prevent them from running off and doing miſchief. I brought up one till the age of 18 or 19 months, in a court along with fowls, none of which he ever attacked; but, for his firſt eſſay, he killed the whole in one night, without eating any of them. Another, having broken his chain, run off, after killing a dog with whom he had lived in great familiarity." Whole countries are ſometimes obliged to arm, in order to deſtroy the wolves. See HUNTING. Wolves are now ſo rare in the populated parts of America, that the inhabitants leave their ſheep the whole night unguarded: yet the governments of Pennſylvania and New

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Jerſey ſome years ago allowed a reward of 20 ſh. and the laſt even 30 ſh. for the killing of every wolf. Tradition informed them what a ſcourge thoſe animals had been to the colonies; ſo they wiſely, determined to prevent the like evil. In their infant ſtate, wolves came down in multitudes from the mountains, often attracted by the ſmell of the corpſe of hundreds of Indians who died of the ſmall-pox, brought among them by the Europeans: but the animals did not confine their depredations to the dead, but even devoured in their huts the ſick and dying ſavages. Beſides being hunted, wolves are deſtroyed by pitfalls, traps, or poiſon. A peaſant in France who kills a wolf, carries its head from village to village, and collects ſome ſmall reward from the inhabitants: the Kirghis-Coſſacks take the wolves by the help of a large hawk called *berkut*, which is trained for the diverſion, and will faſten on them and tear out their eyes. Britain, a few centuries ago, was much infeſted by them. It was, as appears by Hollingſhed, very noxious to the flocks in Scotland in 1577; nor was it entirely extirpated till about 1680, when the laſt wolf fell by the hand of the famous Sir Ewen Cameron. We may therefore with confidence aſſert the non-exiſtence of theſe animals, in our iſland, notwithſtanding Buffon maintains that the Engliſh pretend to the contrary. It has been a received opinion, that the other parts of theſe kingdoms were in early times delivered from this peſt by the care of king Edgar. In England he attempted to effect it, by commuting the puniſhments of certain crimes into the acceptance of a certain number of wolves tongues from each criminal; and in Wales by converting the tax of gold and ſilver into an annual tax of 300 wolves heads. But, notwithſtanding theſe his endeavours, and the aſſertions of ſome authors, his ſcheme proved abortive. We find, that ſome centuries after the reign of that monarch, theſe animals were increaſed to ſuch a degree as to become again the object of royal attention: accordingly Edward I. iſſued out his royal mandate to Peter Corbet to ſuperintend and aſſiſt in the deſtruction of them in the ſeveral counties of Glouceſter, Worceſter, Hereford, Salop, and Stafford; and in the adjacent county of Derby, (as Camden, p. 902, informs us,) certain perſons at Wormhill held their lands by the duty of hunting and taking the wolves that infeſted the country, whence they were ſtyled *wolvehunt*. Farther back, in Athelſtan's reign, wolves abounded ſo much in Yorkſhire, that a retreat was built at Flixton in that country, "to defend paſſengers from the wolves, that they ſhould not be devoured by them:" and ſuch ravages did thoſe animals make during winter, particularly in January, when the cold was ſevereſt; that the Saxons diſtinguiſhed that month by the name of the WOLF MONTH. They alſo called an outlaw *wolf's-head*, as being out of the protection of the law, proſcribed, and as liable to be killed as that deſtructive beaſt. Ireland was infeſted by wolves for many centuries after their extinction in England; for there are accounts of ſome being found there as late as 1710, the laſt preſentment for killing of wolves being made in the county of Cork about that time. In many parts of Sweden the number of wolves has been conſiderably diminiſhed by placing poiſoned carcaſes in their way: but in other places they are found in great multitudes. Hunger ſometimes compels them to eat lichens: theſe vegetables were found in the body of one killed by a ſoldier; but it was ſo weak, that it could ſcarcely move. It probably had fed on the lichen vulpinus, which is a known poiſon to theſe animals. Madneſs, in certain years, is apt to ſeize the wolf. The conſequences are often very melancholy. Mad wolves will bite hogs and dogs, and the laſt again the human ſpecies. In a ſingle pariſh 14 perſons were victims to this dreadful malady. The ſymptoms are the ſame with thoſe attendant on the bite of a mad dog. Fury ſparkles in their eyes; a glutinous ſaliva diſtils from their mouths; they carry their tails low, and bite indifferently men and beaſts. It is remarkable that this diſeaſe happens in the depth of winter, ſo can never be attributed to the rage of the dog-days. Often, towards ſpring, wolves get upon the ice of the ſea, to prey on the young ſeals, which they catch aſleep: but this repaſt often proves fatal to them; for the ice, detached from the ſhore, carries them to a great diſtance from land, before they are ſenſible of it. In ſome years a large diſtrict is by this means delivered from theſe pernicious beaſts; which are heard howling in a moſt dreadful manner, far in the ſea. When wolves come to make their attack on cattle, they never fail attempting to frighten away the men by their cries; but the ſound of the horn makes them fly like lightning. There is nothing valuable in the wolf but his ſkin, which makes a warm durable fur. His fleſh is ſo bad, that it is rejected with abhorrence by all other quadrupeds; and no animal but a wolf will voluntarily eat a wolf. The ſmell of his breath is exceedingly offenſive. As, to appeaſe hunger, he ſwallows indiſcriminately every thing he can find, corrupted fleſh, bones, hair, ſkins half tanned and covered with lime; he vomits frequently, and empties himſelf oftener than he fills. In fine, the wolf is conſummately diſagreeable; his aſpect is baſe and ſavage, his voice dreadful, his odour inſupportable, his diſpoſition perverſe, his manners ferocious; odious and deſtructive when living, and, when dead, he is perfectly uſeleſs, except the fur. Mr Kerr enumerates other 4 varieties of this ſpecies: viz.

2 CANIS LUPUS ALBUS, the white wolf, found near the Jeniſea, in the eaſtern parts of Aſiatic Ruſſia. It is much valued on account of its fur.

3. CANIS LUPUS FASCIATUS, the ſtriped wolf. It is of a grey colour ſtriped with black, and inhabits the Cape of Good Hope.

4. CANIS LUPUS FLAVUS, the yellow wolf, found in France and Germany, having a thicker fur and more yellow colour than the common kind. It is more wild, but leſs deſtructive, as it never troubles the flocks, or the habitations of men.

5. CANIS LUPUS NIGER, the black wolf. This variety inhabits Canada, and is of a uniform black colour. It is not ſo long as the common kind; the ears are larger, more erect and more diſtant, but in every other circumſtance it reſembles the common European wolf.

xii. CANIS MESOMELAS, the CAPESCH of Schreber,

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ber, the TENLIE, or *kenlie*, of the Hottentots, of CAPE JACKAL, has erect yellowish brown ears, mixed with a few scattered black hairs: the head is of a yellowish brown, mixed with black and white, growing darker towards the hind part: the sides are of a light brown, varied with dusky hairs: the body and also the back part of the legs are of a yellowish brown, lightest on the body; the throat, breast, and belly white. On the neck, shoulders, and back, is a band of black; broad on the shoulders, and growing narrower to the tail: when the hairs are smooth, the part on the neck seems barred with white; that on the shoulders with white conied marks, one within the other, the end pointing to the back: when the hairs are ruffled, these marks vanish or grow less distinct, and a hoariness appears in their stead. The tail is bushy, of a yellowish brown: marked on the upper part with a longitudinal stripe of black, and towards the end encircled with two rings of black, and is tipt with white. In length, the animal is 2½ feet, to the origin of the tail: the tail is one foot. It inhabits the countries about the Cape of Good Hope, and probably is found as high as the line.

xiii. 1. CANIS MEXICANUS, has a smooth tail, bent downwards. The body is ash coloured, variegated with dusky stripes and tawny spots, on the forehead, neck, breast, belly, and tail. Its head is large, and neck thick. It has great jaws and strong teeth. Above its mouth are bristles as large, but not so hard, as the spines of a hedgehog. Seba calls it the QUAUHPECOLTI, or mountain cat; and Hernandes stiles it the XOLOITCUINTLI, or Mexican wolf. It inhabits the warm parts of Mexico and New Spain, and agrees with the European wolf in its manners; whence it is also called LUPUS, though ranked as a different species. Mr Kerr mentions another variety, viz.

2. CANIS MEXICANUS ALBUS, the white Mexican wolf; agreeing in every thing with the preceding except that it is uniformly white.

xiv. CANIS THOUS, or the Surinam wolf, has a smooth tail bent downwards. The body is grey on the upper and white on the under parts. Its face has a wart over each eye, on each cheek and under the throat. It is about the size of a large cat; and, according to Linnæus, is found at Surinam. It is mentioned also by Mr Pennant. Mr Kerr says, its tongue is fringed at the sides.

xv. CANIS VIRGINIANUS, the GREY FOX, of Catesby, &c. has a sharp nose; sharp, long, upright ears; legs long; colour grey, except a little redness about the ears. It inhabits Carolina, and the warmer parts of North America: It differs from the arctic fox in form, and the nature of its dwelling agrees with the common fox in the first, but varies from it in the last: It never burrows, but lives in hollow trees; it gives no diversion to the sportsman; for after a mile's chace, it takes to its retreat; it has no strong smell; it feeds on poultry, birds, &c. These foxes are easily made tame; their skins, when in season, are used for muffs.

xvi. 1. CANIS VULPES, the FOX, has straight tail, white at the point. His body is yellowish, or rather straw-coloured; his ears are small and erect; his lips are whitish, and his fore feet black. From the base of the tail a strong scent is emitted, which to some people is very fragrant, and to others extremely disagreeable. The fox is a native of almost every quarter of the globe, and is of such a wild and savage nature, that it is impossible fully to tame him. He is esteemed to be the most sagacious and the most crafty of all beasts of prey. The former quality he shows in his method of providing himself with an asylum, where he retires from pressing dangers, dwells, and brings up his young: and his craftiness is chiefly discovered by the schemes he falls upon to catch lambs, geese, hens, and all kinds of small birds. The fox fixes his abode on the border of the wood, in the neighbourhood of cottages: he listens to the crowing of the cocks and the cries of the poultry. He scents them at a distance; he chooses his time with judgment; he conceals his road as well as his design: he slips forward with caution, sometimes even trailing his body, and seldom makes a fruitless expedition. If he can leap the wall, or get in underneath, he ravages the court yard, puts all to death, and then retires softly with his prey, which he either hides under the herbage, or carries off to his kennel. He returns in a few minutes for another, which he carries off, or conceals in the same manner, but in a different place. In this way he proceeds till the progress of the sun, or some movements in the house, advertise him that it is time to retire to his den. He plays the same game with the catchers of thrushes, woodcocks, &c. He visits the nets and bird-lime very early in the morning, carries off successively the birds which are entangled, and lays them in different places, especially near the sides of highways, in the furrows, under the herbage or brushwood, where they sometimes lie 2 or 3 days; but he knows perfectly where to find them when he is in need. He hunts the young hares in the plains, seizes old ones in their seats, never misses those which are wounded, digs out the rabbits in the warrens, discovers the nests of partridges and quails, seizes the mothers on the eggs, and destroys a vast quantity of game. The fox is exceedingly voracious; besides flesh of all kinds, he eats, with equal avidity, eggs, milk, cheese, fruits, and particularly grapes. When the young hares and partridges fail him, he makes war against rats, field mice, serpents, lizards, toads, &c. Of these he destroys vast numbers; and this is the only service he does to mankind. He is so fond of honey, that he attacks the wild bees, wasps, and hornets. They at first put him to flight by a thousand stings; but he retires only for the purpose of rolling himself on the ground to crush them; and he returns so often to the charge, that he obliges them to abandon the hive, which he soon uncovers, and devours both the honey and wax. In a word he eats fish, lobsters, grass-hopper, &c. The fox is not easily, and never fully tamed: he languishes when deprived of liberty; and, if kept too long in a domestic state, he dies of chagrin. Foxes produce but once a year; and the litter commonly consists of 4 or 5, seldom 6, and never less than 3. When the female is full, she retires, and seldom goes out of her hole, where she prepares a bed for her young. She comes in season in the winter; and young foxes are found in the month of April. When she perceives that her retreat is discovered, and

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that her young have been disturbed, she carries them off one by one, and goes in search of another habitation. The young are brought forth blind; like the dogs, they grow 18 months, or two years, and live 13 or 14 years.—The senses of the fox are as good as those of the wolf; his sentiment is more delicate; and the organs of his voice are more pliant and perfect. The wolf sends forth only frightful howlings; but the fox barks, yelps, and utters a mournful cry like that of the peacock. He varies his tones according to the different sentiments with which he is affected: he has an accent peculiar to the chace, the tone of desire, of complaint, and of sorrow. He has another cry expressive of acute pain, which he utters only when he is shot, or has some of his members broken; for he never complains of any other wound, and, like the wolf, may be beat till he is killed with a bludgeon without complaining; but he always defends himself to the last with great courage and bravery. His bite is obstinate and dangerous; and the severest blows will hardly make him quit his hold. His yelping is a species of barking, and consists of a quick succession of similar tones; at the end of which he generally raises his voice similar to the cry of the peacock. In winter, particularly during frost, he yelps perpetually; but, in summer, he is almost entirely silent, and, during this season, he casts his hair. He sleeps sound, and may be easily approached without wakening; he sleeps in a round form, like the dog; but, when he only reposes himself, he extends his hind legs, and lies on his belly. It is in this situation that he spies the birds along the hedges, and meditates schemes for their surprise. The fox flies when he hears the explosion of a gun, or smells gun powder. He is exceedingly fond of grapes, and does much mischief in vineyards. Various methods are daily employed to destroy foxes: they are hunted with dogs; iron traps are frequently set at their holes; which are sometimes smoked to make them run out, that they may fall into the snares, or be killed by dogs or fire arms. The chace of the fox requires less apparatus, and is more amusing than that of the wolf. To the latter every dog has great reluctance; but all dogs hunt the fox spontaneously and with pleasure; for, though his odour be strong, they often prefer him to the stag or the hare. See HUNTING. Of all animals the fox has the most significant eye, by which it expresses every passion of love, fear, hatred, &c. He is remarkably playful; but, like all savage creatures self reclaimed, will on the least offence bite those he is most familiar with. He is a great admirer of his bushy tail, with which he frequently amuses and exercises himself, by running in circles to catch it; and in cold weather, wraps it round his nose. The smell of this animal is in general very strong, but that of the urine is remarkably fetid. This seems so offensive even to himself, that he will take the trouble of digging a hole in the ground, stretching his body at full length over it; and there, after depositing his water, cover it over with the earth, as the cat does its dung. The smell is so obnoxious, that it has often proved the means of the fox's escape from the dogs; who have so strong an aversion at the filthy effluvia, as to avoid encountering the animal it came from. It is said that the fox makes use of its urine as an expedient to force the cleanly badger from its habitation: whether that is the means, is rather doubtful; but that the fox makes use of the badger's hole is certain; not through want of ability to form its own retreat, but to save itself some trouble; for after the expulsion of the first inhabitant, the fox improves as well as enlarges it considerably, adding several chambers, and providently making several entrances to secure a retreat from every quarter. In warm weather, it will quit its habitation for the sake of basking in the sun or to enjoy the free air; but then it rarely lies exposed, but chooses some thick brake, that it may rest secure from surprize. Crows, magpies, and other birds who consider the fox as their common enemy, will often, by their notes of anger point out its retreat.—The skin of this animal is furnished with a warm soft fur, which in many parts of Europe is used to make muffs and to line clothes. Vast numbers are taken in Le Vallais, and the Alpine parts of Switzerland. At Lausanne there are furriers who are often in possession of between 2000 and 3000 skins, all taken in one winter. There are several varieties of the fox, differing either in colour or form: viz.

2—4. CANIS VULPES ALOPEX, the brant fox, or field fox of Linnæus, considered by him as a distinct species, has a straight tail, with a black tip, and a blackish fur, thicker than that of the common kind. Mr Kerr says, it "inhabits Europe, Asia, and Chili, and is less frequent, smaller, and of a darker colour, than the common fox, to which it is very similar in all other respects.—That described by Mr Pennant came from Pennsylvania. Authors do not seem properly agreed about the animal to which this name is given: At least the *coal fox* of Buffon, and the *brant fox* of Pennant, are considerably different, though quoted by Gmelin as synonymous." They are therefore added as sub-varieties.

a. CANIS VULPES ALOPEX AMERICANUS, the brant fox, as described by Gesner and Linnæus, is of a fiery redness; and called by the first *brand-fuchs*, by the last *brandtaef*; it is scarce half the size of the common fox: the nose is black, and much sharper; the space round the ears ferruginous; the forehead, back, shoulders, thighs, and sides black mixed with red, ash-colour, and black; the belly yellowish; the tail black above, red beneath, and cinereous on its side. It is a native of Pennsylvania.

b. CANIS VULPES ALOPEX EUROPÆUS, the CHARBONNIER, or coal fox of Buffon, has remarkably black feet and legs, and inhabits that part of France formerly called Burgundy. It is of a silvery grey colour, and has the tail tipt with white.

5—7. CANIS VULPES BRITANNICUS. There are three sub-varieties of foxes found in the mountainous parts of Britain, which differ a little in form but not in colour, from each other. They are distinguished in Wales by as many different names. *a.* The *milgi* or *grey-hound fox*, is the largest, tallest, and boldest; and will attack a grown sheep or wedder: *b.* The *mastiff fox* is less, but more strongly built: *c.* The *corgi*, or *cur fox* is the least;

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least; lurks about hedges, out-houſes, &c. and is the moſt pernicious of the three to the feathered tribe. The firſt of theſe varieties has a white tag or tip to the tail; the laſt a black. When hunted, they never run directly forward, but make a great many doublings and turnings; and when in danger of being taken, they emit ſuch a ſmell from their poſteriors, that the hunters can hardly endure it.

8. CANIS VULPES CHILENSIS, inhabits Chili, and has a very long, ſtraight and ſmooth tail, with the tip of the ſame colour with the body.

9. CANIS VULPES CORSAC, the corſac fox, has upright ears, ſoft downy hair, tail buſhy, colour in ſummer pale tawney, in winter grey; the baſe and tip of the tail black. It is ſmall and inhabits the deſarts beyond the Yaik; lives in holes, howls and barks, and is caught by the Kirgis Khaiſſacks with falcons and grey hounds: 40 or 50,000 are annually taken, and ſold to the Ruſſians, at the rate of 40 kopeiks, or 20 pence, each: the former uſe their ſkins inſtead of money: great numbers are ſent into Turky.

10. CANIS VULPES CRUCIGERA, the croſs fox, with a black mark paſſing tranſverſely from ſhoulder to ſhoulder, and another along the back to the tail. It inhabits the coldeſt parts of Europe, Aſia, and North America: a valuable fur, thicker and ſofter than the common ſort; great numbers of the ſkins are imported from Canada. Dr Gmelin does not take notice of this variety.

11. CANIS VULPES LYCAON, the black fox, is the moſt cunning of the genus, and its ſkin the moſt valuable; a lining of it is, in Ruſſia, eſteemed preferable to the fineſt ſables: a ſingle ſkin will ſell for 400 rubles. It inhabits the northern parts of Europe, Aſia, and North America. The laſt is inferior in goodneſs. Mr Kerr ſays "this animal is exceedingly like the wolf, and is of an intermediate ſize between that animal and the fox. The colour is entirely black—ſometimes, however, variegated by having the tips of the hairs of a ſilvery whiteneſs. Dr Gmelin confounds this ſpecies of fox with the black wolf, § xi. N° 5.

(II.) CANIS CARCHARIAS, in ichthyology, a name given by Rondeletius, and others, to the LAMIA, or white ſhark.

(III.) CANIS MAJOR, the great dog, in aſtronomy, a conſtellation of the ſouthern hemiſphere, below Orion's feet, though ſomewhat to the weſtward of him. See ASTRONOMY, § 548.

(IV.) CANIS MINOR, the little dog, in aſtronomy, a conſtellation of the northern hemiſphere; called alſo by the Greeks, *Procyon*, and by the Latins *Antecanis* and *Canicula*. See ASTRONOMY, § 548.

(V.) CANIS VOLANS, in zoology, a ſpecies of bat, diſtinguiſhed by Linnæus by the name of *veſpertilio cauda nulla*, the bat without a tail. See VESPERTILIO.

CANISBAY, a pariſh of Scotland, in Caithneſs-ſhire, the moſt northern land in Britain, containing an extent of above 50 ſquare miles. It is moſtly level ground. The climate is variable, but very healthy. The aurora borealis is often ſeen in great brilliancy, exhibiting the moſt vivid corruſcations. The population, in 1793, as ſtated by the rev. Dr Moriſon, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 1950, and had increaſed 469, ſince 1755. The number of ſheep was 2000, but the pariſh could feed a vaſt number more. It abounds in excellent lime-ſtone and free-ſtone. JOHN O'GROAT'S HOUSE is ſituated in it. The ſhores of Caniſbay are exceedingly valuable; yielding about 100 tons of kelp in a favourable ſeaſon. There are about 60 fiſhing boats around the coaſt, and fiſh of all kinds are very abundant, particularly lobſters. Lon. 2. 0. W. Lat. 58. 45. N.

CANISIUS, Henry, a native of Nimeguen, and one of the moſt learned men of his time, was profeſſor of canon law at Ingolſtadt; and wrote a great number of books; the principle of which are, 1. *Summa Juris Canonici*. 2. *Antiquæ lectiones*, a very valuable work. He died in 1609.

* CANISTER. *n. ſ.* [*caniſtrum*, Lat.] 1. A ſmall baſket.—

White lilies in full *caniſters* they bring,
With all the glories of the purple ſpring.
Dryden.

2. A ſmall veſſel in which any thing, ſuch as tea or coffee, is laid up.

CANITZ, the baron of, a German poet and ſtateſman, of an illuſtrious family in Brandenburg; born at Berlin in 1654, 5 months after his father's death. He travelled to France, Italy, Holland, and England; and upon his return, was charged with important negociations by Frederic II. and Frederic III. Canitz was converſant in many languages, dead as well as living. His German poems were publiſhed for the 10th time, 1750, in 8vo. He is ſaid to have taken Horace for his model. But he did not content himſelf with barely cultivating the fine arts himſelf; he gave all the encouragement he could to them in others. He died at Berlin, in 1699, privy counſellor of ſtate, aged 45.

CANK, or CANNOCK, a village in Staffordſhire, near Penkridge.

CANKEDORT, *n. ſ. obſ.* a deplorable caſe. *Ch.*

(1.) * CANKER. *n. ſ.* [*cancer*, Lat. It ſeems to have the ſame meaning and original with *cancer*, but to be accidentally written with a *k*, when it denotes bad qualities in a leſs degree; or, *canker* might come from *chancre*, Fr. and *cancer* from the Latin.] 1. A worm that preys upon and deſtroys fruits.—

And loathful idleneſs he doth deteſt,
The *canker* worm of every gentle breaſt. *Spenſer.*

—That which the locuſt hath left hath the *canker* worm eaten. *Joel*, i. 4.—

Yet writers ſay, as in the ſweeteſt bud
The eating *canker* dwells; ſo eating love
Inhabits in the fineſt wits of all. *Shakeſp.*

A huſſing, ſhining, flatt'ring, cringing coward,
A *canker* worm of peace, was rais'd above him.
Otway.

2. A fly that preys upon fruits.—There be of flies, caterpillars, *canker* flies, and bear flies. *Walton's Angler.* 3. Any thing that corrupts or conſumes.—It is the *canker* and ruin of many men's eſtates, which, in proceſs of time, breeds a publick poverty. *Bacon.*—Sacrilege may prove an eating *canker*, and a conſuming moth, in the eſtate that we leave them. *Atterbury.*—

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No longer live the *cankers* of my court;
All to your ſeveral ſtates with ſpeed reſort;
Waſte in wild riot what your land allows,
There ply the early feaſt, and late carouſe. *Pope.*

4. A kind of wild worthleſs roſe; the dogroſe.—

To put down Richard, that ſweet lovely roſe,
And plant this thorn, this *canker* Bolingbroke.
Shakeſpeare.

—Draw a cherry with the leaf, the ſhaft of a ſteeple, a ſingle or *canker* roſe. *Peacham.* 5. An eating or corroding humour.—

I am not glad, that ſuch a ſore of time
Should ſeek a plaiſter by a contemn'd revolt,
And heal th' inveterate *canker* of one wound,
By making many. *Shakeſp.*

6. Corroſion; virulence.—

As with age his body uglier grows,
So his mind with *cankers*. *Shakeſ.*

7. A diſeaſe in trees. *Dict.*

(2.) CANKER, a diſeaſe incident to trees, proceeding chiefly from the nature of the ſoil. It makes the bark rot and fall. If the canker be in a bough, cut it off; in a large bough, at ſome diſtance from the ſtem; in a ſmall one, cloſe to it: but for over hot ſtrong ground, the ground is to be cooled about the roots with pond mud and cow dung.

(3.) CANKER, among farriers. See FARRIERY, *Index.*

(1.) * *To* CANKER. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To corrupt; to corrode.—

Reſtore to God his due in tithe and time:
A tithe purloin'd, *cankers* the whole eſtate.
Herbert.

2. To infect; to pollute.—An honeſt man will enjoy himſelf better in a moderate fortune, that is gained with honour and reputation, than in an overgrown eſtate, that is *cankered* with the acquiſitions of rapine and exaction. *Addiſon.*

(2.) * *To* CANKER. *v. n.* 1. To grow corrupt: implying ſomething venomous and malignant.—

That cunning architect of *canker'd* guile,
Whom princes late diſpleaſure left in bands,
For falſed letters, and ſuborned wile. *F. Queen.*

I will lift the down trod Mortimer
As high i' th' air as their unthankful king,
As this ingrate and *canker'd* Bolingbroke. *Shakeſ.*

Or what the croſs dire looking planet ſmite,
Or hurtful worm with *canker'd* venom bite.
Milton.

To ſome new clime, or to thy native ſky,
Oh! friendleſs and forſaken virtue, fly:
The Indian air is deadly to thee grown;
Deceit and *canker'd* malice rule thy throne. *Dryd.*

Let envious jealouſy, and *canker'd* ſpright
Produce my actions to ſevereſt light,
And tax my open day, or ſecret night. *Prior.*

2. To decay by ſome corroſive or deſtructive principle.—Silvering will fully and *canker* more than gilding; which, if it might be corrected with a little mixture of gold, will be profitable. *Bacon.*

* CANKERBIT. *particip. adj.* [from *canker* and *bit*] Bitten with an envenomed tooth.—

Know thy name is loſt;
By treaſon's tooth bareknawn and *cankerbit*.
Shakeſpeare.

CANKER-WORM. See SCARABÆUS.

CANLEY, a hamlet of Stoneley, Warwickſh.

(1.) CANNA, in botany, INDIAN FLOWERING REED; A genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the monandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 8th order, Scitaminæ. The corolla is erect, and divided into 6 parts, with a diſtinct lip, bipartite and rolled back; the ſtyle lanceolate, and growing to the corolla; the calyx is triphyllous. There are 5 ſpecies: viz.

1. CANNA COCCINEA, hath larger leaves than any of the other 4 ſpecies, and the ſtalks riſe much higher. The flowers are produced in large ſpikes; and are of a bright crimſon, or rather ſcarlet colour.

2. CANNA GLAUCA, with a very large flower, is a native of South America.

3. CANNA INDICA, or common broad-leaved flowering cane, is a native of both Indies; the inhabitants of the Britiſh iſlands in America call it *Indian ſhot*, from the roundneſs and hardneſs of the ſeeds. It has a thick, fleſhy, tuberous root, which divides into many irregular knobs; it ſends out many large oval leaves, without order. At their firſt appearance the leaves are like a twiſted horn; but afterwards expand, and are near a foot long, and 5 inches broad in the middle: leſſening gradually to both ends, and terminating in a point. The ſtalks are herbaceous, riſing 4 feet high, and are encompaſſed by the broad leafy foot-ſtalks of the leaves; at the upper part of the ſtalk the flowers are produced in looſe ſpikes, each being at firſt covered with a leafy hood, and turning to a brown colour. The flowers are ſucceeded by a capſule, oblong, rough, and crowned with the three-cornered empalement of the flower which remains. When the fruit is ripe, the capſule opens lengthwiſe into 3 cells, filled with round, ſhining, hard, and black ſeeds.

4. CANNA LATIFOLIA, with a pale red flower, is a native of Carolina, and ſome other nothern provinces of America.

5. CANNA LUTEA, with obtuſe oval leaves, is leſs common in America than the other ſorts. All Theſe plants muſt always be kept in pots of rich earth, to be moved to ſhelter in winter. They are propagated by ſeeds ſown on a hot-bed, in ſpring; and in ſummer, when they are a little advanced in growth, prick them ſeparately in ſmall pots of rich earth, plunging them alſo in the hot-bed, giving ſhade, water, and freſh air; to which laſt harden them by degrees, till they bear it fully. In October they muſt be removed into a good ſtove.

(II.) CANNA, in the ancient pharmacy and botany, denoted the *calamus aromaticus*, or, according to others, *caſſia fiſtula*.

(III.) CANNA likewiſe denotes a ſort of long meaſure, otherwiſe called by modern authors a CANE, by the Latins CALAMUS, and in Scripture a reed.

CANNA MAJOR, } names given by ſome anato-
CANNA MINOR, } miſts to the greater and leſſer bones of the leg. See ANATOMY, § 157, and 158.

CANNABACEOUS, *adj.* hempen. *Aſh.*

* CANNABINE. *adj.* [*cannabinus*, Latin.] Hempen.

CANNABIS, in botany, HEMP; a genus of the pentandria order, belonging to the dioecia claſs

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clafs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 53d order, Scabridæ. The calyx of the male is quinquepartite, with no corolla. In the female the calyx is monophyllous, entire, and gaping at the fide; there is no corolla, but two ftyles: the fruit is a nut, bivalved, within the clofed calyx. Of this there is but one fpecies, viz.

CANNABIS SATIVA. It is propagated in the rich fenny parts of Lincolnfhire in great quantities, for its bark, which is ufeful for cordage, cloth, &c. and the feeds abound with oil. Hemp is always fown on a deep, moift, rich, foil, fuch as is found in Holland, Lincolnfhire, and the fens of the ifland of Ely, where it is cultivated to great advantage, as it might be in many other parts of England where there is a foil of the fame kind; but it will not thrive on clayey or ftiff cold land. The ground on which hemp is to be fown, fhould be well ploughed, and made very fine by harrowing. About the middle of April the feed may be fown; bufhels is the ufuala llowance for an acre, but 32 are fufficient. In the choice of the feed, the heavieft and brighteft coloured fhould be preferred and particular care fhould be had to the kernel of the feed. For the greater certainty in this matter fome of the feeds fhould be cracked, to fee whether they have the germ or future plant perfect; for, in fome places, the male plants are drawn out too foon from the female, *i. e.* before they have impregnated the female plants with the farina; in which cafe, though the feeds produced by thefe females may feem good to the eye, yet they will not grow; according to the doctrine of Linnæus. See BOTANY, § 83—76. When the plants are come up, they fhould be hoed out in the fame manner as turnips, leaving them two feet apart; obferve alfo to cut down all the weeds, which, if well performed, and in dry weather, will deftroy them. This crop, however, will require a fecond hoeing, in about fix weeks after the firft; and, if this is well performed, the crop will require no further care. The firft feafon for pulling hemp is ufually about the middle of Auguft, when they begin to pull what they call the *fimble hemp*, being that which is compofed of the male plants; but it would be much better to defer this for a fortnight or three weeks longer, until thofe male plants have fully fhed their farina or duft, without which the feeds will prove only empty hufks. Thefe male plants decay foon after they have fhed their farina. The fecond pulling is a little after Michaelmas, when the feeds are ripe. This is ufually called *karle hemp*, and confifts of the female plants which were left. This karle hemp is bound in bundles of a yard compafs, according to the ftatute meafure, which are laid in the fun for a few days to dry; and then it is ftacked up, or houfed to keep it dry till the feed can be threfhed out. An acre of hemp, on a rich foil, will produce near three quarters of feed which, together with the unwrought hemp, is worth from L. 6 to L. 8. Hemp is efteemed very effectual for deftroying weeds: but this it accompliflhes by impoverifhing the ground, and thus robbing them of their nourifhment; fo that a crop of it muft not be repeated on the fame fpot. Some feeds of a large kind of hemp growing in China, were lately fent by the Eaft India Company to the Society for the encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce, who diftributed them to the members, and other gentlemen who appeared likely to cultivate them; and from experiments made in conſequence, the plant has been found to fucceed perfectly in this climate. The firft trials were rather unpromifing, the hemp produced from the foreign feeds proving of very little value. But the rev. Dr Hinton of Northwold, who made the above trial in 1786, having accidentally faved fome ripe feeds of that crop, fowed them in May 1787, on a fpot of good land. They came up well, and attained as much perfection as ordinary hemp. The produce, when dreffed, weighed at the rate of 95 ft. 7 lb. 12 oz. per acre, (being above 30 ftone more, he fays, than the ufual crops of hemp in that neighbourhood; and at the rate of 3 bufhels 2 pecks and a half a pint of feed per acre were ſaved. Dr Hinton fuppofes that the feeds brought from China failed principally, if not entirely, by having been two years old, at which age hempfeed feldom vegetates. Now that it is found to ripen with us, freſh feeds can always be obtained. It will yet, however, require a few years to determine whether this fpecies will continue to retain its great fize, or will degenerate and become the common hemp of Europe. From the leaves of hemp pounded and boiled in the water, the natives of the Eaft Indies prepare an intoxicating liquor of which they are very fond. The plant when freſh, has a rank narcotic ſmell; the water in which the ſtalks are ſoaked in order to ſeparate the tough rind for mechanic uſes, is ſaid to be violently poiſonous, and to produce its effects almoſt as ſoon as drank. The ſeeds alſo have ſome ſmell of the herb, and their taſte is unctuous and ſweetiſh: they are recommended, boiled in milk, or triturated with water into an emulſion, againſt coughs, heat of urine, and the like. They are alſo ſaid to be uſeful in incontinence of urine, and for reſtraining venereal appetites; but experience does not warrant their having any virtues of that kind.

CANNACORUS, in botany, a ſynonime uſed by Tournefort, for the CANNA.

CANNÆ, in ancient geography, a town of Apulia, in the Adriatic, at the mouth of the river Aufidus, rendered famous by a terrible overthrow which the Romans received from the Carthaginians under Hannibal. The Roman conſuls Æmilius Paulus and Terentius Varro, being authoriſed by the ſenate to quit the defenſive plan, and take the chance of a battle, marched from Canuſium, and encamped a few miles eaſt, in two unequal diviſions, with the Aufidus between them. In this poſition they meant to wait for an opportunity of engaging to advantage; but Hannibal, whoſe critical ſituation in a deſolate country, without refuge or allies, could admit of no delay, found means to inflame the vanity of Varro by ſome trivial advantages in ſkirmiſhes between the light horſe. Varro, elated with this ſucceſs determined to bring matters to a ſpeedy concluſion. The Romans were vaſtly ſuperior in number to the Carthaginians; but the latter were ſuperior in cavalry. The army of the former conſiſted of 87,000 men; that of the latter of 40,000 foot and 5,000 horſe. Without entering into the particular,

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culars of the battle, which is fully narrated by the Roman hiſtorians, it is ſufficient to ſay, that, by Hannibal's wiſe diſtribution of his forces, the Romans were ſoon ſurrounded and their numbers and bravery only ſerved to render the ſlaughter more deſperately bloody. The whole plain was at laſt covered with heaps of dead bodies, inſomuch that Hannibal himſelf, thinking the butchery too terrible, ordered his men to put a ſtop to it. There is a great diſagreement among authors, as to the number of Romans killed and taken at the battle of Cannæ. According to Livy the republic loſt 50,000 men, including the auxiliaries. According to Polybius, of 6000 Roman horſe, only 70 eſcaped to Venuſia with Varro, and 300 of the auxiliary horſe; 70,000 of the Roman foot died on the field of battle, and 13,000 were made priſoners. According to Dionyſius of Halicarnaſſus, of 6000 horſe, only 370 eſcaped the general ſlaughter, and of 80,000 foot, 3000 only were left. The moſt moderate computation makes the number of Romans killed to amount to 45,000, among whom were Æmilius Paulus the conſul, and the pro-conſuls Servilius and Attilius. The ſcene of action is marked by the name of *Pezzo di Sangue* the Field of Blood. Theſe plains have more than once ſince the Punic war, afforded room for men to murder each other. Melo of Bari, after raiſing the ſtandard of revolt againſt the Greek emperors, and defeating their generals in ſeveral engagements, was at laſt routed here in 1019, by the Captain Bolanus. Out of 250 Norman adventurers, the flower of Melo's army, only 10 eſcaped the ſlaughter. In 1201, the Abp. of Palermo and his rebellious aſſociates, who had taken advantage of the nonage of Frederick of Suabia, were cut to pieces at Cannæ by Walter de Brienne, ſent by the Pope to defend the young king's dominions. The traces of this town are very faint, conſiſting of fragments of altars, cornices, gates, walls, vaults, and under-ground granaries. It was deſtroyed the year before the battle; but being rebuilt, became an epiſcopal ſee in the infancy of Chriſtianity. It was again ruined in the 6th century, but ſeems to have ſubſiſted many ages later; for we read of its contending with Barletta for the territory, which till then had been enjoyed in common by them; and in 1284, Charles I. iſſued an edict for dividing the lands, to prevent all future litigation. The proſperity of the towns along the coaſt, which increaſed in wealth and population, by embarkations for the Cruſadoes and by traffic, proved the annihilation of the great inland cities; and Cannæ was probably abandoned entirely before the end of the 13th century. Mr Walker ſeems to miſtake it for CANNUIUM, as by a reference to CANOSA, he appears to reckon it the ſame with that modern town of Naples. The modern name of Cannæ, if it exiſts at all, is CANNE.

CANNARES, a nation of S. American Indians in the province of Quito, in Peru.

CANNAT, St, a town of France, in the department of the Mouths of the Rhone, the ci-devant Provence.

CANNAY, one of the Weſtern Iſles of Scotland, SW. of Sky. It is fertile and verdant; and has vaſt ranges of baſaltic pillars, riſing above each other, from the ſea, ſomewhat reſembling the Giant's Cauſeway in Ireland. See BASALTES. § 5.

CANNE, a ruinous town in Naples, in the territory of Bari. See CANNÆ.

CANNEH. See CALNEH.

(1.) CANNEL, or CATNEL, a village in Suffolk, E. of Needwood foreſt.

(2.) CANNEL COAL. See AMPELITES, and CANAL COAL.

CANNEQUINS, in commerce, white cotton cloths brought from the Eaſt Indies. They are a proper commodity for trading on the coaſt of Guinea, particularly about the rivers Senega and Gambia. They are folded ſquare, and are about 8 ells long.

CANNES, a town of France, in the department of the Mouths of the Rhone, and ci-devant province of Provence, on the coaſt of the Mediterranean, with a harbour and a caſtle. Lon. 5. 47. E. Lat. 43. 34. N.

CANNEVAROLA, a name given by Aldrovandus to the leſſer reed ſparrow. See FRINGILLA.

(1.) * CANNIBAL. *n. ſ.* An anthropophagite; a man-eater.—The *cannibals* themſelves eat no man's fleſh, of thoſe that die of themſelves, but of ſuch as are ſlain. *Bacon*.—They were little better than *cannibals*, who do hunt one another; and he that hath moſt ſtrength and ſwiftneſs, doth eat and devour all his fellows. *Davies on Ireland.*

It was my hint to ſpeak,
Of the *cannibals* that each other eat;
The anthropophagi. *Shakeſpeare.*

The captive *cannibal*, oppreſt with chains,
Yet braves his foes, reviles, provokes, diſdains;
Of nature fierce, untameable and proud;
He bids defiance to the gaping croud;
And ſpent at laſt, and ſpeechleſs as he lies,
With fiery glances mocks their rage and dies.
Granville.

—If an eleventh commandment had been given, Thou ſhalt not eat human fleſh; would not theſe *cannibals* have eſteemed it more difficult than all the reſt? *Bentley.*

(2.) CANNIBALS. See ANTHROPOPHAGI.

* CANNIBALLY. *adv.* [from *cannibal.*] In the manner of a cannibal.—Before Corioli, he ſcotcht him and notcht him like a carbinado.—Had he been *cannibally* given, he might have broiled, and eaten him too. *Shakeſpeare.*

CANNINGTON. a town in Somerſetſhire, 2 miles from Bridgewater.

CANNINGS, BISHOPS, near Devizes, Wilts.

CANNIONS, *n. ſ. obſ.* a kind of boot hoſe.

* CANNIPERS. *n. ſ.* [corrupted from *callipers*; which ſee.] The ſquare is taken by hair of *cannipers*, or two rulers clapped to the ſide of a tree, meaſuring the diſtance between them. *Mortimer's Huſbandry.*

(1.) CANNOCK, or CANNOT STONE, a baſe ſort of iron ore, in the Staffordſhire mines, of which the coarſeſt metal is made.

(2.) CANNOCK. See CANK.

(1.) * CANNON. *n. ſ.* [*canon*, Fr. from *canna*, Lat. a pipe, meaning a large tube.] 1. A great gun for battery. 2. A gun larger than can be managed by the hand. They are of ſo many ſizes that they decreaſe in the bore from a ball of 48 pounds to a ball of 5 ounces.

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As

As *cannons* overcharg'd with double cracks,
So they redoubled ſtrokes upon the foe.
Shakeſpeare.

—He hath left all the *cannon* he had taken; and now he ſent all his great *cannon* to a garriſon. *Clarendon.*—The making, or price, of theſe gunpowder inſtruments, is extremely expenſive, as may be eaſily judged by the weight of their materials; a whole *cannon* weighing commonly 8000 pounds; a half *cannon* 5000; a culverin, 4500; a demi-culverin 3000; which, whether it be in iron or braſs, muſt needs be very coſtly. *Wilkins.*

(2.) CANNON, is more accurately defined, a military engine for throwing balls, &c. by the help of GUNPOWDER. The invention of braſs cannon is by Laney aſcribed to J. Owen: he ſays, that they were firſt known in England, in 1535; but yet acknowledges, that, in 1346, there were four pieces of cannon in the Engliſh army, at the battle of Creſſy, and that theſe were the firſt that were known in France. And Mezeray relates, that king Edward, by 5 or 6 pieces of cannon, ſtruck terror into the French army, it being the firſt time they had ſeen any of theſe thundering machines; though others affirm that cannon were known alſo in France at the ſame time; but that the French king, in his hurry to attack the Engliſh, and in confidence of victory, left all his cannon behind him as uſeleſs incumbrances. See ARTILLERY, § 4 and 5. The Germans carry the invention farther back, and attribute it to Albertus Magnus, a Dominican monk, about A. D. 1250. Voſſius rejects all theſe opinions, and finds cannon in China almoſt 1700 years ago. According to him, they were mounted by the emperor Kitey, A. D. 85. For further particulars of their hiſtory, parts, proportions, management, operation, and effects, ſee GUN and GUNNERY. For the caſting of them, ſee FOUNDERY.

(3.) CANNON. See CANON, § 1. *def.* 8.

(1.) CANNONADE, *n. ſ.* Cannon ſhot. *Bailey.*

(2.) CANNONADE, the application of artillery to the purpoſes of war, or the direction of its efforts againſt ſome diſtant object intended to be ſeized or deſtroyed, as a ſhip, battery, or fortreſs. See GUNNERY. As a large ſhip of war may be conſidered as a combination of floating batteries, it is evident, that the efforts of her artillery muſt be greatly ſuperior to thoſe of a fortreſs on the ſea-coaſt; that is to ſay, in general; becauſe, on ſome particular occaſions, her ſituation may be extremely dangerous, and her cannonading ineffectual. Her ſuperiority conſiſts in ſeveral circumſtances, as the power of bringing her different batteries to converge to one point; of ſhifting the line of her attack ſo as to do the greateſt poſſible execution againſt the enemy, or to lie where ſhe will be the leaſt expoſed to his ſhot; and chiefly becauſe, by employing a much greater number of cannon againſt a fort than it can poſſibly return, the impreſſion of her artillery againſt ſtone walls ſoon becomes deciſive and irreſiſtible. Beſides theſe advantages in the attack, ſhe is alſo greatly ſuperior in point of defence; becauſe the cannon-ſhot, paſſing with rapidity through her ſides, ſeldom do any execution out of the line of their flight, or occaſion much miſchief by their ſplinters; whereas they very ſoon ſhatter and deſtroy the faces of a parapet, and produce incredible havoc among the men by the fragments of the ſtones, &c. A ſhip may alſo retreat when ſhe finds it too dangerous to remain longer expoſed to the enemy's fire, or when her own fire cannot produce the deſired effect. Finally, the fluctuating ſituation of a ſhip, and of the element on which ſhe reſts, renders the effects of bombs very uncertain, and altogether deſtroys the effects of the *ricochet* or rolling and bounding ſhot, which is ſo pernicious and deſtructive in a fortreſs or land engagement. The chief inconveniency to which a ſhip is expoſed, on the contrary, is, that the low-laid cannon in a fort near the brink of the ſea, may ſtrike her repeatedly on or under the ſurface of the water, ſo as to ſink her before her cannonade can have any conſiderable efficacy.

(1.) * *To* CANNONADE. *v. a.* [from *cannon.*] To fire upon with cannon.

(2.) * *To* CANNONADE. *v. n.* To play the great guns; to batter or attack with great guns.—Both armies *cannonaded* all the enſuing day. *Tatler.*

* CANNON-BALL. } CANNON-SHOT. *n. ſ.*
* CANNON-BULLET. } [from *cannon, ball, bullet,* and *ſhot.*] The balls which are ſhot from great-guns.—He reckons thoſe for wounds that are made by bullets, although it be a *cannon-ſhot. Wiſeman's Surgery.*—Let a *cannon-bullet* paſs through a room, it muſt ſtrike ſucceſſively the two ſides of the room. *Locke.*

CANNONBY, a village near Maryport, Cumberland.

CANNON-FROME, near Hereford.

* CANNONIER. *n. ſ.* [from *cannon.*] The engineer that manages the cannon.—

Give me the cups;
And let the kettle to the trumpets ſpeak,
The trumpets to the *cannonier* without,
The cannons to the heav'ns, the heav'ns to earth.
Shakeſpeare.

—A third was a moſt excellent *cannonier,* whoſe good ſkill did much endamage the forces of the king. *Hayward.*

CANNONS, the name of 4 villages; viz. 1. in Eſſex, near Nettleſwell: 2. in Middleſex, near Edgeware: 3. in the pariſh of Banſtead, Surry; and 4. LITTLE CANNONS, in Shenley pariſh, Hertfordſhire.

* CANNON-SHOT. See CANNON-BALL.

CANNONS-LEIGH, a village in Devonſhire, between Tiverton and Wellington.

* CANNOT. A word compounded of *can* and *not:* noting inability.—I *cannot* but believe many a child can tell 20, long before he has an idea of infinity at all. *Locke.*

CANNOT STONE. See CANNOCK, N° 1.

CANNULA, or CANULA, in ſurgery, a tube made of different metals, principally of ſilver and lead, but ſometimes of iron. They are introduced into hollow ulcers, in order to facilitate a diſcharge of pus or any other ſubſtance; or into wounds, either accidental or artificial, of the large cavities, as the thorax or abdomen: they are uſed in the operation of bronchotomy; and, by ſome, after cutting for the ſtone, as a drain for urine. Other cannulas are uſed for introducing cauteries, either actual or potential, into hollow parts, in order to guard the parts adjacent to that

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to be cauterized, from injury. They are of various figures; oval, round, and crooked.

(1.) CANO, a kingdom of Africa, in Negroland, bounded by Zaara on the N. by the river Niger on the S. the kingdom of Agades on the W. and that of Caſſina on the E. Some of the inhabitants are herdſmen, and others till the ground and dwell in villages. It produces corn, rice, and cotton. It has many deſerts, and mountains covered with woods, in which are wild citrons and lemon trees.

(2.) CANO, a town in the above kingdom, (N° 1.) The walls and houſes are made of clay, and the principal inhabitants are merchants. Lon. 16. 18. E. Lat. 21. 5. N.

* CANOA. See CANOE.

CANOBIA, a town of Italy, in the Milaneſe, ſeated on the W. bank of Lago Maggiora, or the Greater Lake: 30 miles W. of Como. Lon. 8. 47. E. Lat. 45. 55. N.

CANOBUS. See CANOPUS, N° 3, and 4.

CANOBY, [from *cænobium*, Lat. a monaſtery,] a pariſh of Scotland, in Dumfries-ſhire, on the borders of England, about 9 miles long from E. to W. and 6 broad from N. to S. containing 22,500 acres of ground, of which about 15,000 are arable. The climate is healthy, though wet, and the ſoil moſtly light loam; affording early and plentiful crops. The pariſh abounds in woods, orchards, lime-ſtone, coal, and free-ſtone. It has been greatly improved within theſe 22 years, by the D. of Buccleugh, the proprietor: and the roads (formerly often impaſſable,) and bridges, are excellent. The population, in 1794, as ſtated by the rev. Mr Ruſſel, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 2725. It had increaſed no leſs than 992, ſince 1755. There were 497 horſes; about 2500 ſheep, 259 ſwine, and 1516 black cattle in the pariſh, in 1794.

(1.) * CANOE. CANOA. *n. ſ.* A boat made by cutting the trunk of a tree into a hollow veſſel.—Others made rafts of wood, others deviſed the boat of one tree, called the *canoa*, which the Gauls, upon the Rhone, uſed in aſſiſting the tranſportation of Hannibal's army. *Raleigh.*—In a war againſt Semiramis, they had 3000 monoxyla, or *canoes*, of one piece of timber. *Arbuthnot on Coins.*

(2.) CANOES are ſometimes formed of ſeveral pieces of bark put together. Canoes are of various ſizes, according to the uſes for which they may be deſigned, or the countries wherein they are formed. The largeſt are made of the cotton tree; ſome of them will carry between 20 and 30 hogſheads of ſugar or molaſſes. Some are made to carry ſail: and for this purpoſe are ſteeped in water till they become pliant; after which their ſides are extended, and ſtrong beams placed between them, on which a deck is afterwards laid that ſerves to ſupport their ſides. The other ſorts very rarely carry ſail, unleſs when going before the wind; their ſails are made of ſhort ſilk graſs or ruſhes. They are commonly rowed with paddles, which are pieces of light wood ſomewhat reſembling a corn-ſhovel; and, inſtead of rowing with it horizontally like an oar, they manage it perpendicularly. The ſmall canoes are very narrow, having only room for one perſon in breadth, and ſeven or eight lengthwiſe. The rowers, who are generally American Indians, are very expert in managing their paddles uniformly, and in balancing the canoes with their bodies: which would be difficult for a ſtranger to do, how well accuſtomed ſoever to the conducting of European boats, becauſe the canoes are extremely light, and liable to be overturned. The American Indians, when they are under the neceſſity of landing to avoid a water-fall, or of croſſing the land from one river to another, carry their canoes on their heads, till they arrive at a place where they can launch them again. This is the general conſtruction of canoes, and method of managing them: but ſome nations have veſſels under this name, which differ conſiderably from theſe; as the inhabitants of Greenland, Hudſon's bay, Otaheite, &c.

CANOGE, a town of Indoſtan Proper, on the W. bank of the Ganges, near its confluence with the Calini; 127 miles SE. of Agra. Lon. 80. 13. E. Lat. 27. 3. N.

(1.) * CANON. *n. ſ.* [κανων.] 1. A rule; a law.—The truth is, they are rules and *canons* of that law, which is written in all men's hearts; the church had for ever, no leſs than now, ſtood bound to obſerve them, whether the apoſtle had mentioned them, or no. *Hooker.*—His books are almoſt the very *canon* to judge both doctrine and diſciple by. *Hooker.*—

Religious *canons*, civil laws are cruel;
Then what ſhould war be? *Shakeſpeare.*

—*Canons* in logick are ſuch as theſe: every part of a diviſion, ſingly taken, muſt contain leſs than the whole; and a definition muſt be peculiar and proper to the thing defined. *Watts.* 2. The laws made by eccleſiaſtical councils.—*Canon* law is that law, which is made and ordained in a general council, or provincial ſynod of the church. *Ayliffe.*—Theſe were looked on as lapſed perſons, and great ſeverities of penance were preſcribed them, by the *canons* of Ancyra. *Stillingfleet.* 3. The books of Holy Scripture; or the great rule. —*Canon* alſo denotes thoſe books of Scripture, which are received as inſpired and canonical, to diſtinguiſh them from either profane, apocryphal, or diſputed books. Thus we ſay, that *Geneſis* is part of the ſacred *canon* of the Scripture. *Ayliffe.* 4. A dignitary in cathedral churches.—For deans and *canons*, or prebends, of cathedral churches, they were of great uſe in the church; they were to be of counſel with the biſhop for his revenue, and for his government in cauſes eccleſiaſtical. *Bacon.*—

Swift much admires the place and air,
And longs to be a *canon* there,
A *canon!* that's a place too mean:
No, doctor, you ſhall be a dean:
Two dozen *canons* round your ſtall,
And you the tyrant o'er them all. *Swift.*

5. *Canons Regular.* Such as are placed in monaſteries. *Ayliffe.* 6. *Canons Secular.* Lay canons, who have been, as a mark of honour, admitted into ſome chapters. 7. [Among chirurgeons.] An inſtrument uſed in ſewing up wounds. *Dict.* 8. A large ſort of printing letter, probably ſo called, from being firſt uſed in printing a book of canons; or perhaps from its ſize, and therefore properly written *cannon.*

(II.) CANON,

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(II.) CANON, in an eccleſiaſtical ſenſe, (§ I. *def.* 2.) is a rule, either of doctrine or diſcipline, enacted eſpecially by a council, and confirmed by the authority of the ſovereign. Canons are properly deciſions of matters of religion; or regulations of the policy and diſcipline of a church, made by councils, either general, national, or provincial. Such are the canons of the council of Nice, or Trent, &c. There have been various collections of the canons of the Eaſtern councils; but 4 principle ones, each ampler than the preceding. The firſt, according to Uſher, A. D. 380, contained only thoſe of the firſt œcumenical council, and the firſt provincial ones: they were but 164 in number. To theſe, Dionyſius Exiguus, in 520, added the 50 canons of the apoſtles, (ſee § V. N° 2.) and thoſe of the other general councils. The Greek canons in this 2d collection end with thoſe of the council of Chalcedon; to which are ſubjoined thoſe of the council of Sardica, and the African councils. The 4th and laſt collection comes down as low as the 2d council of Nice; and it is on this that Balſamon and Zonaras have commented.

(III.) CANON, (§ I. *def.* 3.) See BIBLE, § III. and VI. The ancient canon of the books of the Old Teſtament, ordinarily attributed to Ezra, was divided into the law, the prophets, and the hagiographa; to which our Saviour refers, Luke, xxiv. 45. The ſame diviſion is alſo mentioned by Joſephus. This is the canon allowed to have been followed by the primitive church, till the council of Carthage; and, according to St Jerom, this conſiſted of no more than 22 books; anſwering to the number of the Hebrew alphabet; though at preſent they are claſſed into 24 diviſions. That council enlarged the canon very conſiderably, taking into it the apocryphal books; which the council of Trent farther enforced, enjoining them to be received as books of Holy Scripture, upon pain of anathema. The Romaniſts, in defence of this canon, ſay, that it is the ſame with that of the council of Hippo, held in 393; and with that of the 3d council of Carthage, in 397, at which were preſent 46 biſhops, and, among the reſt, St Auguſtine. Their canon of the New Teſtament, however, perfectly agrees with ours. It conſiſts of books that are well known; ſome of which have been univerſally acknowledged; ſuch are the 4 Goſpels, the Acts of the Apoſtles, 13 Epiſtles of St Paul, 1ſt of St Peter, and 1ſt of St John: and others, concerning which doubts were entertained, but which were afterwards received as genuine; ſuch are the epiſtle to the Hebrews, that of James, the 2d of Peter, the 2d and 3d of John, that of Jude, and the Revelation. Theſe books were written at different times, and they are authenticated, not by the decrees of councils, or infallible authority, but by ſuch evidence as is thought ſufficient in the caſe of any other ancient writings. They were very extenſively diffuſed; and read in every Chriſtian ſociety; they were valued and preſerved with care by the firſt Chriſtians; they were cited by Chriſtian writers of the 2d, 3d, and 4th centuries, as Irenæus, Clement the Alexandrian, Tertullian, Origen, Euſebius, &c. and their genuineneſs is proved by the teſtimony of thoſe who were contemporary with the apoſtles themſelves. The 4 Goſpels, and moſt of the other books of the New Teſtament, were collected either by one of the apoſtles, or ſome of their diſciples and ſucceſſors, before the end of the firſt century. The catalogue of canonical books furniſhed by the more ancient Chriſtian writers, as Origen about A. D. 210, Euſebius and Athanaſius in 315, Epiphanius in 370, Jerome in 382, Auſtin in 394, and many others, agrees with that which is now received among Chriſtians. For the time of writing the books of the New Teſtament, ſee MATTHEW, MARK, &c.

(IV.) CANON, (§ I. *def.* 4.) is a perſon who poſſeſſes a prebend, or revenue allotted for the performance of divine ſervice, in a cathedral, or collegiate church. Canons are of no great antiquity: Paſchier obſerves, that the name was not known before Charlemagne; at leaſt the firſt we hear of are in Gregory de Tours, who mentions a college of canons inſtituted by Baldwin XVI. abp. of that city, in the time of Clotharius I. The common opinion attributes the inſtitution of this order to Chrodegangus, biſhop of Metz, about the middle of the 8th century. Canons originally were only prieſts, or inferior eccleſiaſtics, who lived in community; reſiding by the cathedral church, to aſſiſt the biſhop; depending entirely on his will; ſupported by the revenues of the biſhopric; and living in the ſame houſe, as his domeſtics, or counſellors, &c. They even inherited his moveables, till A. D. 817, when this was prohibited by the council of Aix-la-Chapelle, and a new rule ſubſtituted in the place of that which had been appointed by Chrodegangus, and which was obſerved for the moſt part in the weſt till the 12th century. By degrees, theſe communities of prieſts, ſhaking off their dependence, formed ſeparate bodies; whereof the biſhops, however, were ſtill the heads. In the 10th century, there were communities of the ſame kind, eſtabliſhed even in cities where there were no biſhops: theſe were called collegiates, as they uſed the terms congregation and college indifferently: the name chapter, now given to theſe bodies, being much more modern. Under the 2d race of the French kings, the canonical life had ſpread all over the country; and each cathedral had its chapter, diſtinct from the reſt of the clergy. They had the name canon from the Greek κανων, which ſignifies three different things; a rule, a penſion, or fixed revenue to live on, and a catalogue of matricula; all which are applicable to them. In time, the canons freed themſelves from their rules; and, at length, they ceaſed to live in community: yet they ſtill formed bodies; pretending to other functions beſides the celebration of the common office in the church; yet aſſuming the rights of the reſt of the clergy; making themſelves a neceſſary council of the biſhop; taking upon them the adminiſtration of a ſee during a vacancy, and the election of a biſhop to ſupply it. There are even ſome chapters exempt from the juriſdiction of the biſhop, and owning no head but their dean. After the example of cathedral chapters, collegiate ones alſo continued to form bodies, after they had abandoned living in community. Canons are of various kinds; as,

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7. CANONS, CARDINAL, which are those attached, and, as the Latins call it, *incardinati* to a church, as a priest is to a parish.

2. CANONS, DOMICILLARY, were young canons, who, not being in orders, had no right in any particular chapters.

3. CANONS, EXPECTATIVE, were such as, without having any revenue or prebend, had the title and dignities of canons, a voice in the chapter, and a place in the choir; till such time as a prebend should fall.

4. CANONS, FOREIGN, were such as did not officiate in the canonries to which they belonged.

5. CANONS, LAY or HONORARY, are such among the laity as have been admitted, out of honour and respect, into some chapter of canons. Dr Johnson (§ I. *def.* 6.) confounds these with the SECULAR CANONS.

6. CANONS, MANSIONARY, or RESIDENT, those who officiated in their canonries.

7. CANONS, REGULAR, are those who still live in community; and who have, to the practice of their rules, added the solemn profession of vows. They are called regulars, to distinguish them from those SECULAR CANONS who abandon living in community, and observing the canons made for the maintenance of the ancient discipline. The canons subsisted in their simplicity till the 11th, some say the 12th century, when some of them, separating from the community, got the name of acephalous priests, because they declined to live in community with the bishop; and those who were left thenceforth acquired the denomination of canons regular, and adopted most of the professions of the rule of St Augustine. This order was brought into England by Aldelwald, confessor to Henry I. who erected a priory at Nostel in Yorkshire; and obtained for them the church of Carlisle as an episcopal see, with the privilege of choosing their own bishop. They were singularly encouraged by Henry I. who gave them the priory of Dunstable in 1107, and by queen Maud, who, in 1108, gave them the priory of the Holy Trinity in London. Under Edward I. they had 53 priories.

8. CANONS, SECULAR. See N° 5 & 7.

9. CANONS, TERTIARY, those who had only the third part of the revenues of the canonicate.

(V.) CANON, in ecclesiastical matters, is also used, 1. by way of excellence, in the Romish church, for the secret words of the mass, from the preface to the *Pater*; in the middle of which the priest consecrates the host: 2. for the catalogue of saints acknowledged and canonized in the church of Rome: 3. in monastic orders, for a book wherein the religious of every convent have a fair transcript of the rules of their order, frequently read among them as their local statutes. Canon is also applied to other compositions; as,

1. CANON, PASCHAL, a table of the moveable feasts, showing the day of Easter, and the other feasts depending on it, for a cycle of 19 years. The paschal canon is supposed to be the calculation of Eusebius of Cæsarea, and to have been done by order of the council of Nice.

2. CANONS, APOSTOLICAL, those which have been usually ascribed to St Clement. Bellarmin, Baronius, &c. will have them to be genuine canons of the apostles: Cotelerius observes, that they cannot be ascribed to the apostles or Clement, because they are not received with other books of scripture, are not quoted by the writers of the first ages, and contain many things not agreeable to the apostolical times. Hincmar, De Marca, Beveridge, &c. take them to be framed by the bishops who were the apostles' disciples in the 2d or 3d century; but Daille, &c. maintain them to have been forged by some heretic in the 6th century; and S. Basnage conjectures, that though some of them are ancient, and collected in the 5th century, others are not older than the 7th. The Greek church allow only 85 of them, and the Latins only 50; though there are 84 in the edition given of them in the Corpus Juris Canonici.

(VI.) CANON, in geometry and algebra, a general rule for the solution of all cases of a like nature with the present enquiry. Thus every last step of an equation is a canon; and, if turned into words, becomes a rule to solve all questions of the same nature with that proposed.

(VII.) CANON, in ancient music, is a method of determining the intervals of notes. Ptolemy, rejecting the Aristoxenian way of measuring the intervals in music, by the magnitude of a tone, (which was supposed to be formed by the difference between a diapente and a diatessaron,) thought that musical intervals should be distinguished, according to the proportions which the sounds terminating those intervals bear to one another, when considered according to their degree of acuteness or gravity; which, before Aristoxenus, was the old Pythagorean way. He therefore made the diapason consist in a double ratio; the diapente, in a sesquialterate; the diatessaron, in a sesquitertian; and the tone itself, in a sesquioctave; and all the other intervals, according to the proportion of the sounds that terminate them: wherefore taking the canon for a determinate line of any length, he shows how this canon is to be cut accordingly, so that it may represent the respective intervals; and this method answers exactly to experiment, in the different lengths of musical chords. From this canon, Ptolemy and his followers have been called CANONICI; as those of Aristoxenus were called MUSICI.

(VIII.) CANON, in modern music, is a kind of fugue, which they call a *perpetual fugue*, because the different parts beginning one after another, repeat incessantly the same air. Formerly, says Zarlino, they placed, at the head of perpetual fugues, particular directions which showed how this kind of fugues was to be sung; and these directions being properly the rules by which perpetual fugues were composed were called *canons*, *rules*, or *canons*. From this custom, others taking the title for the thing signified, by a metonimy, termed this kind of composition *canon*. Such canons as are composed with the greatest facility, and of consequence most generally used, begin the fugue either with the octave or the unison; that is to say, that every part repeats in the same tone the melody of the preceding. In order to form a canon of this kind, it is only necessary for the composer to make an air according to his taste; to add in score as many parts as he chooses, where the voices in octave or unison repeat the same melody; then forming a single air from all these parts successively

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ſucceſſively executed, to try whether this ſucceſſion may form an entire piece which will give pleaſure, as well in the harmony as the melody. In executing ſuch a canon, he who ſings the firſt part begins alone, and continues till the air is finiſhed; then recommences immediately, without any ſuſpence of ſound or interruption of time: as ſoon as he has ended the firſt couplet, which ought to ſerve for the perpetual ſubject upon which the whole canon has been compoſed, the 2d part begins and repeats the ſame couplet, whilſt the firſt who had begun purſues the ſecond; and others in ſucceſſion begin, and proceed the ſame way, as ſoon as he who precedes has reached the end of the firſt couplet. Thus, by inceſſantly recommencing an univerſal cloſe can never be found, and the canon may be repeated as long as the fingers pleaſe. A perpetual fugue may likewiſe conſiſt of parts which begin with the intervals of a 4th or 5th; or in other words, every part may repeat the melody of the firſt, a 4th or a 5th higher or lower. It is then neceſſary that the whole canon ſhould be invented *di prima intenzione*, as the Italians ſay; and that ſharps or flats ſhould be added to the notes, whoſe natural gradations do not anſwer exactly, by a 4th or 5th, to the melody of the preceding part, and produce the ſame intervals with itſelf. Here the compoſer cannot pay the leaſt regard to modulation; his only care is, that the melody may be the ſame, which renders the formation of a canon more difficult; for at every time when any part reſumes the fugue, it takes a new key; it changes the tone almoſt at every note, and what is ſtill worſe, no part is at the ſame time found in the ſame tone with another hence it is that this kind of canons, in other reſpects far from being eaſy to be purſued, never produces a pleaſing effect, however good the harmony may be, and however properly it may be ſung. There is a 3d kind of canon, extremely difficult, and boaſting no other merit but the pains which have been thrown away in its compoſition. This may be called a *double canon inverted*, as well by the inverſions which are practiſed in it with reſpect to the melody of the parts, as by thoſe which are found among the parts themſelves, in ſinging. The reader may conſult Rouſſeau's Dictionary in this article, where he is referred to plate D *fig.* 11. for two examples of canons of this ſort extracted from Bontempi, who likewiſe gives rules for their compoſition. To form a canon in which the harmony may be a little varied, it is neceſſary that the parts ſhould not follow each other in ſucceſſion too rapid, and that the one ſhould only begin a conſiderable time after the other. When they follow one another ſo immediately as at the diſtance of a ſemibreve or a minim, the duration is not ſufficient to admit a great number of chords, and the canon moſt of neceſſity exhibit a diſagreeable monotony; but it is a method of compoſing, without much difficulty, a canon in as many parts as the compoſer chooſes. For a canon of 4 bars only will conſiſt of 8 parts if they follow each other at the diſtance of half a bar; and by each bar which is added, two parts will conſtantly be gained. The emperor Charles VI. who was a great muſician, and compoſed extremely well, took much pleaſure in compoſing and ſinging canons. Italy is ſtill replete with moſt beautiful canons compoſed for this prince by the beſt maſters in that country. To what has been ſaid by Rouſſeau we need only ſubjoin, that the Engliſh *catch* and the Italian *canon* are much the ſame; as any intelligent reader may perceive, from comparing the ſtructure and execution of the Engliſh *catch* with the account of *cancns* now given.

(IX.) CANON LAW, a collection of eccleſiaſtical laws, ſerving as the rule of church government. The power of making laws was exerciſed by the church before the Roman empire became Chriſtian. The canon law that obtained throughout the weſt, till the 12th century, was the collection of canons made by Dionyſius Exiguus in 520, the capitularies of Charlemagne, and the decrees of the popes from Syricius to Anaſtaſius III. The canon law, even when papal authority was at its height in England, was of no force when it contradicted the perogative of the king, the laws, ſtatutes, and cuſtoms of the realm, or the doctrine of the eſtabliſhed church. The eccleſiaſtical juriſdiction of the ſee of Rome in England was founded on the cannon law; and this created quarrels between kings and ſeveral archbiſhops and prelates who adhered to the papal uſurpation. Beſides the foreign canons, there were ſeveral laws and conſtitutions made here for the government of the church: but all theſe received their force from the royal aſſent, and if, at any time, the eccleſiaſtical courts did, by their ſentence, endeavour to enforce obedience to ſuch canons, the courts at common law, upon complaints made, would grant prohibition. The authority veſted in the church of England of making canons, was aſcertained by a ſtatute of Henry VIII. commonly called the *act of the clergy's ſubmiſſion*; by which they acknowledged, that the convocation had always been aſſembled by the king's writ; ſo that though the power of making canons reſided in the clergy met in convocation, their force was derived from the authority of the king's aſſenting to and confirming them. The old canons continued in full force till the reign of James I. when the clergy being aſſembled in convocation, the king gave them leave to treat and conſult upon canons, which they did, and preſented them to the king who gave them the royal aſſent: theſe were a collection out of the ſeveral preceding canons and injunctions. Some of theſe canons are now obſolete. In the reign of Charles I. ſeveral canons were paſſed by the clergy in convocation.

CANONARCHA, or CANONARCHUS, } an office in the Greek church, anſwering to the precentor in the Latin, or chanter in the Engliſh church.

* CANON-BIT. *n. ſ.* That part of the bit let into the horſe's mouth.—

A goodly perſon, and could manage fair,
His ſtubborn ſteed with *canonbit*,
Who under him did trample as the air. *Spenſer.*

(1.) * CANONESS. *n. ſ.* [*canoniſſa*, low Lat.] There are in popiſh countries, women they call ſecular *canoneſſes*, living after the example of ſecular canons. *Ayliffe.*

(2.) CANONESS, in the Romiſh church, is a woman

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man who enjoys a prebend, affixed by the foundation, to maids, without their being obliged to renounce the world or make any vows.

(1.) CANONGATE, a burgh adjacent and under vaſſalage to Edinburgh, of which it is one of the ſuburbs. See EDINBURGH. It is governed by a baron bailie and two reſident magiſtrates, appointed by the town council of Edinburgh. Their juriſdiction extends to the E. ſide of the Pleaſance, and to the town of North Leith.

(2.) CANONGATE, a pariſh of Scotland, comprehending ſomewhat more than the burgh, (N° 1.) but not extending to the whole juriſdiction. The population, in 1792, as ſtated by Mr Creech in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 6200.

CANONICA, in philoſophical hiſtory, an appellation given by Epicurus to his doctrine of logic as conſiſting of a few rules for directing the underſtanding in the purſuit of truth. Epicurus's *canonica* is repreſented as a very ſlight and inſufficient logic by ſeveral of the ancients who put a great value on his ethics and phyſics. Laertius even aſſures us, that the Epicureans rejected logic as a ſuperfluous ſcience; and Pultarch complains that Epicurus made an unſkilful and prepoſterous uſe of ſyllogiſms. But theſe cenſures ſeem too ſevere. Epicurus was not averſe to the ſtudy of logic, but even gave better rules in this art, than thoſe philoſophers who aimed at no glory but that of logics. He only ſeems to have rejected the dialectics of the ſtoics, as full of vain ſubtleties and deceits, and fitted rather for parade and diſputation than real uſe. The ſtrength of Epicurus's *canonica* conſiſts in his doctrine of the criteria of truth. All queſtions in philoſophy are either concerning words or things: concerning, things, we ſeek their truth; concerning words their ſignification: things are either natural or moral; and the former are either perceived by ſenſe, or by the underſtanding. Hence, according to Epicurus, ariſe 3 criterions of truth, *viz.* ſenſe, prænotion, and paſſion. The great principle of Epicurus's logic is, that the ſenſes are never deceived: and therefore, that every ſenſation of an appearance is true.

(1.) * CANONICAL. *adj.* [*canonicus*, low Lat.] 1. According to the canon. 2. Conſtituting the canon.—Publick readings there are of books and writings not *canonical*, whereby the church doth alſo preach, or openly make known the doctrine of virtuous converſation. *Hooker.*—No ſuch book was found amongſt thoſe *canonical* ſcriptures. *Raleigh.* 3. Regular; ſtated; fixed by eccleſiaſtical laws.—Seven times a day do I praiſe thee, ſaid David; from this definite number ſome ages of the church took their pattern for their *canonical* hours. *Taylor.* 4. Spiritual; eccleſiaſtical; relating to the church.—York anciently had a metropolitan juriſdiction over all the biſhops of Scotland, from whom they had their conſecration, and to whom they ſwore *canonical* obedience. *Ayliffe*

(2.) CANONICAL HOURS are certain ſtated times of the day, conſigned, more eſpecially by the Romiſh church, to the offices of prayer and devotion. Such are *matins*, *lauds*, *ſixth*, *ninth*, *veſpers*. In England the canonical hours are from 8 to 12 in the forenoon, before or after which marriage cannot be legally performed in any pariſh church.

(3.) CANONICAL LETTERS, in the ancient church, were teſtimonials of the orthodox faith, which the biſhops and clergy ſent each other to keep up the catholic communion, and diſtinguiſh orthodox Chriſtians, from heretics. They were denominated *canonical*, either as being compoſed according to a certain rule, or becauſe they were given to the CANONICI, *i. e.* thoſe comprehended in the canon of their church. When they had occaſion to travel into other countries, recommendatory letters, letters of peace, &c. were ſo many ſpecies of canonical letters.

(4.) CANONICAL LIFE, the rule of living preſcribed by the ancient clergy who lived in community. The canonical life was a kind of medium between the monaſtic and clerical lives. Originally the orders of monks and clerks were entirely diſtinct; but pious perſons afterwards inſtituted colleges of prieſts and canons, where clerks brought up for the miniſtry, as well as others already engaged therein, might live under a fixed rule, which, though ſomewhat more eaſy than the monaſtic, was more reſtrained than the ſecular. Authors are divided about the founder of the canonical life. Some will have it to be founded by the apoſtles; others aſcribe it to pope Urban I. about A. D. 1230, who is ſaid to have ordered biſhops to provide ſuch of their clergy as were willing to live in community, with neceſſaries out of the revenues of their churches. The generality attribute it to St Auguſtin; who, having gathered a number of clerks to devote themſelves to religion, inſtituted a monaſtery within his epiſcopal palace, where he lived in community with them. Onuphrius Panvinius ſays, that pope Gelaſius I. about A. D. 495. placed the firſt regular canons of St Auguſtin in the Lateran church.

(5.) CANONICAL OBEDIENCE is that ſubmiſſion which, by the eccleſiaſtical laws, the inferior clergy are to pay to their biſhops, and the religious to their ſuperiors.

(6.) CANONICAL PORTION, ſo much of the effects of a perſon deceaſed, as the canons allow to his pariſh church.

(7.) CANONICAL PUNISHMENTS are thoſe which the church may inflict; ſuch as excommunication, degredation, and penance, in Roman Catholic countries; alſo faſting, alms, whipping, &c.

(8.) CANONICAL SINS, in the ancient church, thoſe which were capital or mortal; Such as idolatry, murder, adultery, hereſy, and ſchiſm.

* CANONICALLY. *adv.* [from *canonical.*] In a manner agreeable to the canon.—It is a known ſtory of the friar, who on a faſting day, bid his capon be carp, and then very *canonically* eat it. *Government of the Tongue.*

* CANONICALNESS, *n. ſ.* [from *canonical.*] The quality of being canonical.

CANONICATE, *n. ſ.* the office or benefice of a canon.

CANONICI. See CANON, § VII. any CANONICAL, § 3.

CANONICUM denotes, 1. a tax in general: 2. a fee paid by the Greek clergy to biſhops, archbiſhops, and metropolitans, for degrees and promotions: 3. a due of firſt-fruits, paid by the Greek laity to their biſhops or prieſts; according to the number of houſes or chimnies in a place. The conſtitution

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constitution made by the emperor Isaac Comnenus, and confirmed in 1086, by Alexis Comnenus, enacted, that a village containing 30 fires, was to pay for its *canonicum* one piece of gold, two of silver, one sheep, 6 bushels of barley, 6 of wheat flour, 6 measures of wine, and 30 hens.

(1.) * CANONIST. *n. s.* [from *canon*.] A man versed in the ecclesiastical laws; a professour of the canon law.—John Fisher, bishop of Rochester, when the king would have translated him from that poor bishoprick, he refused, saying, he would not forsake his poor little old wife; thinking of the fifteenth canon of the Nicene council, and that of the *canonists*, *Matrimonium inter episcopum & ecclesiam esse contractum*, &c. *Camden's Remains.*

Of whose strange crimes no *canonist* can tell,
In what commandment's large contents they dwell. *Pope.*

(2.) CANONISTS and civilians are usually combined in the same persons: and hence the title of *legum doctor*, or *doctor juris utriusque*, usually expressed in abbreviature, LL. D. or J. U. D.

(1.) * CANONIZATION. *n. s.* [from *canonize*.] The act of declaring any man a saint.—It is very suspicious, that the interests of particular families, or churches, have too great a sway in *canonizations*. *Addison.*

(2.) CANONIZATION, in the Romish church, succeeds beatification. Before a beatified person is canonized, the qualifications of the candidate are strictly examined into, in some consistories held for that purpose; after which, one of the consistorial advocates, in the presence of the pope and cardinals, makes the panegyric of the person who is to be proclaimed a saint, and gives a particular detail of his life and miracles: which done, the holy father decrees his canonization, and appoints the day. On the day of canonization the pope officiates in white, and the cardinals are dress in the same colour. St Peter's church is hung with rich tapestry, upon which the arms of the pope, and of the prince or state requiring the canonization, are embroidered in gold and silver. A vast number of lights blaze all round the church, which is crowded with pious souls, who wait with devout impatience till the new saint has made his public entry as it were into paradise, that they may offer up their petitions to him without danger of being rejected. The following rule is now observed, though it has not been followed above a century, *viz.* not to enter into the enquiries prior to canonization, till 50 years, at least, after the death of the person to be canonized. This rite of the modern Romans resembles the deification of the ancient Romans, and, in all probability, takes its rise from it.

* *To* CANONIZE. *v. a.* [from *canon*, to put into the canon, or rule for observing festivals.] To declare any man a saint.—The king, desirous to bring into the house of Lancaster celestial honour, became suitor to pope Julius, to *canonize* king Henry VI. for a saint. *Bacon.*—

By those hymns all shall approve
Us *canoniz'd* for love. *Donne.*

—They have a pope too, who hath the chief care of religion, and of *canonizing* whom he thinks fit, and thence have the honour of saints. *Stillingfleet.*

CANONMILLS, a village within a mile of Edinburgh, seated on the river Leith. Mr Creech does not mention the number of its inhabitants.

CANONNICUT, a small island of the United States belonging to Rhode-Island, and forming part of Newport county. It lies in Naraganset Bay W. of Rhode-Island, and is about 6 m. long, and 1 broad. It was purchased of the Indians in 1637, and incorporated by act of assembly in 1678, by the name of JAMES-TOWN. It contained, in 1795, 491 free inhabitants and 16 slaves. A light-house was erected on the S. end of it, in 1749, on ground elevated 12 feet above the sea level at high water. The diameter at the base is 24 feet and at the top, 13: The height is 58 feet: around the top of the cornice is a gallery, within which stands the lantern: It is about 14 feet high and 8 feet diameter.

(1.) * CANONRY. CANONSHIP. *n. s.* [from *canon*.] An ecclesiastical benefice in some cathedral or collegiate church, which has a prebend, or a stated allowance out of the revenues of such church, commonly annexed to it. *Ayliffe.*

(2.) CANONRY, differs from a *prebend*, in that the prebend may subsist without the canonicate: whereas the canonicate is inseparable from the prebend; again, the rights of suffrages, and other privileges, are annexed to the canonicate, and not to the prebend.

CANONSBURG, a town of Pennsylvania, in Washington county, on the N. side of the W. branch of Chartiers creek. It has an academy and several valuable mills. It lies 7 miles NE. by E. of Washington; 15 SW. of Pittsburgh; in Lon. 5. 4. W. and Lat 40. 17. N. of Philadelphia.

* CANONSHIP. See CANONRY.

CANOPÆI, the people of Canopus, famous for their luxury and debauchery.

* CANOPIED. *adj.* [from *canopy*.] Covered with a canopy.—

I sat me down to watch upon a bank,
With ivy *canopy'd*, and interwove
With flaunting honeysuckle. *Milton.*

(1.) CANOPUS, in astronomy, a star of the first magnitude in the rudder of ARGO.

(2.) CANOPUS, in Pagan mythology, one of the deities of the ancient Egyptians, and the god of water. It is said, that the Chaldeans, who worshipped fire, carried their deity through other countries to try its power, in order that, if it obtained the victory over the other gods, it might be acknowledged as the true object of worship; and it having easily subdued the gods of wood, stone, brass, silver, and gold, its priests declared, that all gods did it homage. This the priests of Canopus hearing, and finding that the Chaldeans had brought their gods to contend with Canopus, they took a large earthen vessel, in which they bored several holes, which they afterwards stopped with wax, and having filled the vessel with water, painted it of several colours, and fitting the head of their idol to it, brought it out, in order to contend with the Chaldean deity. The Chaldeans accordingly kindled their fire all around it; but the heat having melted the wax, the water gushed out through the holes, and extinguished the fire; and thus Canopus conquered the god of the Chaldeans.

(3.) CANOPUS, or CANOBUS, according to Strabo,

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be, was a native of Amycla, had been Menelaus's pilot, and had a temple erected to him in the town of CANOPUS, N° 4. It is mentioned by Dionyſius. Voſſius remarks the vanity of the Greeks, who, as he conjectures, hearing of the Egyptian deity, (N° 2.) took an opportunity of deifying the pilot of Menelaus, and giving out that the Egyptian god Canopus had been a Greek. F. Monfaucon gives ſeveral repreſentations of this deity. One, in alluſion to the victory above mentioned, (N° 2.) throws out water on every ſide through little holes.

(4.) CANOPUS, or CANOBUS, in ancient geography, a town of the Lower Egypt, on the Mediterranean, near one of the mouths of the Nile, 120 ſtadia or 13 m. E. of Alexandria: as old as the war of Troy, Canopus, (N° 2.) being there buried. See ABOUKIR.

(1.) * CANOPY. *n. ſ.* [*canopeum*, low Lat.] A covering of ſtate over a throne or bed; a covering ſpread over the head.—

She is there brought unto a paled green,
And placed under a ſtately *canopy*,
The warlike feats of both thoſe knights to ſee.
Fairy Queen.

Now ſpread the night her ſpangled *canopy*,
And ſummon'd every reſtleſs eye to ſleep.
Fairfax.

Nor will the raging fever's fire abate,
With golden *canopies*, and beds of ſtate. *Milton.*

(2.) CANOPY is formed from κωνωπειον, *a net ſpread over a bed to keep of the gnats*, of κωνωψ, *a gnat*. Canopies are alſo born over the head in proceſſions of ſtate, after the manner of umbrellas. The canopy of an altar is called CIBORIUM. The Roman grandees had their canopies, or ſpread veils, called *thenſæ*, over their chairs; and in temples over the ſtatues of the gods. The modern cardinals ſtill retain the uſe of canopies.

* *To* CANOPY. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To cover with a canopy.—

The birch, the myrtle, and the bay,
Like friends did all embrace;
And their large branches did diſplay,
To *canopy* the place. *Dryden.*

* CANOROUS. *adj.* [*canorus*, Lat.] Muſical; tuneful.—Birds that are moſt *canorous*, and whoſe notes we moſt commend, are of little throats, and ſhort. *Brown's Vulgar Errours.*

CANOSA, a town of Naples, in Puglia, occupying part of the ſite of the ancient CANUSIUM. The old city was one of the moſt conſiderable in this part of Italy, for extent, population, and magnificent buildings. The æra of Trajan ſeems to have been that of its greateſt ſplendour; but this pomp only ſerved to mark it as a capital object for the avarice and fury of the Barbarians. Genſeric, Totila, and Autharis, treated it with extreme cruelty. The deplorable ſtate to which this province was reduced in 590 is conciſely but ſtrongly painted by Gregory the Great, in theſe terms: "On every ſide we hear groans! On every ſide we behold crowds of mourners, cities burnt, caſtles raſed to the ground, countries laid waſte, provinces become deſerts, ſome citizens led away captives, and others inhumanly maſſacred." No town in Puglia ſuffered more from the Saracens; the conteſts between the Greeks and Normans increaſed the meaſure of its woes, which was completed by a conflagration when it was ſtormed by duke Robert. In 1090, it was aſſigned to Bohemund prince of Antioch, who died here in 1111. Under the reign of Ferdinand III. it belonged to the Grimaldis. On their forfeiture, the Aſſaititi acquired it, and ſtill retain the title of marquis, though the Capeci are the proprietors of the fief. The ancient city ſtood in a plain between the hills and the river Ofanto, and covered a large tract of ground. Many brick monuments, though ſtripped of their marble caſing, ſtill atteſt its ancient grandeur. Among them may be traced the fragments of aqueducts, tombs, amphitheatres, baths, military columns, and two triumphal arches, which, by their poſition, ſeem to have been two city gates. The preſent town ſtands above, on the foundation of the old citadel, and is a remnant of ſo great a city, not containing above 300 houſes. The church of St Sabinus, built in the 6th century, is now without the incloſure. It is aſtoniſhing, that any part of this cathedral ſhould have withſtood ſo many calamities. Its altars and pavements are rich in marbles; and in a ſmall court adjoining, under an octagonal cupola, is the mauſoleum of Bohemund, adorned in a minute Gothic ſtyle.

CANOURGE, a town of France, in the department of Lozere, the ci-devant territory of Gevaudan.

CAN PUMP. See CAN, § 4. N° 3.

CANQUES, in commerce, a ſort of cotton cloth made in China; with which the Chineſe make the garments next their ſkin, which are properly their ſhirts.

CANSCHY, in botany, the name of a tree in Japan, from which the inhabitants of that country make their paper.

CANSO, a ſea port of Nova Scotia, ſeated on a narrow ſtrait which ſeparates it from Cape Breton. Near this town is a fine fiſhery for cod. Lon. 60. 55. W. Lat. 45. 20. N.

CANSTAT, a town of Germany, in Suabia, in the duchy of Wirtemberg, ſituated on the river Neckar. Lon. 9. 9. W. Lat. 48. 51. N.

(1.) * CANT. *n. ſ.* [probably from *cantus*, Lat.] implying the odd tone of voice uſed by vagrants; but imagined by ſome to be corrupted from *quaint*.] 1. A corrupt dialect uſed by beggars and vagabonds. 2. A particular form of ſpeaking peculiar to ſome certain claſs or body of men.—I write not always in the proper terms of navigation, land ſervice, or in the *cant* of any profeſſion. *Dryden.* If we would trace out the original of that flagrant and avowed impiety, which has prevailed among us for ſome years, we ſhould find, that it owes its riſe to that *cant* and hypocriſy, which had taken poſſeſſion of the people's minds in the times of the great rebellion. *Addiſon's Freeholder.*—Aſtrologers, with an old paltry *cant*, and a few pothooks for plantes, to amuſe the vulgar, have too long been ſuffered to abuſe the world. *Swift's Predictions for the Year 1701.*—A few general rules, with a certain *cant* of words, has ſometimes ſet up an illiterate heavy writer, for a moſt judicious and formidable critick. *Addiſon's Spectator.*

3. A

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3. A whining pretenſion to goodneſs, in formal and affected terms.—

Of promiſe prodigal, while pow'r you want,
And preaching in the ſelf-denying *cant*.
Dryden's Aurengz.

4. Barbarous jargon.—The affection of ſome late authours, to introduce and multiply *cant* words, is the moſt ruinous corruption in any language. *Swift.* 5. Auction.—Numbers of theſe tenants, on their deſcendants, are now offering to ſell their leaſes by *cant*, even thoſe which were for lives. *Swift.*

(2.) CANT, (§ 1. *def.* 1.) differs from *technical* in this: that the former is reſtrained to words introduced out of folly, affectation, or impoſture; (ſee CANTING LANGUAGE,) the latter is applied to ſuch as are introduced for the ſake of clearneſs, and preciſion.

(3.) CANT, (§ 1. *def.* 3.) is deduced by Skinner from the German, Flemiſh, and Saxon tongues. According to tradition, Cant was the proper name of a Cameronian preacher in Scotland, who had habituated himſelf to preach in ſuch a peculiar tone and dialect, as were underſtood by none but his own congregation; and ſince his time, the word has been extended to all ſudden exclamations, and whining unmuſical tones, eſpecially in praying and preaching. But the true derivation is plainly from the Latin *cantare*, to ſing.

(4.) CANT, ſignifying auction, (§ 1. *def.* 5.) is derived according to ſome, from *quantum*, how much; according to others, from *cantare*, to ſing or cry aloud; agreeable to which, we ſometimes alſo call it an *out-cry*.

* *To* CANT. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To talk in the jargon of particular profeſſions, or in any kind of formal affected language, or with a peculiar and ſtudied tone of voice.—Men *cant* about *materia* and *forma*; hunt chimeras by rules of art, or dreſs up ignorance in words of bulk or ſound, which may ſtop up the mouth of enquiry. *Glanville.*—That uncouth affected garb of ſpeech, or *canting* language rather, if I may ſo call it, which they have of late taken up, is the ſignal diſtinction and characteriſtical note of that, which, in that their new language, they call the godly party. *Sanderſon.*

The buſy, ſubtile ſerpents of the law,
Did firſt my mind from true obedience draw;
While I did limits to the king preſcribe,
And took for oracles that *canting* tribe.
Roſcommon.

Unſkill'd in ſchemes by planets to foreſhow,
Like *canting* raſcals, how the wars will go.
Dryden's Juv.

CANTABRI. See CANTABRIANS.

CANTABRIA, a diſtrict of Terraconenſis, on the Oceanus Cantabricus, now called BISCAY. See the two next articles.

CANTABRIAN LANGUAGE. Dr Wallis makes the Cantabrian the ancient language of all Spain; which, according to him, like the Gauliſh, gave way to a kind of broken Latin, called *romance* or *romanſhe*; which by degrees was refined into the Caſtilian, or preſent Spaniſh. But we can hardly ſuppoſe, that ſo large a country inhabited by ſuch a variety of people ſpoke all the ſame language. The ancient Cantabrian, in fact, ſtill ſubſiſts in the more barren and mountainous parts of Biſcay, Aſturias, and Navarre, as far as Bayonne, much as the Britiſh does in Wales; but the people only talk it; for in writing, they uſe either Spaniſh or French, as they happen to live under the one or the other nation. Some attribute this to a jealouſy of foreigners learning the myſteries of their language; others to a poverty of words. The Cantabrian does not appear to have any affinity with any other known language, excepting that ſome Spaniſh words have been adopted in it for things, whoſe uſe the Cantabrians were anciently unacquainted with. Its pronunciation is not diſagreeable. The Lord's prayer, in the Cantabrian tongue, runs thus: *Gure aita cervetan aicena, ſantifica bedi hire icena, ethor bedi hire reſuma, eguin bedi hire vorondatea, cervan becala hurrean ere*, &c.

CANTABRIANS, the inhabitants of Cantabria, famous for their warlike character. In conjunction with the ASTURIANS, they carried on deſperate wars with the Romans; but were ſubdued by them about A. A. C. 25. Impatient, however, of a foreign yoke, they ſoon revolted. Moſt of their youth had been taken priſoners by the Romans, and ſold for ſlaves to the neighbouring nations; but having found means to break their chains, they cut the throats of their maſters; and returning to their own country, attacked the Roman garriſons with incredible fury. Agrippa marched againſt them with great expedition; but, on his arrival, met with ſo vigorous a reſiſtance, that his ſoldiers began to diſpair of ever reducing them. As the Cantabrians had waged war with the Romans for upwards of 200 years, they were well acquainted with their manner of fighting, no way inferior to them in courage, and were now become deſperate; knowing, that if they were conquered, after having ſo often attempted to recover their liberty, they muſt expect the moſt ſevere uſage. Animated with this reflection, they fell upon the Romans with a fury hardly to be imagined, routed them in ſeveral engagements, and defended themſelves when attacked, with ſuch intrepidity, that Agrippa afterwards owned, that, he had never, either by ſea or land, been engaged in a more dangerous enterpriſe. That brave commander uſed intreaties and menaces, and even branded ſome of his legionaries with ignominy, before he could bring them to enter the liſts with ſuch a formidable foe. But having at laſt prevailed upon them to try the chance of an engagement in the open field, he ſo animated them by his example, that, after a moſt obſtinate diſpute, he gained a complete victory, which put an end to that deſtructive war. All the Cantabrians fit to bear arms were cut in pieces; their caſtles and ſtrong holds taken and raſed; and their women, children, and old men (none elſe being left alive,) were obliged to abandon the mountainous places, and ſettle in the plain.

CANTABRICA, in botany, a ſynonime of a ſpecies of CONVOLVULUS.

CANTABRICUS OCEANUS, the ancient name of the Bay of BISCAY.

CANTABRUM, in antiquity, a large flag uſed by the Roman emperors, diſtinguiſhed by its peculiar colour, and bearing ſome motto of good omen, to encourage the ſoldiers.

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CANTACUZENUS, Johannes, a celebrated ſtateſman, general, and hiſtorian, born in Conſtantinople, of a noble family. He was bred to letters and to arms, and admitted to the higheſt offices of the ſtate. The emperor Andronicus loaded him with wealth and honours; made him generaliſſimo of his forces; and deſired him to join him in the government, but this he refuſed. Andronicus dying in 1341, left to Cantacuzenus the care of the empire, till John Paleologus, then only 9 years of age, ſhould be fit to take it upon himſelf. This truſt he faithfully diſcharged; till the empreſs dowager and her faction forming a party againſt him, declared him a traitor. On this, the principal nobility and the army beſought him to aſcend the throne; and accordingly he was crowned, 21ſt May, 1342. This was followed by a civil war, which laſted 5 years: when he had admitted John a partner with him in the empire, and their union was confirmed by his giving him his daughter in marriage. Suſpicions and enmities, however, ſoon ariſing, the war broke out again, and continued till John took Conſtantinople, in 1355. A few days after, Cantacuzenus, unwilling to continue the effuſion of blood, abdicated his ſhare of the empire and retiring to a monaſtery, took the habit of a monk, and the name of *Joaſaphas*. His wife alſo retired to a nunnery, and changed her name to *Irene* for that of *Eugenia*. In this retirement, he lived till 1411, when he was upwards of 100 years of age. Here he wrote a hiſtory of his own times, a Latin tranſlation of which, from the Greek M. S. was publiſhed by Pontanus at Ingolſtadt, in 1603; and a ſplendid edition was printed at Paris, in 1645, in three volumes folio, of the original Greek, and Pontanus's Latin verſion. He alſo wrote an apology for the Chriſtian religion againſt that of Mahomet, under the name of *Chriſtodulus*.

CANTÆ, the ancient inhabitants of Roſs-ſhire, in Scotland.

(1.) CANTAL, a department of France, ſo named from the mountain, (N° 2.) bounded by thoſe of Lot on the W. Correze on the NW. Puy de Dome on the N. Upper Loire and Lozere on the E. and Aveiron on the S. It is formed out of the ci-devant province of Auvergne. St Flour is the chief town.

(2.) CANTAL, a mountain in the above department, which is almoſt conſtantly covered with ſnow.

CANTALIVERS. See CANTILIVERS, & *Pl.* 21.

CANTAR, or (1.) CANTARO, } 1. an eaſtern weight, of different value in different places, equal at Acra in Turky to 603 pounds; at Tunis and Tripoli to 114 pounds: 2. an Egyptian weight, called alſo a QUINTAL, conſiſting of 100, or 150 rotolos, according to the goods they are to weigh: 3. another Egyptian weight, which at Naples is equivalent to 25 pounds, at Genoa to 150 pounds: 4. at Leghorn there are 3 kinds of CANTAROS; one weighing 150 pounds, another 151, and a third 160 pounds.

(2.) CANTARO is alſo a meaſure of capacity, uſed at Cochin, containing four rubies, the rubi 32 rotolos.

(3.) CANTARO is alſo a Spaniſh liquid meaſure, uſed eſpecially at Alicant, containing 3 gallons.

CANTARINI, Simon, a famous painter, called the *Peſareſe*, from his being born at Peſaro, was the diſciple of Guido; and copied the manner of his maſter ſo exactly, that it is often difficult to diſtinguiſh their works. He died at Verona in 1648.

(1.) * CANTATA. *n. ſ.* [Italian] A ſong.

(2.) CANTATA, in muſic, is a compoſition, intermixed with recitatives, airs, and different movements, chiefly intended for a ſingle voice, with a thorough baſs, though ſometimes for other inſtruments. When performed with judgment, it is very agreeable; the variety of the movement not clogging the ear, like other compoſitions. It was firſt uſed in Italy.

* CANTATION. *n. ſ.* [from *canto*, Lat.] The act of ſinging.

CANTATRICES, in writers of the middle age, hired mourners at funerals.

CANTAZARO, an epiſcopal city of Naples, in Calabria Ulterior. It is the reſidence of the governor of the province, and is ſeated near the ſea, in Lon. 17. 0. E. Lat. 38. 59. N.

(1.) CANTECROIX, a ci-devant territory of the Auſtrian Netherlands, in Brabant, now annexed to the French republic. Lire was the capital.

(2.) CANTECROIX, a town of France, in the above diſtrict, (N° 1.) now included in the department of Dyle.

CANTEENS, in military language, tin veſſels in the form of ſquare bottles, uſed for carrying water to ſupply the ſoldiers in camp.

CANTEL, or CANTELLUM, } in ancient Engliſh writers, a cuſtom of ſelling by the lump, without tale or meaſure.

(1.) CANTEMIR, Antiochus, eſteemed the founder of the Ruſſian poetry, was the youngeſt ſon of Demetrius, (N° 2.) Under the moſt ingenious profeſſors, whom the Czar Peter had invited to Peterſburgh, he learned mathematics, phyſic, hiſtory, moral philoſophy, and polite literature; without neglecting the ſtudy of the Holy Scriptures, to which he had a great inclination. Scarce had he finiſhed his academic courſe, when he printed a Concordance to the Pſalms in the Ruſſian language, and was elected member of the academy. The affairs of ſtate in which he was ſoon after engaged, did not make him neglect his literary purſuits. In order to make himſelf uſeful to his fellow citizens, he compoſed his ſatires, to ridicule certain prejudices which had got footing among them. When but 23 years of age, he was nominated miniſter at the court of Great Britain; and his dexterity in the management of public affairs was as much admired as his taſte for the ſciences. He had the ſame reputation in France, whither he went in 1738, in quality of miniſter plenipotentiary, and ſoon after was inveſted with the character of ambaſſador extraordinary. The wiſe and prudent manner in which he conducted himſelf during the different revolutions which happened in Ruſſia during his abſence, gained him the confidence and eſteem of 3 ſucceſſive princes. He died of a dropſy, at Paris,

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ris, in 1744, aged 44. Besides the pieces already mentioned, he wrote, 1. Some fables and odes. 2. A translation of Horace's epistles into Russian verse. 3. A prose translation of Fontenelle's plurality of worlds; and, 4. Algarotti's dialogues on sight. The abbe Guasco has written his life in French, and translated his satires into that language.

(2.) CANTEMIR, Demetrius, the son of a prince of Moldavia. Disappointed by not succeeding his father in that dignity, held under the Ottoman Porte, he went over with his army to the Czar Peter the great, against whom he had been sent by the Grand Signior: he signalized himself in the Czar's service; and in the republic of letters, by a Latin history of the origin and decline of the Ottoman empire. He died in 1723.

* CANTER. *n. s.* [from *cant*, Lat.] A term of reproach for hypocrites, who talk formally of religion, without obeying it.

CANTERA, one of the principal rivers of Sicily; anciently called TAUROMINIUS.

(1) CANTERBURY, a city of England, the capital of the county of Kent. It had the names of DUROVERNUM and DARVERNUM given it by the Romans, and *Duroberria* by Bede, which are thought to be derived from *Dur-wher*, *i. e.* a rapid stream, such as the Stour, on which it stands. The Britons call it *Caer-Kent*, *i. e.* the city of Kent; and its present English name, from the Saxon, is of the same import. Modern writers in Latin call it *Cantuaria*. Its great antiquity appears not only from Antoninus's Itinerary, but from the military way discovered in it, and the causeways leading to Dover and Lymme, besides the coins and other curiosities found about it. The archiepiscopal and metropolitan dignity was settled here very early; and to prevent its being removed, an anathema was decreed against any who should attempt it. After that, the city flourished greatly; though it suffered in common with other towns during the Danish invasions, and at others times by fire. It was given entirely to Bishop Anselm and his successors by William Rufus, and was held in the utmost veneration in the Popish times, especially after the murder of Becket in the reign of Henry II. to whose shrine so great was the resort, and so rich were the offerings, that Erasmus, who was an eye-witness of its wealth, says the whole church and chapel in which he was interred glittered with jewels; and at the dissolution of the monasteries, the plate and jewels filled two great chests, each of which required 8 strong men to carry them out. The cathedral was granted by Ethelbert, king of Kent, upon his conversion, to Augustine the monk, together with his palace, and the royalty of the city and its territories. See AUGUSTINE, N° 2. After the cathedral had been several times destroyed by fire and rebuilt, the present was begun about A. D. 1174, and augmented and embellished by the succeeding archbishops, till it was completed in the reign of Henry V. It is a noble Gothic pile, and before the reformation had 37 altars. Many kings, princes, cardinals, and archbishops, are buried in it. At the dissolution, Henry VIII. seized all the revenues both of the church and monastery, except what he allotted for the maintenance of a dean, 12 prebendaries, and six preachers, whom he established in place of the monks. (See N° 5.) During the grand rebellion, it suffered much; Cromwell having made a stable of it for his dragoons. After the restoration, it was repaired, and made what it now appears. The city had anciently a castle on the S. side, and strong walls, with towers, a ditch, and rampart; it had also a mint and an exchange. As to its government, it seems to have been entirely subject to the Abp. both in spirituals and temporals, till the reformation. It is now a county of itself; and the corporation consists of a mayor, recorder, 12 aldermen, a sheriff, 24 common council-men, a mace-bearer, a sword-bearer, and 4 serjeants at mace. Every Monday a court is held at Guildhall for civil and criminal causes; and every other Tuesday for the government of the city. Formerly 2000 or 3000 French Protestants were employed in the silk manufacture; but this branch is now greatly decayed in the place, since Spittalfields became so flourishing. Besides the cathedral, it contains 15 parish churches 7 hospitals, a free school, a house of correction, a gaol for criminals, and a sumptuous conduit for supplying the inhabitants with water. It consists of 4 streets, in the form of a cross, and divided into six wards, which are about 3 miles in circumference. It is surrounded on all hands with hop grounds much to its advantage, and is famed for its excellent brawn. It is situated 26 m. SE. by E of Rochester, and 56 from London. Lon. 1. 4. E. Lat. 51. 19. N.

(2.) CANTERBURY, a town of the United States, in Connecticut, agreeably situated in Windham county; on the W. side of the river Quimaboug, over which there is a wooden bridge. It is 9 m. E. by S. of Windham.

(3.) * CANTERBURY BELLS. See BELFLOWER.

(4.) CANTERBURY BELLS, in botany: The English name of a species of CAMPANULA.

(5.) CANTERBURY, DIOCESE OF. The diocese of Canterbury contains 256 parishes, besides chapels, in Kent, and about 100 more in other dioceses. These are called *Peculiars*; it being an ancient privilege of this see, that, wheresoever the archbishops had either manors or advowsons, the place was exempted from the jurisdiction of the ordinary of the diocese where it was situated, and was deemed in the diocese of Canterbury. This see is valued in the king's books at L. 4816: 17: $9\frac{1}{4}$, but is reckoned to produce a clear revenue of L. 8000 a-year. The clergy's tenths come to L. 651: 18: $2\frac{1}{4}$. This see had many great privileges in the time of Popery, some of which it still retains. The archbishop is accounted primate and metropolitan of England, and is the first peer in the realm; having the precedence of all dukes not of the blood royal, and all the great officers of state. In common speech, he is styled *His Grace*, and he writes himself *Divina Providentia*; whereas other bishops style themselves *Divinia Permissione*. At coronations, he places the crown on the king's head; and, wherever the court may be, the king and queen are the proper domestic parishioners of the archbishop of Canterbury. The bishop of London is accounted his provincial dean, the bishop of Winchester his sub-dean, the bishop of Lincoln his chancellor, and the bishop of

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of Rochester his chaplain. This see hath yielded to the church 18 saints; to the church of Rome, 9 cardinals; to the civil state of England 12 lord chancellors, 4 lord treasurers, and 1 lord chief justice; and 9 chancellors to the University of Oxford. To this see belongs only one archdeacon. To the cathedral belong an archbishop, a dean, a chancellor, an archdeacon, 12 prebends, 6 preachers, 6 minor canons, 6 substitutes, 12 lay clerks, 10 choristers, 2 masters, 50 scholars, and 12 almsmen.

(6.) * CANTERBURY GALLOP. [In horsemanship.] The hand gallop of an ambling horse, commonly called a canter; said to be derived from the monks riding to Canterbury on easy ambling horses.

CANTERIL, or CANTHERIL, in ancient architecture, rafters or joists of a house, which reach down from the ridge to the eaves.

CANTERTON, a town in Hampshire, New forest.

CANTERUS, William, an eminent linguist and philologer, was born at Utrecht, in 1542. He studied at Louvain and Paris; and gave surprising proofs of his progress in Greek and Latin literature. He afterwards visited the universities of Germany and Italy; and died at Louvain, in 1575, aged 33. He understood six languages, besides that of his native country; and, notwithstanding his dying so young, wrote several philological and critical works, among which are, *Notæ, Scholia, Emendationes, et Explicationes, in Euripidem, Sophoclem, Æschylum, Ciceronem, Propertium, Ausonium*, &c. and many translations of Greeks authors.

CANTERWOOD, a village in Kent.

(1.) * CANTHARIDES. *n. s.* [Latin.] Spanish flies; used to raise blisters.—The flies, *cantharides*, are bred of a worm, or caterpillar, but peculiar to certain fruit trees; as are the fig tree, the pine tree, and the wild brier; all which bear sweet fruit, and a fruit that had a kind of secret biting or sharpness: for the fig hath a milk in it, that is sweet and corrosive; the pine apple hath a kernel that is strong and abstersive. *Bacon's Nat. History.*

(2.) CANTHARIDES, in medicine and zoology, a kind of poisonous insects, much used as an epispastic. The stimulating power of canthardies is caused by a very acrid resinous substance contained in these insects, two scruples of which Neumann extracted from 4 ounces of cantharides by spirit of wine. Cantharides are very sharp and corrosive, abounding with a subtile caustic, volatile salt; whereby they become exceedingly injurious to the bladder, so as to ulcerate it, even when applied externally, if suffered to lie on too long. They are much commended in fevers, delirium, &c. and are sometimes given even internally. See MEDICINE, *Index*. The generic name of these insects is MELOE, which see.

CANTHARIS, in zoology, a genus of insects belonging to the order of insecta coleoptera. The feelers of this genus are cetaceous; the breast is marginated, and shorter than the head; the elytra, or wing cases, are flexile; and the sides of the belly are plated and papillous. Linnæus enumerates 27 species of the cantharis, most of them to be found in different parts of Europe. See *Plate* XLVIII.

CANTHAROS. See ATHENS, § 4.

CANTHI. See CANTHUS, N° 1, 3 and 4.

(1.) * CANTHUS. *n. s.* [Latin.] The corner of the eye. The internal is called the greater, the external the lesser *canthus*. *Quincy.*—A gentlewoman was seized with an inflammation and tumour in the great *canthus*, or angle of her eye. *Wiseman.*

(2.) CANTHUS, in chemistry, the lip of a vessel, or that part of the mouth, which is a little hollowed, for the easy pouring off a liquor. Hence to decant, is to pour through that place.

(3.) CANTHUS MAJOR, } in anatomy. See A-
(4.) CANTHUS MINOR, } NATOMY, § 367.

(1.) * CANTICLE. *n. s.* [from *canto*, Lat.] A song; used generally for a song in scripture.—This right of estate, in some nations, is yet more significantly expressed by Moses in his *canticles*, in the person of God to the Jews. *Bacon's Holy War.*

(2.) CANTICLES. See SONG OF SOLOMON.

CANTII, an ancient people of Britain, who inhabited CANTIUM, now Kent. Those who possessed it at the time of the first Roman invasion were evidently of Belgic origin, and had come over so lately, that they differed in nothing from their countrymen on the continent. "The inhabitants of Kent (says Cæsar) are the most civilized of all the Britons, and differ but very little in their manners from the Gauls." This great resemblance between the people of Kent and their neighbours on the continent, might be partly owing to the situation of their country, which being nearest to the continent, was most frequented by strangers from thence. It was this situation also which exposed them to the first assaults of the Romans. For Cæsar, in both his expeditions into this island landed in Kent; and therefore we may conclude, that the Cantii had a great share in the vigorous opposition that was made to his landing, and in the battles and skirmishes which were fought against him after his landing; particularly, they made a very bold unsuccessful attempt, upon his naval camp. The Cantii did not make the same vigorous resistance to the Romans on their next invasion in the reign of Claudius. For Aulus Plautius, the Roman general, in that expedition, traversed their country without seeing an enemy; and as they now submitted to the power of Rome without a struggle, so they continued quiet to the very last.

* CANTILIVERS. *n. s.* Pieces of wood framed into the front or other sides of an house, to sustain the moulding and eaves over it. *Moxon's Mechanical Exercises.*

CANTILLANA. See BASILIPPUM.

* CANTION. *n. s.* [*cantio*, Lat.] Song, verses. Not now in use.—In the eighth eclogue the same person was brought in singing a *cantion* of Collin's making. *Spens. Kal. Glo.*

CANTIMARONS, or CATIMARONS, a kind of floats or rafts, used by the inhabitants of the coast of Coromandel to go a fishing in, and to trade along the coast. They are made of 3 or 4 small canoes, or trunks of trees, dug hollow, and tied together with cacao ropes, with a triangular sail in the middle, made of matts. Those who manage them are almost half in the water, there being only a place in the middle a little raised to hold their merchandise; which last particular is only to be understood of the trading catimarons, and not of those who go a fishing.

CANTIN,

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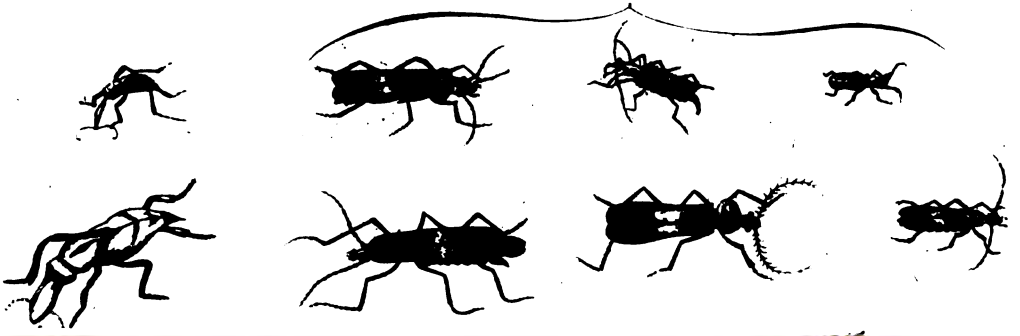

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CANTIN, CAPE, a promontory of Africa, on the W. coaſt of Morocco. Lon. 10. 3. W. Lat. 33. 5. N.

(1.) CANTING, a ſea-phraſe, denotes the act of turning any thing about.

(2.) CANTING LANGUAGE, or DIALECT, is a myſterious ſort of jargon uſed by gypſies, thieves, and ſtrolling beggars, to expreſs their ſentiments to each other, without being underſtood by the reſt of mankind. This dialect is not founded on any rules: yet, even out of that irregularity many words ſeem to retain ſomething of ſcholarſhip; as *togeman* a gown, from *toga* in the Latin; *pannam*, bread, from *panis*; *caſan*, cheeſe, from *caſeus*, &c. Some of their terms have been inadvertantly adopted into our common language; as *bite* and *bilk*, to cheat; *bounce*, to vapour; *bowſe*, ſtrong drink; *filch*, to ſteal; *flog*, to whip; *rig*, game or ridicule; *roaſt*, to rally; *rhino*, money, &c. From the ſame ſource proceed the words *ſham*, *banter*, *bubble*, *bully*, *ſharper*, *cutting*, *ſhuffling*, *palming*, &c. An anonymous author has given a canting dictionary, comprehending all the terms uſed by the ſeveral tribes of gypſies, beggars, ſhoplifters, highwaymen, footpads, and other clans of cheats and villains, with a collection of ſongs in the canting dialect; London, 1725, 8vo.

(1.) CANTIUM, in ancient geography, a promontory of Britain, literally denoting a head land; which gave name to the territory, (N° 2.) and to the people, called CANTII. It is now named NORTH FORELAND.

(2.) CANTIUM, an ancient territory in S. Britain, ſuppoſed to have been the firſt diſtrict, which received a colony from the continent; and that it had frequently changed its maſters, by new colonies coming over from time to time, and driving the inhabitants farther north. In the midſt of all theſe revolutions it ſtill retained its ancient name, and continued the name of CANTII to all the ſucceſſive tribes by which it was inhabited. The ſituation of Cantium occaſioned its being much frequented by the Romans, who generally took their way through it, in their marches to and from the continent. Few places in Britain are more frequently mentioned by the Roman writers than RUTUPIUM, and PORTUS RUTUPENSIS. PORTUS DUBRIS, now Dover, DUROBRIVÆ and DUROVERNUM, now Rocheſter and Canterbury, were alſo Roman towns and ſtations, and are often mentioned in the Itinerary, &c. Cantium, in the moſt perfect ſtate of the Roman government, made a part of the province called FLAVIA CÆSARIENSIS.

* CANTLE. *n. ſ.* [*kant*, Dut. a corner; *eſchantillon*, Fr. a piece.] A piece with corners. *Skinner.*—

See how this river comes, me crankling in,
And cuts me from the beſt of all my land,
A huge half-moon, a monſtrous *cantle* out.
Shakeſpeare's Henry IV.

* *To* CANTLE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To cut in pieces.—

For four times talking, if one piece thou take,
That muſt be *cantled*, and the judge go ſnack.
Dryden Juv.

* CANTLET. *n. ſ.* [from *cantle*.] A piece; a fragment.—

Nor ſhield, nor armour can their force oppoſe;
Huge *cantlets* of his buckler ſtrew the ground,
And no defence in his bor'd arms is found.
Dryden.

CANTLEY, two villages; viz. 1. eight m. E. of Norwick: 2. in Yorkſhire, S. of Doncaſter.

(1.) * CANTO. *n. ſ.* [Ital.] A book, or ſection of a poem.—

Why, what would you do?———
—Make a willow cabbin at your gate,
And call upon my ſoul within the houſe;
Write loyal *cantos* of contemned love.
Shakeſ. Twelfth Night.

(2.) CANTO properly ſignifies *ſong*. Taſſo, Arioſto, and ſeveral other Italians, have divided their heroic poems into cantos. In imitation of them, Scarron has alſo divided his *Gigantomachia*, and Boileau his *Lutrin*, into chants or ſongs. The like uſage has been adopted by ſome Engliſh writers, as Butler, who divides his Hudibras, and Dr Garth his Diſpenſatory into cantos.

(3.) CANTO, in the Italian muſic, ſignifies a *ſong*: hence *canto ſimplice*, or *canto fermo*, is where all the notes or figures are equal; *canto figurato*, that where the figures are unequal, and expreſs different motions. It alſo ſignifies the treble part of a ſong: hence *canto concertante*, the treble of the little chorus; *canto ripieno*, the treble of the grand chorus, or that which ſings only now and then in particular places. *Canto* ſignifies the firſt treble, unleſs ſome other word be added to it, as *ſecondo*, the ſecond.

(1.) * CANTON. *n. ſ.* 1. A ſmall parcel or diviſion of land.—Only that little *canton* of land, called the Engliſh pale, containing four ſmall ſhires, did maintain a bordering war with the Iriſh, and retain the form of Engliſh government. *Davies.* 2. A ſmall community, or clan.—The ſame is the caſe of rovers by land; ſuch, as yet, are ſome *cantons* in Arabia, and ſome petty kings of the mountains, adjacent to ſtraits and ways. *Bacon's Holy War.*

(2.) CANTON alſo implies a country conſtituting a diſtinct government; ſuch as the cantons of Switzerland.

(3.) CANTON, a large, populous, and wealthy city of China, capital of the provinces of QUANGTONG, ſeated on the banks of the river Taa. The wall is pretty high, and about 6 or 7 miles in circumference, though not more than one third of the ground is occupied by buildings, the other parts being appropriated to pleaſure grounds or to fiſh ponds. The compaſs of the city and ſuburbs together, is about ten miles. The buildings are in general low, conſiſting of one ſtory and a ground floor, which is covered with earth or red tiles in order to keep it cool; but the houſes of the moſt reſpectable merchants and mandarins are comparatively lofty and well built. In different parts of the city and ſuburbs are joſs houſes or temples, in which are placed the images worſhipped by the Chineſe; before whom are placed, at particular ſeaſons, a vaſt variety of ſweetmeats, oranges, great plenty of food ready dreſſed, and incenſe, which is kept perpetually burning. The ſtreets are long and narrow, paved with flint,

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ſtilt, adorned at intervals with triumphal arches, and crowded with people. On both ſides are ſhops, appropriated to the ſale of different commodities; and a kind of awning is extended from houſe to houſe, which prevents the ſun's rays from incommoding either inhabitants or paſſengers. At the end of every ſtreet is a barrier, which, with the gates of the city, are ſhut in the evening. In China Street, which is pretty long and conſiderably wider than the reſt, reſide merchants; whoſe trade, ſo far as reſpects China, lackered ware, fans, &c. is wholly confined to Europeans. Moſt of them ſpeak the foreign languages tolerably well, or at leaſt ſufficiently intelligible for buſineſs. Beſides theſe there is a company of 12 or 13, called the COHONG; who have an excluſive right by authority to purchaſe the cargoes from the different ſhips, and alſo to ſupply them with teas, raw ſilks, &c. in return. The eſtabliſhment of the Cohong, though injurious to private trade, is admirably adapted for the ſecurity of the different companies with which they traffic; for each individual becomes a guarantee for the whole; ſo that if one fail, the others conſider themſelves as reſponſible. In Canton there are no carriages; all burdens are carried by porters acroſs their ſhoulders on bamboos; as are alſo the principal people in ſedan chairs, and the ladies always. The ſtreets may be traverſed from morning till evening without ſeeing a woman, thoſe excepted who are Tartars, and even theſe but very ſeldom. On the wharf of the river, which is commodious and pleaſant, ſtand the factories of the Dutch, French, Swedes, Danes, Engliſh, &c. In thoſe reſide the ſupercargoes belonging to their reſpective companies, who are appointed to diſpoſe of the cargoes brought to market; to ſupply the ſhips with others for Europe in return, and, during their abſence, to contract with the merchants for ſuch articles as may be judged neceſſary for the next fleet. Between the reſidents of the factories the moſt perfect cordiality ſubſiſts; in each a common and ſplendid table is kept at the company's expence, and viſits are reciprocally exchanged; ſo that nothing is wanting to make reſidence at Canton agreeable to an European, but the pleaſure reſulting from the ſociety of women. The ſide of the river next the city is covered with boats, which form a kind of town or ſtreets, in which live the poorer ſort of the Chineſe, or rather the deſcendants of the Tartars. Some of the men come on ſhore in the morning to their reſpective employments, and in thoſe ſampans or boats which are not ſtationary, the women and alſo the men carry paſſengers from place to place in the ſame manner as is done by wherries on the Thames. On this river live many thouſand ſouls who never were permitted to come on ſhore, whoſe only habitation is their boat; in which they eat, drink, ſleep, carry on many occupations, keep ducks, &c. and, occaſionally a hog. The manufactures of Canton are principally carried on in the ſuburbs; though it has been ſuppoſed that they were confined to the city; and this, by ſome writers, has been given as a reaſon why Europeans are not permitted to enter within the gates. But this is a miſtake; and perhaps the true reaſon for this very ſingular reſtraint is, that the houſes in which they keep their women are chiefly within the city. At Wampoa, a large commodious place for anchorage, and which is about 12 or 14 miles from Canton, the European veſſels lie and unload their cargoes, which are tranſmitted by lighters to the factories; and by the ſame conveyance receive their reſpective freights. Between this place and the city are 3 *ſtoppe*, or cuſtom-houſes, at which the boats paſſing and repaſſing are obliged to ſtop, and undergo with their paſſengers an examination, to prevent ſmuggling. The lighters and the captain's pinnace, are, however, excepted; the former having proper officers on board for the purpoſe, and the latter being narrowly watched and examined at the landing. The weather at Canton is, in ſummer, extremely hot, and in December, January, and February, cold; the country is nevertheleſs pleaſant and healthful, abounding with all the neceſſaries and delicacies of life, which may be procured much cheaper than in Europe. The number of inhabitants has been eſtimated at one million; but later calculations have made the number conſiderably leſs. Lon. 113. 20. E. Lat. 23. 8. N.

(4.) CANTON, an extenſive province of China, called alſo QUANG-TONG or KOANTON. See QUANG-TONG.

(5.) CANTON, a river of China, in the province of Quang-Tong. See N° 3.

(6.) CANTON, John, an ingenious natural philoſopher, born at Stroud, in Glouceſterſhire, in 1718. He was placed, when young, under the care of Mr Davis, a very able mathematician, with whom, before he had attained the age of 9 years, he had gone through both vulgar and decimal arithmetic. He then proceeded to mathematics, and had made ſome progreſs in algebra and aſtronomy, when his father took him from ſchool, and put him to learn his own buſineſs, that of a broad cloth weaver. This was not able to damp his zeal for knowledge. All his leiſure time was devoted to the cultivation of aſtronomical ſcience; and, by the help of the Caroline tables annexed to "Wing's Aſtronomy," he computed eclipſes of the moon and other phænomena. But his ſtudies being frequently protracted to very late hours, his father, fearing that they would injure his health, forbad him the uſe of a candle in his chamber. The ſon's thirſt of knowledge was, however, ſo great, that it made him evade the prohibition, by ſecreting his light till the family had retired to reſt. It was during this prohibition, and at theſe hours, that he computed and cut upon ſtone, with no better an inſtrument than a common knife, the lines of a large upright ſundial, on which beſides the hour of the day, was ſhown the riſing of the ſun, his place in the ecliptic, and ſome other particulars. When this was finiſhed and made known to his father, he permitted it to be placed againſt the front of his houſe, where it excited the admiration of ſeveral gentlemen in the neighbourhood, and introduced young Canton to their acquaintance, which was followed by the offer of the uſe of their libraries. In the library of one of theſe gentlemen, he found *Martin's Philoſophical Grammar*, which was the firſt book that gave him a taſte for natural philoſophy. In the poſſeſſion of another gentleman, a few

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few miles from Stroud, he firſt ſaw a pair of globes; an object that afforded him uncommon pleaſure, from the great eaſe with which he could ſolve theſe problems he had hitherto been accuſtomed to compute. The dial was beautified a few years ago at the expence of the gentlemen at Stroud, ſeveral of whom had been his ſchool-fellows, and who continued ſtill to regard it as a very diſtinguiſhed performance. Among other perſons with whom he became acquainted in early life, was the late ingenious Dr Henry Miles of Tooting, F. R. S. This gentleman, perceiving that Mr Canton poſſeſſed abilities too promiſing to be confined within the narrow limits of a country town, prevailed on his father to permit him to come to London. Accordingly he arrived at the metropolis March 4, 1737, and reſided with Miles at Tooting till the 6th of May following; when he engaged for 5 years, as clerk to Mr Watkins, maſter of the academy in Spital-ſquare. In this ſituation, his ingenuity, diligence, and good conduct, were ſo well diſplayed, that on the expiration of his clerkſhip, he was taken into partnerſhip with Mr Watkins, whom he afterwards ſucceeded in the academy, where he continued during life. In 1744, he married Penelope, niece to James Colbrooke, Eſq; banker in London. About the end of 1745, electricity received a very capital improvement by the diſcovery of the famous Leyden Phial. Mr Canton was one of the firſt who purſued the experiment, and found his aſſiduity rewarded by many capital diſcoveries. Towards the end of 1749, he made experiments to determine to what height rockets may be made to aſcend, and at what diſtance their light may be ſeen. In 1750 was read at the Royal Society, his "method of making artificial magnets, without the uſe of, and yet far ſuperior to, any natural ones." This paper procured him the honour of being elected a member of the Society, and the preſent of their gold medal. The ſame year he was complimented with the degree of M. A. by the univerſity of Aberdeen; and, in 1751, was choſen one of the council of the Royal Society. In 1752, he was ſo fortunate as to be the firſt perſon in England, who, by attracting the electric fire from the clouds during a thunderſtorm, verified Dr Franklin's hypotheſis of the ſimilarity of lightning and electricity. Next year, his paper entitled, "Electrical Experiments, with an attempt to account for their ſeveral Phænomena," was read at the Royal Society. In the ſame paper Mr Canton mentioned his having diſcovered, by a great number of experiments, that ſome clouds were in a poſitive, and ſome in a negative, ſtate of electricity. Dr Franklin, much about the ſame time, made the like diſcovery in America. This circumſtance, together with our author's conſtant defence of the doctor's hypotheſis, induced that excellent philoſopher, immediately on his arrival in England, to pay Mr Canton a viſit, and gave riſe to a friendſhip which ever after continued without diminution. In the "Lady's Diary for 1756," our author anſwered the prize queſtion that had been propoſed in the preceding year; viz. "How can what we call the ſhooting of ſtars be beſt accounted for; what is the ſubſtance of this phenomenon; and in what ſtate of the atmoſphere doth it moſt frequently ſhow itſelf?" The ſolution, though anonymous, was ſo ſatisfactory to his friend, Mr Thomas Simpſon, who then conducted that work, that he ſent Mr Canton the prize, accompanied with a note, in which he ſaid he was ſure that he was not miſtaken in the author of it, as no one beſides, that he knew of, could have anſwered the queſtion. Our philoſopher's next communication to the public, was a letter in the "Gentleman's Magazine for Sept. 1759," on the electrical properties of the tourmalin, in which the laws of that wonderful ſtone are laid down in a very conciſe and elegant manner. On December 13th, in the ſame year, was read at the Royal Society, "An attempt to account for the regular diurnal variation of the Horizontal Magnetic Needle; and alſo for its irregular variation at the time of an Aurora Borealis." A complete year's obſervations of the diurnal variations of the needle are annexed to the paper. On Nov. 5, 1761, he communicated to the Royal Society an account of the Tranſit of Venus, June 6, 1761, obſerved in Spital-ſquare. His next communication was a letter addreſſed to Dr Benjamin Franklin, and read Feb. 4, 1762, containing ſome remarks on Mr Delaval's electrical experiments. On Dec. 16, 1762, another curious addition was made by him to philoſophical knowledge, in a paper, intituled, "Experiments to prove that water is not incompreſſible." Theſe experiments are a complete refutation of the famous Florentine experiment, which ſo many philoſophers have mentioned as a proof of the incompreſſibility of water. On St Andrew's day 1763, he was elected the 3d time one of the council of the Royal Society; and on Nov. 8, in the following year, were read, before that learned body, his farther "Experiments and obſervations on the compreſſibility of water, and ſome other fluids." The eſtabliſhment of this fact, in oppoſition to the received opinion, formed on the haſty deciſion of the Florentine academy, was thought to be deſerving of the Society's gold medal. It was accordingly moved for in the council of 1764; and after ſeveral invidious delays, which terminated much to the honour of Mr Canton, it was preſented to him Nov. 30, 1765. His next communication to the Royal Society, was on Dec. 22, 1768, "An eaſy method of making a Phoſphorus, that will imbibe and emit light like the Bolognian ſtone; with experiments and obſervations." When he firſt ſhowed to Dr Franklin the inſtantaneous light acquired by ſome of this phoſphorus from the near diſcharge of an electrified bottle, the doctor immediately exclaimed, "And God ſaid, let there be light, and there was light." The dean and chapter of St Paul's having in a letter to the preſident, dated March 6, 1769, requeſted the opinion of the Royal Society relative to the beſt and moſt effectual method of fixing electrical conductors to preſerve that cathedral from damage by lightning, Mr Canton was one of the committee appointed to take the letter into conſideration, and to report their opinion upon it. The other members were, Dr Watſon, Dr Franklin, Mr Delaval, and Mr Wilſon. Their report was made on the 8th of June following; and the mode recommended by them has been carried into execution. The laſt

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laſt paper of our author's, which was read before the Royal Society, was on Dec. 21, 1769; and contained "Experiments to prove that the Luminouſneſs of the Sea ariſes from the putrefaction of its animal ſubſtances." Beſides the above he wrote a number of papers, which appeared in different publications, particularly the Gentleman's Magazine. Mr Canton's cloſe and ſedentary life, ariſing from an unremitted attention to the duties of his profeſſion, and to the proſecution of his philoſophical enquiries and experiments, probably contributed to ſhorten his days. He fell into a dropſy, which carried him off, March 22, 1772, in the 54th year of his age.

* *To* CANTON. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To divide into little parts.—Families ſhall quit all ſubjection to him, and *canton* his empire into leſs governments for themſelves. *Locke.*—It would certainly be for the good of mankind, to have all the mighty empires and monarchies of the world *cantoned* out into petty ſtates and principalities. *Addiſon on Italy.*—The late king of Spain, reckoning it an indignity to have his territories *cantoned* out into parcels by other princes, during his own life, and without his conſent, rather choſe to bequeath the monarchy entire to a younger ſon of France. *Swift.*—They *canton* out to themſelves a little province in the intellectual world, where they fancy the light ſhines, and all the reſt is in darkneſs. *Watts on the Mind.*

CANTONING, in the military art, is the allotting diſtinct and ſeparate quarters to each regiment; the town where they are quartered being divided into as many cantons as there are regiments.

* *To* CANTONIZE. *v. a.* [from *canton.*] To parcel out into ſmall diviſions.—Thus was all Ireland *cantonized* among ten perſons of the Engliſh nation. *Davies on Ireland.*—The whole foreſt was in a manner *cantonized* amongſt a very few in number, of whom ſome had regal rights. *Howel.*

CANTREBYCHAN, a town E. of Caermarthen.

(1.) * CANTRED. *n. ſ.* The ſame in Wales as an *hundred* in England. For *cantre*, in the Britiſh language, ſignifieth an hundred. *Cowel.*—The king regrants to him all that province, reſerving only the city of Dublin, and the *cantreds* next adjoining, with the maritime towns. *Davies on Ireland.*

(2.) CANTRED, or CANTREF, is a Britiſh word, compounded of the adjective *cant*, i. e. hundred; and *tref*, a town or village.

CANTRENAW, a town N. of Caermarthen.

CANT-TIMBERS, in ſhip-building, thoſe timbers which are ſituated at the two ends of a ſhip. They derive their name from being *canted*, or raiſed obliquely from the keel; in contradiſtinction from thoſe whoſe planes are perpendicular to it. The upper ends of thoſe on the bow, or fore part of the ſhip, are inclined to the ſtern; as thoſe in the after, or hind part, incline to the ſtern-poſt above. See SHIP-BUILDING.

CANTYRE. See KINTYRE.

CANTZ, a town of Sileſia in Germany. Lon. 16. 36. E. Lat. 51. 6. N.

(1.) CANVAS, in commerce, 1. a very clear unbleached cloth of hemp, or flax, wove regularly in little ſquares. It is uſed for working tapeſtry with the needle, by paſſing the threads of gold, ſilver, ſilk, or wool, through the intervals of ſquares. 2. A coarſe cloth of hemp, unbleached, ſomewhat clear, which ſerves to cover women's ſtays; to ſtiffen men's clothes, and to make ſome other of their wearing apparel, &c.

(2.) CANVAS, among painters, is the cloth on which they uſually draw their pictures; the canvas being ſmoothed over with a ſlick-ſtone, then fixed, afterwards whited over, makes what the painters call their *primed cloth*, on which they draw their firſt ſketches with coal or chalk, and afterwards finiſh with colours.

(3.) CANVAS is alſo uſed among the French for the model or firſt words whereon an air or piece of muſic is compoſed, and given to a poet to regulate and finiſh. The canvas of a ſong contains certain notes of the compoſer, which ſhow the poet the meaſure of the verſes he is to make. Thus Du Lot ſays, he has canvas for ten ſonnets againſt the Muſes.

(4.) * CANVASS. *n. ſ.* [*canevas*, Fr. *cannabis*, Lat. hemp.] 1. A kind of linen cloth woven for ſeveral uſes, as ſails, painting cloths, tents.—The maſter commanded forthwith to ſet on all the *canvaſs* they could, and fly homeward. *Sidney.*—

And eke the pens that did his pinions bind,
Were like main yards with flying *canvaſs* lin'd.
Spenſer.

Their *canvaſs* caſtles up they quickly rear,
And build a city in an hour's ſpace. *Fairfax.*

Where-e'er thy navy ſpreads her *canvaſs* wings,
Homage to thee, and peace to all ſhe brings.
Waller.

With ſuch kind paſſion haſtes the prince to fight,
And ſpreads his flying canvaſs to the Sound;
Him whom no danger, were he there, could fright;
Now abſent, every little noiſe can wound. *Dryd.*

Thou, Kneller, long with noble pride,
The foremoſt of thy art, haſt vy'd
With nature in a generous ſtrife,
And touch'd the *canvaſs* into life. *Addiſon.*

2. The act of ſifting voices, or trying them previouſly to the deciſive act of voting: [from *canvaſs*, as it ſignifies a ſieve.] There be that can pack cards, and yet cannot play well: ſo there are ſome that are good in *canvaſſes* and factions, that are otherwiſe weak men. *Bacon.*

(1.) * *To* CANVASS. *v. a.* [*Skinner* derives it from *cannabuſſer*, Fr. to beat hemp; which being a very laborious employment, it is uſed to ſignify, to ſearch diligently into.] 1. To ſift; to examine: from *canvaſs*, a ſtraining cloth.—I have made careful ſearch on all hands, and *canvaſſed* the matter with all poſſible diligence. *Woodward.* 2. To debate; to diſcuſs.—The curs diſcovered a raw hide in the bottom of a river, and laid their heads together how to come at it: they *canvaſſed* the matter one way and t'other, and concluded, that the way to get it, was to drink their way to it. *L'Eſtr.*

(2.) * *To* CANVASS. *v. n.* To ſolicit; to try votes previouſly to the deciſive act.—Elizabeth being to reſolve upon an officer, and being, by ſome that *canvaſſed* for others, put in ſome doubt of that perſon ſhe meant to advance, ſaid, ſhe was like one with a lanthorn ſeeking a man. *Bacon.*—This crime of *canvaſſing*, or ſoliciting for church preferment,

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preferment, is, by the canon law, called ſimony. *Ayliffe's Parergon.*

CANVEY, an iſle in the county of Eſſex, oppoſite to the Hope, about 5 miles long, from Hole Haven to Leigh; upon which great numbers of ſheep are fed. It is often overflowed by the Thames, which at this place is 2 miles broad; except the hilly part, to which the ſheep retire. A fair is held upon it, June 25.

CANULA. See CANNULA.

CANUSIUM, in ancient geography, a town of Apulia, on the S. ſide of the Auſidus, W. of Cannæ; whither the Romans fled after the defeat ſuſtained there. It was founded by Diomede, and afterwards became a Roman colony. It was famous for its red ſhining wool; whence thoſe who wore clothes made of it were called *Canuſinati.* It is now called CANOSA; which ſee.

CANUTE, the firſt Daniſh king of England. He married Emma widow of king Ethelred; and put to death ſeveral perſons of quality who ſtood in his way to the crown. Having thus ſettled his power in England, he made a voyage to his other kingdom of Denmark, in order to reſiſt the attacks of the king of Sweden; and he carried along with him a great body of the Engliſh under the command of earl Godwin. This nobleman had here an opportunity of performing a ſervice by which he both reconciled the king's mind to the Engliſh nation, and, gaining to himſelf the friendſhip of his ſovereign, laid the foundation of that immenſe fortune which he acquired to his family. He was ſtationed next the Swediſh camp; and, obſerving a favourable opportunity, he attacked the enemy in the night, drove them from their trenches, and obtained a deciſive victory over them. Next morning, Canute, ſeeing the Engliſh camp entirely abandoned, imagined that theſe diſaffected troops had deſerted to the enemy; but he was agreeably ſurpriſed to find that they were engaged in purſuit of the diſcomfited Swedes. He was ſo pleaſed with this ſucceſs, and the manner of obtaining it, that he beſtowed his daughter in marriage upon Godwin, and treated him ever after with the moſt entire confidence. In another voyage which he afterwards made to Denmark, Canute attacked Norway, and expelled the juſt but unwarlike Olaus from his kingdom, of which he kept poſſeſſion till the death of that prince. He had now by his conqueſts and valour obtained the utmoſt height of his ambition; and having leiſure from wars and intrigues, he felt the unſatisfactory nature of all human enjoyments; and, equally weary of the glory and turmoils of this life, he began to caſt his view towards that future exiſtence which is ſo natural for the human mind, whether ſatiated by proſperity or diſguſted with adverſity, to make the object of its attention. Unfortunately the ſpirit which prevailed in that age gave a wrong direction to his devotion; and, inſtead of making atonement to thoſe whom he had formerly injured by his acts of violence, he entirely employed himſelf in thoſe exerciſes of piety which the monks repreſented as moſt meritorious. He built churches, endowed monaſteries, enriched eccleſiaſtics, and beſtowed revenues for the ſupport of chantries, where he appointed prayers to be ſaid for the ſouls of thoſe who had fallen in battle againſt him. He even undertook a pilgrimage to Rome, and, beſides obtaining from the Pope ſome privileges for the Engliſh ſchool erected there, he engaged all the princes through whoſe dominions he paſſed, to deſiſt from thoſe heavy impoſitions which they were accuſtomed to exact from the Engliſh pilgrims. By this ſpirit of devotion, no leſs than by his equitable adminiſtration, he gained in a good meaſure the affections of his ſubjects. Being the moſt powerful prince of his time, ſovereign of Denmark, Norway, and England, he could not fail to meet with adulation from his courtiers; a tribute which is liberally paid even to the meaneſt and weakeſt of princes. Some of his flatterers, breaking out one day in admiration of his grandeur, exclaimed, that every thing was poſſible for him: upon which the monarch, it is ſaid, ordered a chair to be ſet on the ſea ſhore while the tide was making; and, as the waters approached, he commanded them to retire, and to obey the voice of him who was lord of the ocean. He feigned to ſit ſome time in expectation of their ſubmiſſion; but when the ſea ſtill advanced towards him, and began to waſh him with its billows, he turned to his courtiers, and remarked to them, That every creature in the univerſe was feeble and impotent, and that power reſided with one Being alone, in whoſe hands were all the elements of nature, who could ſay to the ocean. "Thus far ſhalt thou go, and no farther," and who could level with his nod the moſt towering piles of human pride and ambition. From that time, it is ſaid, he never would wear a crown. He died in the 20th year of his reign; and was interred at Wincheſter.

CANWELL, a village in Staffordſhire, 3 miles SW. of Tamworth.

CANWICK, a town near Lincoln.

* CANY. *adj.* [from *cane.*] 1. Full of canes. 2. Conſiſting of canes.—

But in his way lights on the barren plains
Of Sericana, where Chineſes drive,
With ſails and wind, their *cany* waggons light.
Milton.

CANYEKE, the NW. point of the Land's End, Cornwall.

CANYFORK, a ſhort navigable river of the United States, in Tenaiſſe, which riſes on the W. ſide of the Cumberland mountains, and running NW. falls into Cumberland river, 50 miles above Naſhville.

CANZONE, in muſic, ſignifies, in general, a ſong, where ſome little fugues are introduced: but it is ſometimes uſed for a ſort of Italian poem, uſually pretty long, to which muſic may be compoſed in the ſtile of a cantata. If this term be added to a piece of inſtrumental muſic, it ſignifies much the ſame as cantata: if placed in any part of a ſonata, it implies the ſame meaning as *allegro*, and only denotes that the part to which it is prefixed is to be played or ſung in a briſk and lively manner.

* CANZONET. *n. ſ.* [*canzonetta*, Ital.] A little ſong.—Vecchi was moſt pleaſing of all others, for his conceit and variety, as well his madrigals as *canzonets. Peacham.*

CANZONETTA, a diminutive of canzone, denoting a little ſhort ſong. The canzonette nea po-

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litane has two ſtrains, each whereof is ſung twice over, as the vaudevilles of the French: The cannonette ſiciliane is a ſpecies of jigg, the meaſure whereof is uſually 12 eighths, and 6 eighths, and ſometimes both, as rondeaus.

(1.) CAORLO, a ſmall iſland in the gulf of Venice, on the coaſt of Friuli, 20 miles SW. of Aquileia, ſubject to Venice.

(2.) CAORLO, a town in the above iſland, N° 1.

CAOUTCHOUC. See GUM, ELASTIC.

(1.) * CAP. *n. ſ.* [*cap*, Welch; *cappe*, Saxon; *cappe*, Germ. *cappe*, Fr. *cappa*, Ital. *capa*, Span. *kappe*, Dan. and Dutch; *caput*, a head, Latin.]

1. The garment that covers the head.—

Here is the *cap* your worſhip did beſpeak.—
Why, this was moulded on a porringer,
A velvet diſh. *Shakeſp. Taming of the Shrew.*

I have ever held my *cap* off to thy fortune.—
Thou haſt ſerv'd me with much faith. *Shak.*

Firſt, lolling ſloth, in woollen *cap*,
Taking her after-dinner nap. *Swift.*

The *cap*, the whip, the maſculine attire,
For which they roughen to the ſenſe.
Thomſon's Autumn.

2. The enſign of the cardinalate.—

Henry the fifth did ſometimes propheſy,
If once he came to be a cardinal,
He'd make his *cap* coequal with the crown.
Shakeſpeare's Henry VI.

3. The topmoſt; the higheſt.—

Thou art the *cap* of all the fools alive.
Shakeſp. Timon.

4. A reverence made by uncovering the head.—

They more and leſs, came in with *cap* and knee,
Met him in boroughs, cities, villages.
Shakeſp. Henry IV.

—Should the want of a *cap* or a cringe ſo mortally diſcompoſe him, as we find afterwards it did. *L'Eſtrange.* 5. A veſſel made like a cap.—It is obſerved, that a barrel or *cap*, whoſe cavity will contain eight cubical feet of air, will not ſerve a diver above a quarter of an hour. *Wilkins.* 6. *Cap of a great gun.* A piece of lead laid over the touch-hole to preſerve the prime. 7. *Cap of maintenance.* One of the regalia carried before the king at the coronation.

(2.) CAP, in ſhip-building, a ſtrong, thick, block of wood, uſed to confine two maſts together, when one is erected at the head of the other in order to lengthen it. It is furniſhed with two holes perpendicular to its length and breadth, and parallel to its thickneſs: one of theſe is ſquare, and the other round; the former being ſolidly fixed upon the upper end of the lower maſt, whilſt the latter receives the maſt employed to lengthen it, and ſecures it in this poſition.

(3.) CAPS, ANCIENT. The Romans were many ages without any regular covering for the head: when either the rain or ſun was troubleſome, the lappet of the gown was thrown over the head; and hence it is that all the ancient ſtatues appear bareheaded excepting ſometimes a wreath or the like. And the ſame uſage obtained among the Greeks, where, at leaſt during the heroic age, no caps were known. The ſort of caps or covers of the head in uſe among the Romans on divers occaſions, were the *pitra*, *pileus*, *cucullus*, *galerus*, and *palliolum*; the differences between which are often confounded by ancient as well as modern writers.

(4.) CAPS, EARLIEST MODERN USE OF. The uſe of caps and hats is referred to the year 1449, the firſt ſeen in theſe parts of the world being at the entry of Charles VII. into Rouen: from that time they began to take place of the chaperoons, or hoods, that had been uſed till then. When the cap was of velvet, they called it *mortier*; when of wool, ſimply *bonnet*. None but kings, princes, and knights, were allowed the uſe of the mortier. The cap was the head-dreſs of the clergy and graduates. Paſquier ſays, that it was anciently a part of the hood worn by the people of the robe; the ſkirts whereof being cut off as an incumbrance, left the round cap an eaſy commodious cover for the head; which round cap being afterwards aſſumed by the people, thoſe of the gown changed it for a ſquare one, firſt invented by a Frenchman, called Patroillet: he adds, that the giving of the cap to the ſtudents in the univerſities, was to denote, that they had acquired full liberty, and were no longer ſubject to the rod of their ſuperiors; in imitation of the ancient Romans, who gave a *pileus*, or cap, to their ſlaves, in the ceremony of making them free: whence the proverb, *Vocare ſervos ad pileum*. Hence, alſo, on medals, the cap is the ſymbol of liberty, whom they repreſent holding a cap in her right hand, by the point. In painting, the goddeſs of liberty is generally repreſented, as holding a pole with the cap on the top of it.

(5.) CAPS, MODERN. The French clergy wear a ſhallow kind of cap, called *calotte*, which only covers the top of the head, made of leather, ſattin, worſted, or other ſtuff. The *red cap* is a mark of dignity allowed only to thoſe who are raiſed to the cardinalate. During the firſt 5 years of the French revolution, the red cap was a mark of democracy. The ſecular clergy are diſtinguiſhed by black leathern caps, the regulars by knit and worſted ones. Churchmen, and members of univerſities, ſtudents in law, phyſic, &c. as well as graduates, wear ſquare caps. In moſt univerſities, doctors are diſtinguiſhed by peculiar caps, given them in aſſuming the doctorate. In that of Edinburgh, the principal only touches the young graduates head with a velvet cap. Wickliff calls the canons of his time *bifurcati*, from their caps. Paſquier obſerves, that, in his time, the caps worn by the churchmen, &c. were called ſquare caps; though, in effect, they were round yellow caps. The Chineſe have not the uſe of the hat, like us; but wear a cap of peculiar ſtructure, which the laws of civility will not allow them to put off: it is different for the different ſeaſons of the year: that uſed in ſummer is in form of a cone, ending at top in a point. It is made of a very beautiful kind of mat, much valued in that country, and lined with ſattin; to this is added, at top, a large lock of red ſilk, which falls all round as low as the bottom; ſo that, in walking, the ſilk fluctuating regularly on all ſides, makes a graceful appearance: ſometimes, inſtead of ſilk, they uſe a kind of bright red hair, the luſtre whereof no weather effaces. In winter they wear a pluſh cap, bordered with martlet's or fox's ſkin; as to the reſt,

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reſt, like thoſe for the ſummer. Theſe caps are frequently ſold for 8 or 10 crowns; but they are ſo ſhort, that the ears are expoſed. The cap is ſometimes uſed as a mark of infamy; in Italy the Jews are diſtinguiſhed by a yellow cap; at Lucca by an orange one. In France, by the ci-devant laws, thoſe who had been bankrupts were obliged ever after to wear a green cap to prevent people from being impoſed on in any future commerce. By ſeveral arrets, in 1584, 1622, 1628, 1688, it was decreed, that if they were at any time found without their green cap, their protection ſhould be null, and their creditors empowered to caſt them into priſon; but theſe laws were become obſolete before the revolution.

(6.) CAPS OF MAINTENANCE. See § 1. *def.* 7. Caps of maintenance are alſo carried before the mayors of the ſeveral cities in England.

* *To* CAP. *v. a.* [from the noun] 1. To cover on the top.—The bones next the joint are *capped* with a ſmooth cartilaginous ſubſtance, ſerving both to ſtrength and motion. *Derham.* 2. To deprive of the cape.—If one, by another occaſion, take any thing for another, as boys ſometimes uſe to *cap* one another, the ſame is ſtraight felony. *Spenſer on Ireland.* 3. *To cap verſes.* To name alternately verſes beginning with a particular letter; to name in oppoſition or emulation; to name alternately in conteſt.—

Where Henderſon, and th' other maſſes,
Were ſent to *cap* texts, and put caſes. *Hudibras.*

—Sure it is a pitiful pretence to ingenuity, that can be thus kept up, there being little need of any other faculty but memory, to be able to *cap* texts. *Government of the Tongue.*—There is an authour of ours, whom I would deſire him to read, before he ventures at *capping* characters. *Atterbury.*

* CAPABILITY. *n. ſ.* [from *capable.*] Capacity; the quality of being capable.—

Sure he that made us with ſuch large diſcourſe,
Looking before, and after gave us not
That *capability* and godlike reaſon
To ruſt in us as unus'd. *Shakeſpeare.*

* CAPABLE. *adj.* [*capable*, Fr.] 1. Sufficient to contain; ſufficiently capacious.—When we conſider ſo much of that ſpace, as is equal to, or *capable* to receive a body of any aſſigned dimenſions. *Locke.* 2. Endued with powers equal to any particular thing.—To ſay, that the more *capable*, or the better deſerver, hath ſuch right to govern, as he may compulſorily bring under the leſs worthy, is idle. *Bacon.*—When you hear any perſon give his judgment, conſider with yourſelf whether he be a *capable* judge. *Watts.* 3. Intelligent; able to underſtand.—

Look you, how pale he glares;
His form and cauſe conjoined, preaching to ſtones,
Would make them *capable.* *Shakeſp. Hamlet.*

4. Intellectually capacious; able to receive.—I am much bound to God, that he hath endued you with one *capable* of the beſt inſtructions. *Digby.* 5. Suſceptible.—

The ſoul, immortal ſubſtance to remain,
Conſcious of joy, and *capable* of pain. *Prior.*

6. Qualified for; without any natural impediment.—There is no man that believes the goodneſs of God, but muſt be inclined to think, that he hath made ſome things for as long a duration as they are *capable* of. *Tillotſon.* 7. Qualified for; with legal impediment.—

O my land,
Loyal and natural boy! I'll work the means
To make thee *capable.* *Shakeſp. King Lear.*

8. It has the particle *of* before a noun.—

What ſecret ſprings their eager paſſions move,
How *capable of* death for injur'd love!
Dryden's Virgil.

9. Hollow. This ſenſe is not now in uſe.—

Lean but upon a ruſh,
The cicatrice, and *capable* impreſſure,
Thy palm ſome moments keeps.
Shakeſp. As you like it.

* CAPABLENESS. *n. ſ.* [from *capable.*] The quality or ſtate of being capable; knowledge; underſtanding; power of mind.

CAPACIO, an epiſcopal town of Italy, in Naples. Lon. 15. 18. E. Lat. 40. 40. N.

* CAPACIOUS. *adj.* [*capax*, Lat.] 1. Wide; large; able to hold much.—

Beneath th' inceſſant weeping of thoſe drains,
I ſee the rocky Siphons ſtretch'd immenſe,
The mighty reſervoirs of harden'd chalk,
Or ſtiff compacted clay, *capacious* found.
Thomſon's Autumn.

2. Extenſive; equal to much knowledge, or great deſign.—There are ſome perſons of a good genius, and a *capacious* mind, who write and ſpeak very obſcurely. *Watts.*

* CAPACIOUSNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *capacious.*] The power of holding or receiving; largeneſs.—A concave meaſure, of known and denominate capacity, ſerves to meaſure the *capaciouſneſs* of any other veſſel. In like manner, to a given weight, the weight of all other bodies may be reduced, and ſo found out. *Holder on Time.*

* *To* CAPACITATE. *v. a.* [from *capacity.*] To make capable; to enable; to qualify.—By this inſtruction we may be *capacitated* to obſerve thoſe errours. *Dryden.*—Theſe ſort of men were ſycophants only, and were endued with arts of life, to *capacitate* them for the converſation of the rich and great. *Tatler.*

(1.) * CAPACITY. *n. ſ.* [*capacité*, Fr.] 1. The power of holding or containing any thing.—

Had our palace the *capacity*
To camp this hoſt, we would all ſup together.
Shakeſpeare.

Notwithſtanding thy *capacity*
Receiveth as the ſea, nought enters there,
Of what validity and pitch ſoe'er,
But falls into abatement and low price.
Shakeſp. Twe. Night.

For they that moſt and greateſt things embrace,
Enlarge thereby their mind's *capacity*,
As ſtreams enlarg'd, enlarge the channel's ſpace.
Davies.

—Space, conſidered in length, breadth, and thickneſs, I think, may be called *capacity*. *Locke.* 2. Room; ſpace.—There remained, in the *capacity* of the exhauſted cylinder, ſtore of little rooms, or ſpaces, empty or devoid of air. *Boyle.* 3. The force

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foree or power of the mind.—No intellectual creature is able, by *capacity*, to do that which nature doth without *capacity*. *Hooker.*—In ſpiritual natures, ſo much as there is of deſire, ſo much there is alſo of *capacity* to receive. I do not ſay, there is always a *capacity* to receive the very thing they deſire, for that may be impoſſible. *South.*—An heroick poem requires the accompliſhment of ſome extraordinary undertaking; which requires the duty of a ſoldier, and the *capacity* and prudence of a general. *Dryden's Juv. Dedication.*—4. Power; ability.—

Since the world's wide frame does not include
A cauſe with ſuch *capacities* endu'd,
Some other cauſe o'er nature muſt preſide.
Blackmore.

5. State; condition; character.—A miraculous revolution, reducing many from the head of a triumphant rebellion, to their old condition of maſons, ſmiths, and carpenters; that, in this *capacity*, they might repair what, as colonels and captains, they had ruined and defaced. *South.*—You deſire my thoughts as a friend, and not as a member of parliament; they are the ſame in both *capacities*. *Swift.*

(2.) CAPACITY, in geometry, the ſolid contents of any body. Our hollow meaſures for wine, beer, corn, ſalt, &c. are called *meaſures of capacity*.

(3.) CAPACITY, in law, the ability of a man, or body politic, to give or take lands or other things, or ſue actions. Our law allows the king two capacities; a natural, and a political: in the firſt, he may purchaſe lands to him and his heirs; in the ſecond, to him and his ſucceſſors. The clergy of the church of England have the like.

* CAP A PE. } [*cap à piè*, Fr.] From head to
* CAP A PIE. } foot; all over.—

A figure like your father,
Arm'd at all points exactly, *cap à pè*,
Appears before them, and, with ſolemn march,
Goes ſlow and ſtately by them. *Shakeſp. Haml.*

There for the two contending knights he ſent,
Arm'd *cap à piè*, with rev'rence low they bent.
Dryden.

A woodlouſe,
That folds up itſelf in itſelf for a houſe,
As round as a ball, without head, without tail,
Inclos'd *cap à pè* in a ſtrong coat of mail. *Swift.*

(1.) * CAPARISON. *n. ſ.* [*caparazon*, a great cloke, Span.] A horſe-cloth, or a ſort of cover for a horſe, which is ſpread over his furniture. *Farrier's Dict.*—

Tilting furniture, emblazon'd ſhields,
Impreſſes quaint, *capariſons*, and ſteeds,
Baſes, and tinſel trappings, gorgeous knights,
At jouſt, and tournament. *Paradiſe Loſt.*

Some wore a breaſtplate, and a light juppon;
Their horſes cloath'd with rich *capariſon*.
Dryden's Fab.

(2.) CAPARISONS, or CAPARASONS, were anciently a kind of iron armour wherewith horſes were covered in battle.

* *To* CAPARISON. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To dreſs in capariſons.—

The ſteeds, *capariſon'd* with purple, ſtand;
With golden trappings, glorious to behold,
And champ betwixt their teeth the foaming gold.
Dryden.

2. To dreſs pompouſly: in a ludicrous ſenſe.—Don't you think though I am *capariſon'd* like a man, I have a doublet and hoſe in my diſpoſition? *Shakeſp. As you like it.*

CAPASH, a kind of head-dreſs worn by the women of Candia, of a ſtiffened fine muſlin, made ſo as to ſtand up very high, and extend out a great way on the right ſide.

* CAPE. *n. ſ.* [*cape*, Fr.] 1. Headland; promontory.—

What from the *cape* can you diſcern at ſea?
—Nothing at all; it is a high wrought flood.
Shakeſp. Oth.

The parting ſun,
Beyond the earth's green *cape*, and verdant iſles,
Heſperean ſets; my ſignal to depart.
Paradiſe Loſt.

—The Romans made war upon the Tarentines, and obliged them by treaty not to ſail beyond the *cape*. *Arbuthnot.* 2. The neck-piece of a cloke.—He was clothed in a robe of fine black cloth, with wide ſleeves and *cape*. *Bacon.*

CAPE BRETON. See BRETON.

CAPE COAST CASTLE. See COAST.

CAPE DOUGLAS. See DOUGLAS.

CAPEDUNCULA, in Roman antiquity, the veſſels wherein the ſacred fire of Veſta was preſerved.

CAPE ELK. See CERVUS.

CAPE FEAR. See FEAR.

CAPE FLATTERY. See FLATTERY.

CAPE FRANCIS. See FRANCIS.

CAPE FRANCOIS. See FRANCOIS.

CAPE HATTERAS. See HATTERAS.

CAPE HORN. See HORN.

CAPEL, the name of 4 villages: 1. in Kent, between Dover and Folkſton: 2. in ditto, SE. of Tunbridge: 3. in Suffolk, near Oxford: and, 4. in Yorkſhire, N. of Howdon.

CAPELL, Edward, a gentleman well known by his indefatigable attention to the works of Shakeſpeare, was born in Suffolk, and educated at St Edmund's Bury. In the dedication of his edition of Shakeſpeare, in 1768, to the duke of Grafton, he obſerves, that "his father and the grandfathers of his grace were friends, and to the patronage of the deceaſed nobleman he owed the leiſure which enabled him to beſtow the attention of 20 years on that work." The office which his grace beſtowed on Mr Capell was that of deputy inſpector of plays, to which a ſalary is annexed of L. 200 a year. So early as 1745, ſhocked at the licentiouſneſs of Hanmer's plan, he firſt projected an edition of Shakeſpeare, of the ſtricteſt accuracy, to be collated and publiſhed, in due time, *ex fide codicum*. He immediately proceeded to collect and compare the oldeſt and ſcarceſt copies; noting the original excellencies and defects of the rareſt quartos, and diſtinguiſhing the improvements or variations of the 1ſt, 2d, and 3d folios; and, after many years labour produced a very beautiful ſmall octavo, in 10 volumes, with "an Introduction." There is not, ſay the authors of the Monthly Review, among the various publications

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publications of the preſent literary æra, a more ſingular compoſition than that "Introduction." In ſtyle and manner, it is more obſolete and antique, than the age of which it treats. It is Lord Herbert of Cherbury, walking the new pavement in all the trappings of romance; but, like Lord Herbert, it diſplays many valuable qualities accompanying this air of extravagance, much ſound ſenſe, and appropriate erudition. In the title page of "Mr William Shakeſpeare his Comedies, Hiſtories and Tragedies," it was alſo announced and promulgated, "Whereunto will be added, ſome other volumes, notes critical and explanatory, and a body of various readings entire." "The Introduction" likewiſe declared, that theſe "notes and various readings" would be accompanied with another work, diſcloſing the ſources from which Shakeſpeare "drew the greater part of his knowledge in mythological and claſſical matters, his fable, his hiſtory, and even the ſeeming peculiarities of his language—to which," ſays Mr Capell, "we have given for title, The School of Shakeſpeare." Nothing ſurely could be more properly conceived than ſuch deſigns, nor have we ever met with any thing better grounded on the ſubject of "the learning of Shakeſpeare" than what may be found in the long note to this part of Mr Capell's Introduction. It is more ſolid than even the popular "Eſſay" on this topic. Certain quaintneſſes of ſtyle, and peculiarities of printing and punctuation, attended the whole of this publication. The outline, however, was correct; and the critic, with unremitting toil, proceeded in this undertaking. But while he was diving into the claſſics of Caxton (to continue the Reviewers account,) and working his way underground, like the river Mole, in order to emerge with all his glories; while he was looking forward to his triumphs; certain other active ſpirits went to work upon his plan, and, digging out the promiſed treaſures, laid them prematurely before the public, defeating the effects of our critic's diſcoveries by anticipation. Steevens, Malone, Farmer, Percy, Reed, and a whole hoſt of literary ferrets, burrowed into every hole and corner of the warren of modern antiquity, and over-ran all the country, whoſe map had been delineated by Edward Capell. Such a contingency nearly ſtaggered the ſteady and unſhaken perſeverance of our critic, at the very eve of the completion of his labours, (for, alas! at the end of near 40 years, the publication was poſthumous, and the critic himſelf no more!) and he was almoſt determined to lay the work wholly aſide. He perſevered, however, by the encouragement of ſome noble and worthy perſons; and in 1763, appeared 3 large volumes in 4to, entitled "Notes and various readings of Shakeſpeare; together with the School of Shakeſpeare, or Extracts from divers Engliſh books, that were in print in the Author's time; evidently ſhowing from whence his ſeveral Fables were taken, and ſome parcel of his Dialogue. Alſo farther Extracts, which contribute to a due underſtanding of his Writings or give a light to the Hiſtory of his Life, or to the Dramatic Hiſtory of his Time." Mr Capell was alſo the editor of a volume of ancient poems, called "Proluſions; and the "alteration of Antony and Cleopatra," as acted at Drury Lane, in 1738. He died Jan. 24, 1781.

CAPELLA, in aſtronomy, a bright fixed ſtar in the left ſhoulder of the conſtellation Auriga.

CAPELLAR HILL, in Herefordſh. near Brockhampton.

CAPELLA St SPIRITOUS, in W. Medina, Iſle of Wight.

CAPELLE, a town of France, in the department of Aiſne, and ci-devant province of Picardy, 8 miles NE. of Guiſe. It was taken by the Spaniards in 1636; but retaken the year after. Lon. 3. 56. E. Lat. 49. 58. N.

CAPELLETS, in farriery. See FARRIERY.

CAPELLUS, Lewis, an eminent French Proteſtant divine, born at Sedan, about 1579. He was author of ſome learned works; but is chiefly known from the controverſy he engaged in with the younger Buxtorf concerning the antiquity of Hebrew points, which Capellus undertook to diſprove. His *Critica Sacra* was alſo an elaborate work, and excited ſome diſputes. He died in 1658, having made an abridgement of his life in his work *De gente Capellorum*.

CAPE LOOK-OUT. See LOOK-OUT.

CAPEL'S COURT, a village of Kent, in Romney marſh, near Ivy church.

CAPE MAY. See MAY.

CAPE NEWENHAM. See NEWENHAM.

CAPE OF GOOD HOPE. See GOOD HOPE.

CAPE OX, or BUFFALO. See BOS, N° IV. § vi.

(1.) * CAPER. *n. ſ.* [from *caper*, Latin, a goat.] A leap; a jump; a ſkip.—We that are true lovers, run into ſtrange *capers*; but as all is mortal in nature, ſo is all nature in love mortal in folly. *Shakeſp. As you like it.*—Flimnap, the treaſurer, is allowed to cut a *caper* on the ſtrait rope, at leaſt an inch higher than any other lord in the whole empire. *Swift's Gulliver's Travels.*

(2.) * CAPER. *n. ſ.* [*capparis*, Latin.] An acid pickle. See CAPER-BUSH.—We invent new ſauces and pickles, which reſemble the animal ferment in taſte and virtue, as mangoes, olives, and *capers*. *Floyer on the Humours.*

(3.) CAPER. See CAPPARIS.

(4.) CAPER, in ſhipping, a veſſel uſed by the Dutch for cruiſing and taking veſſels from the enemy; in which ſenſe, caper amounts to the ſame with privateer. Capers are commonly double officered, and crowded with hands even beyond the rates of ſhips of war, becauſe the thing chiefly in view is boarding the enemies.

(5.) CAPER BEAN. See ZYGOPHYLLUM.

(6.) * CAPER BUSH. *n. ſ.* [*capparis*, Lat.] The fruit is fleſhy, and ſhaped like a pear. This plant grows in the South of France, in Spain and Italy, upon old walls and buildings; and the buds of the flowers, before they are open, are pickled for eating. *Miller.*

* *To* CAPER. *v. n.* [from the noun.] 1. To dance frolickſomely.—The truth is, I am only old in judgment; and he that will *caper* with me for a thouſand marks, let him lend me the money, and have at him. *Shakeſ. Henry* IV. 2. To ſkip for merriment.—

Our maſter
Cap'ring to eye her. *Shakeſp. Tempeſt.*

His

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His nimble hand's inſtinct then taught each ſtring
A *cap'ring* cheerfulneſs, and made them ſing
To their own dance. *Craſhaw.*

—The family tript it about, and *caper'd*, like hail-ſtones bounding from a marble floor. *Arbuthnot's John Bull.* 3. To dance: ſpoken in contempt.—

The ſtage would need no force, nor ſong, nor dance,
Nor *capering* monſieur from active France. *Rowe.*

* CAPERER. *n. ſ.* [from *caper*.] A dancer: in contempt.—

The tumbler's gambols ſome delight afford;
No leſs the nimble *caperer* on the cord:
But theſe are ſtill inſipid ſtuff to thee,
Coop'd in a ſhip, and toſs'd upon the ſea.
Dryden's Juv.

(1.) CAPERNAUM, a city celebrated in the goſpels, being the place where Jeſus uſually reſided during the time of his miniſtry. This city is no where mentioned in the Old Teſtament under this or any other name like it; and therefore it is probable that it was built after the return from the Babyloniſh captivity. It ſtood on the coaſt of Galilee, in the borders of Zebulon and Nephtalim (Matt. iv. 15.) and took its name from an adjacent ſpring (N° 2.) which probably was an inducement to build the town in the place where it ſtood. Capernaum was ſaid by our Lord himſelf to be *exalted unto heaven;* but becauſe its inhabitants made no right uſe of the privileges they enjoyed, he denounced, that it ſhould *be brought down to hell,* (Matt. xi. 23.) which has certainly been verified: for, as Dr Wells obſerves, ſo far is it from being the metropolis of all Galilee, as it once was, that it conſiſted long ago of no more than ſix poor cottages.

(2.) CAPERNAUM, a ſpring near the city, (N° 1.) mentioned by Joſephus, as famous for its clear and limpid waters.

CAPEROLANS, a congregation of religious in Italy, ſo called from Peter Caperole their founder, in the 15th century. The Milaneſe and Venetians being at war, the enmity occaſioned thereby ſpread itſelf to the very cloiſters. The ſuperiors of minor brothers, of the province of Milan, which extended itſelf as far as the territories of the republic of Venice, carried it ſo haughtily over the Venetians, that thoſe of the convent of Breſcia reſolved to ſhake off a yoke which was grown inſupportable to them. The ſuperiors, informed of this, expelled the principal authors of this deſign; viz. Peter Caperole, Matthew de Thareillo and Bonaventure of Breſcia. Peter Caperole, a man of an enterpriſing genius, found means to ſeparate the convents of Breſcia, Bergamo, and Cremona, from the province of Milan, and ſubject them to the contentuals. This occaſioned a law-ſuit between the vicar general and theſe convents, which was determined in favour of the latter; and theſe convents, in 1475, by the authority of Pope Sixtus IV. were erected into a diſtinct vicariate, under the title of that of *Breſcia.* This not ſatisfying the ambition of Caperole, he obtained, by the interpoſition of the Doge of Venice, that this vicariate might be erected into a congregation; called from him *Caperolans;* which ſtill ſubſiſts in Italy, and is compoſed of 24 convents. But it will not probably ſubſiſt much longer, under the new order of things introduced by the French into the Italian republics.

CAPERQUIN, a town of Ireland, in Waterford, on the Blackwater, 13 miles N. of Youghall. Lon. 7. 50. W. Lat. 52. 5. N.

CAPESTAN, a town of France, in the department of Aude, and ci-devant province of Languedoc, near the canal. Lon. 3. 8. E. Lat. 52. 5. N.

CAPESTHORN, a town in Cheſhire, 3 m. SW. of Macclesfield.

CAPET, the ſirname of the royal family of France, for a period of 805 years, from HUGH CAPET, (who was called to the crown by the voice of the nation, A. D. 987, in oppoſition to the hereditary claim of Charles D. of Lorrain,) to the abolition of the monarchy under the late unfortunate Lewis XVI. in 1792. The houſe of BOURBON was only a younger branch of the family of Capet. See FRANCE, HISTORY OF.

CAPE TRES POINTS. See TRES POINTS.

CAPE VERD. See VERD.

CAPH, a Jewiſh meaſure of capacity for things, eſtimated by Kimchi at the 30th part of the log, by Arbuthnot at the 16th part of the hin, or 32d of the ſeah, amounting to $\frac{4}{5}$ of an Engliſh pint. It does not occur in Scripture as the name of any meaſure.

CAPHAR, a duty which the Turks exact from the Chriſtians who carry or ſend merchandiſes from Aleppo to Jeruſalem and other places in Syria. This duty was firſt impoſed by the Chriſtians themſelves, when they were in poſſeſſion of the Holy Land, for the maitenance of the troops which were planted in difficult paſſes, to obſerve the Arabs and prevent their incurſions. It is ſtill continued, and much increaſed by the Turks, under pretence of defending the Chriſtians againſt the Arabs; with whom, nevertheleſs, they keep a ſecret intelligence, favouring their excurſions and plunders.

CAPHEATON, a town in Northumberland, 12 miles from Newcaſtle.

(1.) CAPHTOR, in ancient geography, a diſtrict or town of Upper Egypt, in the iſland, (N° 2.) inhabited by the CAPHTORIM.

(2.) CAPHTOR, an iſland of Egypt, probably one of thoſe in the Nile. Dr Wells ſuppoſes it to be the city Coptos, which ſtood in a ſmall iſland.

CAPHTORÆI, or CAPHTORIM, } a people of Paleſtine, who came from Caphtor, and who with the Philiſtines conſpired to extirpate the Havæi. Their name was ſwallowed up in that of the Philiſtines.

CAPHUR, or CAPHURA, } the Arabian name for CAMPHOR.

CAPI-AGA, or *Capi-Agaſſi,* a Turkiſh officer who is governor of the gates of the ſeraglio, or grand maſter of the ſeraglio. He enjoys the firſt dignity among the white eunuchs: he is always near the perſon of the grand ſignior: he introduces ambaſſadors to their audience: nobody enters or goes out of the grand ſignior's apartment but by his means. He has the privilege of wearing the turban in the ſeraglio, and of going every where on horſeback. He accompanies the grand ſignior to the apartment of the ſultanas, but ſtops at the door without entering. The grand ſignior bears

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bears the expence of his table, and allows him at the rate of about 60 French livers per day: but his office brings him in abundance of preſents; no affair of conſequence coming to the emperor's knowledge without paſſing through his hand. He cannot be baſhaw when he quits his poſt.

(I.) * CAPIAS. *n. ſ.* [Lat.] A writ of two ſorts, one before judgment, called *capias ad reſpondendum*, in an action perſonal, if the ſheriff, upon the firſt writ of diſtreſs, return that he has no effects in his juriſdiction. The other is a writ of execution after judgment. *Cowel.*

CAPIAS AD RESPONDENDUM is where an original is iſſued out, to take the defendant, and make him anſwer the plaintiff.

(II.) CAPIAS, after judgment, is of divers kinds; ſuch as,

1. CAPIAS AD SATISFACIENDUM, a writ of execution that iſſues on a judgment obtained, and lies where any perſon recovers in a perſonal action, as for debt, damages, &c. in which caſes this writ iſſues to the ſheriff, commanding him to take the body of him againſt whom the debt is recovered, who is to be kept in priſon till he make ſatisfaction.

2. CAPIAS IN WITHERNAM, a writ that lies for cattle *in Withernam*: that is, where a diſtreſs taken is driven out of the country, ſo that the ſheriff cannot make deliverance upon a replevin; then this writ iſſues, commanding the ſheriff to take as many beaſts of the diſtrainer, &c.

3. CAPIAS PRO FINE is a writ lying where a perſon is fined to the king, for ſome offence committed againſt a ſtatute, and he does not diſcharge the fine according to the judgment; therefore his body ſhall be taken by this writ, and committed to gaol till the fine is paid.

4. CAPIAS UT LEGATUM, a writ which lies againſt any one outlawed, upon any action perſonal or criminal, by which the ſheriff is ordered to apprehend the party outlawed, for not appearing on the exigent, and keep him in ſafe cuſtody till the day of his return, when he is to preſent him to the court, to be there farther ordered for his contempt.

CAPIGI, [Turk. *i. e.* gate,] a door-keeper of the Turkiſh ſeraglio. There are about 500 *capigis* in the ſeraglio, divided, into two companies; one conſiſting of 300, under a chief called CAPI-BASSA, who has a ſtipend of 3 ducats per day; the other conſiſts of 200 called CUCCICAPIGI, and their chief CUCCICAPIGI-BASSA, who has two ducats. The capigis have from 7 to 15 aſpers per day. Their buſineſs is to aſſiſt the janizaries in the guard of the 1ſt and 2d gates of the ſeraglio; ſometimes all together; as when the Turk holds a general council, receives an ambaſſador, or goes to the moſque; and ſometimes only in part; being ranged on either ſide to prevent people entering with arms, tumults being made, &c.

CAPIGI-BASSA. See laſt article.

* CAPILLACEOUS. *adj.* The ſame with *capillary*.

CAPILLAIRE, ſyrup of maidenhair.

(1.) * CAPILLAMENT. *n. ſ.* [*capillamentum*, Lat.] Thoſe ſmall threads or hairs which grow up in the middle of a flower, and adorned with little herbs at the top, are called *capillaments*. *Quincy.*

(2.) CAPILLAMENTS in a general ſenſe, ſignifies a hair; whence the word is applied to ſeveral things, which on account of their length or their fineneſs reſemble hairs: as,

(3.) CAPILLAMENTS OF THE NERVES, in anatomy, the fine fibres or filaments whereof the nerves are compoſed.

CAPILLARIS or CAPILLATA ARBOR, an ancient tree at Rome, on which the veſtal virgins, when ſhaven for their office, hung up their hair, and conſecrated it to the gods.

(1.) * CAPILLARY. *adj.* [from *capillus*, hair, Lat.] 1. Reſembling hairs; ſmall; minute: applied to plants.—*Capillary*, or *capillaceous* plants, are ſuch as have no main ſtalk or ſtem, but grow to the ground, as hairs on the head; and which bear their ſeeds in little tufts or protuberances on the backſide of their leaves. *Quincy.*—Our common hyſſop is not the leaſt of vegetables, nor obſerved to grow upon walls; but rather, ſome kind of *capillaris*, which are very ſmall plants, and only grow upon walls and ſtony places. *Brown's Vulgar Errours.* 2. Applied to veſſels of the body. Small; as the ramifications of the arteries. *Quincy.*—Ten *capillary* arteries in ſome parts of the body, as in the brain, are not equal to one hair; and the ſmalleſt lymphatick veſſels are an hundred times ſmaller than the ſmalleſt *capillary* artery. *Arbuthnot on Aliments.*

(2.) CAPILLARY TUBES, in phyſics, are ſmall pipes of glaſs, whoſe canals are extremely narrow, their diameter being only a half, a third, or a fourth of a line. The aſcent of water, &c. in capillary tubes, is a phenomenon that has long embarraſſed philoſophers: for let one end of a glaſs tube open at both extremities be immerged in water, the liquor within the tube will riſe to a conſiderable height above the external ſurface: or if two or more tubes are immerged in the ſame fluid, one a capillary tube, and the other of a larger bore, the fluid will aſcend higher in the former than in the latter; and this will be in a reciprocal ratio of the diameters of the tubes. In order to account for this phenomenon, it will be neceſſary firſt to premiſe, that the attraction between the particles of glaſs and water is greater than the attraction between the particles of water themſelves; for if a glaſs tube be placed in a poſition parallel to the horizon, and a drop of water be applied to the under ſide of the tube, it will adhere to it; nor will it fall from the glaſs till its bulk and gravity are ſo far increaſed, as to overcome the attraction of the glaſs. Hence it is eaſy to conceive how ſenſibly ſuch a power muſt act on the ſurface of a fluid, not viſcid, as water, contained within the ſmall cavity or bore of a glaſs tube; as alſo that it will be proportionably ſtronger as the diameter of the bore is ſmaller; for it is evident that the efficacy of the power is in the inverſe proportion of the diameter, when it is conſidered, that ſuch particles only as are in contact with the fluid, and thoſe immediately above the ſurface, can effect it. Now theſe particles form a periphery contiguous to the ſurface, the upper part of which attracts and raiſes the ſurface, while the lower part, which is in contact with it, ſupports it: ſo that neither the thickneſs nor length of the tube is of any conſequence here; the periphery of particles

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ticles only, which is always proportionable to the diameter of the bore, is the only acting power. The quantity of the fluid raised will therefore be as the surface of the bore which it fills, that is, as the diameter; for otherwise the effect would not be proportional to the cause, since the quantities are always as the ratio of the diameters; the heights therefore to which the fluids will rise, in different tubes, will be inversely as the diameters. Some doubt whether the law holds throughout, of the ascent of the fluid being always higher as the tube is smaller; Dr Hook's experiments, with tubes almost as fine as cobwebs, seem to show the contrary. The water in these, he observes, did not rise so high as one would have expected. The highest he ever found it, was at 21 inches above the level of the water in the bason; which is much short of what it ought to have been by the law above mentioned. See COHESION.

(3.) CAPILLARY VESSELS. Many small vessels of animal bodies have been discovered by the modern invention of injecting the vessels of animals with a coloured fluid which upon cooling grows hard. But though most anatomists know the manner of filling the large trunks, few are acquainted with the art of filling the capillaries.—Dr Monro, in the Medical Essays, has given what after many trials he has found most successful. See INJECTION.

* CAPILLATION. *n. f.* [from *capillus*, Lat.] A vessel like a hair; a small ramification of vessels. Not used.—Nor is the humour contained in smaller veins, or obscurer *capillations*, but in a vesicle. *Brown's Vulgar Errours.*

CAPILLUS VENERIS. See ADIANTHUM.

(1.) CAPILUPI, Camillus, a native of Mantua in the 16th century. He wrote a book, entitled, *The Stratagem*; in which he relates not only what was perpetrated at Paris during the massacre on St Bartholomew's day, but also the artful preparations which preceded that horrid massacre.

(2.) CAPILUPI, or CAPILUPUS, } Lælius, an Italian poet, brother to the former, (N° 1.) made himself famous by some Centos of Virgil. The manner in which he applied Virgil's expressions, to represent things which the poet never dreamt of, is admired. His Cento against women is very ingenious, but too satirical. His poems are inserted in the *Deliciæ Poetarum Italorum*.

CAPISCHOLUS, or CAPISCOLUS, } in ecclesiastical writers, denotes an officer in certain cathedrals, who had the superintendency of the choir, or band of music, answering to what in other churches is called *chanter* or *precentor*. The word is also written *cabiscolus*, and *caput-schole*, q. d. the head of the school, or band of music. The office is also called *scholasticus*, as having the instruction of the young clerks and choristers, how to perform their duty.

(1.) CAPITA, DISTRIBUTION BY, in law, signifies the appointing to every man an equal share of a personal estate; when all the claimants claim in their own rights, as in equal degrees of kindred, and not *jure representationis*.

(2.) CAPITA, SUCCESSION BY, where the claimants are next in degree to the ancestor, in their own right, and not by right of representation.

(1.) * CAPITAL. *adj.* [*capitalis*, Lat.] 1. Relating to the head.—

Need must the serpent now his *capital* bruise
Expect with mortal pain. *Paradise Lost.*

3. Criminal in the highest degree, so as to touch life.—

Edmund, I arrest thee
On *capital* treason. *Shakesp. King Lear.*

—Several cases deserve greater punishment than many crimes that are *capital* among us. *Swift.* 3. That which affects life.—In *capital* causes, wherein but one man's life is in question, the evidence ought to be clear; much more in a judgment upon a war, which is *capital* to thousands. *Bacon.* 4. Chief; principal.—I will, out of that infinite number, reckon but some that are most *capital*, and commonly occurrent both in the life and conditions of private men. *Spenser on Ireland.*—As to swerve in the least points, is errour; so the *capital* enemies thereof God hateth, as his deadly foes, aliens, and, without repentance, children of endless perdition. *Hooker.*—They do, in themselves, tend to confirm the truth of a *capital* article in religion. *Atterbury.* 5. Chief; metropolitan.—

This had been
Perhaps thy *capital* seat, from whence had spread
All generations; and had hither come,
From all the ends of th' earth, to celebrate
And reverence thee, their great progenitor.
Paradise Lost.

6. Applied to letters; large; such as are written at the beginning or heads of books.—Our most considerable actions are always present, like *capital* letters to an aged and dim eye. *Taylor's Holy Living.*—The first is written in capital letters, without chapters or verses. *Grew's Cosmologia Sacra.* 7. *Capital Stock.* The principal or original stock of a trader, or company.

(2.) * CAPITAL. *n. f.* [from the adjective.] 1. The upper part of a pillar.—You see the volute of the Ionick, the foliage of the Corinthian, and the ovali of the Dorick, mixed without any regularity, on the same *capital*. *Addison on Italy.* 2. The chief city of a nation or kingdom.

(3.) CAPITAL, in architecture. See ARCHITECTURE, *Index*.

(4.) CAPITAL CRIME. See § 1. *def.* 2. and the articles CRIME and PUNISHMENT.

(5.) CAPITAL LETTERS, in printing. See § 1. *def.* 6. All sentences, verses, lines of poetry, proper names of men, kingdoms, nations, towns, rivers, &c. begin with capitals. The practice which, for some time, obtained among our printers, of beginning every substantive with a capital, is now justly fallen into disrepute; being a manifest perversion of the design of capitals, as well as an offence against beauty and distinctness. The personal pronoun, *I*, is almost always wrote and printed capital, though some have affected to write it small, particularly Stillingfleet.

(6.) CAPITAL PICTURE, in painting, denotes one of the finest and most excellent pieces of any celebrated master.

(7.) CAPITAL STOCK. See § 1. *def.* 7. The capital is opposed to the profit, though the profit often increases the capital, and becomes itself part of it when added to the stock.

* CAPI-

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* CAPITALLY. *adv.* [from *capital.*] In a capital manner.

CAPITANA, or CAPTAIN GALLEY, the chief or principal galley of a state, not dignified with the title of a kingdom. It was anciently the denomination of the chief galley of France, which the commander went on board of.

CAPITANATA, one of the 12 provinces of Naples, bounded on the N. by the gulf of Venice, on the E. by the Terra di Bari, on the S. by the Basilicata and the Farther Principato, and on the W. by the county di Molise and a small part of Hither Abruzzo. It is a level country, without trees; the soil sandy, the air hot: the land, however, near the rivers, is fertile in pastures. The capital is Manfredonia.

CAPITANEATE, in a general sense, the same with CAPITANIA. Capitaneats, in Prussia, are a kind of estates, which, besides their revenue, raise their owners to the rank of nobility. They are also called STAROSITIES.

CAPITANEI, or CATANEI, in Italy, was a denomination given to all the dukes, marquisses, and counts, who were called *capitanei regis*. The same appellation was given to persons of inferior rank who were invested with fees, formerly distinguished by the appellation *valvasores majores*.

(1.) CAPITANEUS, in ancient law writers, denotes a tenant in capite, or chief.

(2.) CAPITANEUS ECCLESIÆ, the same with advocate.

CAPITANIA, in geography, an appellation given to the 12 governments established by the Portuguese in the Brasils.

(1.) * CAPITATION. *n. s.* [from *caput*, the head, Lat.] Numeration by heads.—He suffered for not performing the commandment of God, concerning *capitation*; that, when the people were numbered, for every head they should pay unto God a shekel. *Brown.*

(2.) CAPITATION, a tax raised on each person, in proportion, to his labour, industry, office, rank, &c. It is a very ancient kind of tribute. The Latins call it *tributum*, by which taxes on persons are distinguished from taxes on merchandise, which were called *vectigalia*. Capitations are never practised among us but in exigencies of state. In France the capitation was introduced by Lewis XIV. in 1695; and was a tax very different from the *taille*, being levied from all persons except the clergy even the princes of the blood not being exempted from it.

(1.) * CAPITE. *n. s.* [from *caput, capitis*, Lat.] A tenure which holdeth immediately of the king, as of his crown, be it by knight's service or socage, and not as of any honour, castle, or manour: and therefore it is otherwise called a tenure, that holdeth merely of the king; because, as the crown is a corporation and seigniory in gross, as the common lawyers term it, so the king that possesseth the crown, is, in account of law, perpetually king, and never in his minority, nor ever dieth. *Cowel.*

(3.) CAPITE, in law, is a species of ancient tenure of land, now abolished. See TENURE.

(3.) CAPITE CENSI, in antiquity, the lowest rank of Roman citizens, who in public taxes were rated the least of all, being such as never were worth above 365 *asses*. They were supposed to have been thus called, because they were rather counted and marshalled by their heads than by their estates, The *capite censi* made part of the 6th class of citizens, below the *proletarii*, who formed the other moiety of that class. They were not enrolled in the army, being judged not able to support the expence of war; for in those days the soldiers maintained themselves. It does not appear, that before Caius Marius any of the Roman generals listed the *capite censi* in their armies.

CAPITO, in icthyology. See ZERTA.

(1.) CAPITOL, CAPITOLIUM, in antiquity, a famous fort or castle, on the Mons capitolinus at Rome, wherein was a temple dedicated to Jupiter in which the senate anciently assembled; and which still serves as the city-hall, or town house, for the meeting of the conservators of the Roman people. It had its name *capitol*, from *caput*, a man's head, which was said to have been found fresh, and bleeding, upon digging the foundation of the temple built in honour of Jupiter. Arnobius adds, that the man's name was *Tolus*, whence *capitolinum*. The first foundations of the capitol were laid by Tarquin I. A. U. C. 139. His successor Servius raised the walls; and Tarquin II. finished it in the year 221. But it was not consecrated till the 3d year after the expulsion of the kings. The ceremony of the dedication of the temple was performed by the consul Horatius in 256. The capitol consisted of three parts; a nave sacred to Jupiter; and two wings, consecrated to Juno and Minerva. It was ascended by stairs; the frontispiece and sides were surrounded with galleries, in which those who were honoured with triumphs entertained the senate at a magnificent banquet, after the sacrifices had been offered to the gods. Both the inside and outside were enriched with an infinity of ornaments, the most distinguished of which was the statute of Jupiter, with his golden thunderbolt, sceptre, and crown. In the capitol also were a temple to Jupiter the guardian, and another to Juno, with the mint: and on the descent of the hill was the temple of Concord. This beautiful edifice contained the most sacred depositis, such as the ancylia, the books of the Sibyls, &c. The capitol was burnt under Vitellius, and rebuilt under Vespasian. It was burnt a second time by lightning under Titus, and restored by Domitian.

(3.) CAPITOL. See CAPITOUL.

(3.) CAPITOL was also a name anciently applied to all the principal temples, in most of the colonies throughout the Roman empire; as at Constantinople, Jerusalem, Carthage, Ravenna, Capua, &c.

CAPITOLINE GAMES, annual games instituted by Camillus, in honour of Jupiter Capitolinus, and in commemoration of the capitol's not being taken by the Gauls. Plutarch tells us, that a part of the ceremony consisted in the public crier putting up the Hetrurians to sale by auction: they also took an old man, and tying a golden bulla about his neck, exposed him to the public derision Festus says they also dressed him in a pretexta. There was another kind of Capitoline games, instituted by Domitian, wherein there were rewards and crowns bestowed on the poets, champions, orators, historians, and musicians. These last were

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celebrated every 5 years, and became so famous, that, instead of calculating time by lustra, they began to count by Capitoline games, as the Greeks did by Olympiads. However, this custom was not of long continuance.

CAPITOLINI, in Roman antiquity, a college of men residing in the capitol, to whom was committed the care of the CAPITOLINE GAMES.

(1.) CAPITOLINUS, a mountain of Rome, on which the capitol was built.

(2.) CAPITOLINUS, an epithet of Jupiter.

(3.) CAPITOLINUS, Julius, an historian in the beginning of the 4th century under Diocletian, to whom he inscribed the Lives of Verus, Antoninus Pius, Claudius, Balbinus, Macrinus, the Maximins, and the Gordians. He wrote other lives, which are most of them lost.

CAPITOUL, or CAPITOL, an appellation given, before the French revolution, to the chief magistrates of Thoulouse, who had the administration of justice and policy in the city. They were much the same with the consuls, bailiffs, burgo-masters, mayors, and aldermen, &c. in other cities. In ancient acts they were called *consules capitularii* or *capitolini*, and their body CAPITULUM. They had the custody of the town-house, which was anciently called *capitol*. The office only lasted 1 year, enobled the bearers, and entitled them to the *jus imaginum*; *i. e.* when their administration expired their pictures were hung up in the town-house.

CAPITOULATE, an appellation formerly given to the several districts of Thoulouse, under the direction of the capitouls, much like the wards of London, under their aldermen. Thoulouse was divided into 8 *capitoulates*.

(1.) * CAPITULAR. *n. f.* [from *capitulum*, Lat. an ecclesiastical chapter.] 1. A body of statutes, divided into chapters.—That this practice continued to the time of Charlemain, appears by a constitution in his *capitular*. *Taylor*. 2. A member of a chapter.—Canonists do agree, that the chapter makes decrees and statutes, which shall bind the chapter itself, and all its members or *capitulars*. *Ayliffe's Parergon*.

(2.) CAPITULAR, or } denotes an act passed in a
CAPITULARY, } chapter, either of knights, canons, or religious. The capitular of Charlemagne, Charles the Bald, &c. are the laws, both ecclesiastical and civil, made by those emperors in the general assemblies of the people; which was the way in which the constitutions of most of the ancient princes were made: each person present, though a plebeian, setting his hand to them. They had their name from being divided into *capitula*, chapters, or sections. In these capitulars did the whole French jurisprudence anciently consist.

* *To* CAPITULATE. *v. n.* [from *capitulum*, Lat.] 1. To draw up any thing in heads or articles.—

Percy, Northumberland,
The archbishop of York, Douglas, and Mortimer,
Capitulate against us and are up. *Shak.*

2. To yield or surrender up, on certain stipulations.—The king took it for a great indignity, that thieves should offer to *capitulate* with him as enemies. *Hayward*.—I still pursued, and, about two o'clock this afternoon, the thought fit to *capitulate*. *Spectator*.

(1.) * CAPITULATION. *n. f.* [from *capitulate*.] Stipulation; terms; conditions.—It was not a complete conquest, but rather a dedition upon terms and *caupitulations*, agreed between the conqueror and the conquered; wherein, usually, the yielding party secured themselves their law and religion. *Hale*.

(2.) CAPITULATION, in military affairs, a treaty made between the inhabitants or garrison of a place besieged and the besigers, for the delivering up the place on certain conditions. The most honourable terms of capitulation are, To march out at the breach with arms and baggage, drums beating, colours flying, a match lighted at both ends, and some pieces of cannon, waggons and convoys for their baggage, and for their sick and wounded.

(3.) CAPITULATION, in the German polity, a contract which the emperor makes with the electors, in the name of all the princes and states in the empire, before he is declared emperor, and which he ratifies before he is raised to that sovereign dignity. The principal points which the emperor undertakes to observe are, 1. To defend the church and empire. 2. To observe the fundamental laws of the empire. And, 3. To preserve the rights, privileges, and immunities of the electors, princes, and other states of the empire, specified in the capitulation. These capitulations are presented to the emperor by the electors only, without the concurrence of the other states, who have complained from time to time of such proceedings: and in the time of the Westphalian treaty, in 1648, it was proposed to deliberate in the following diet, upon a way of making a perpetual capitulation; but the electors have always found means to elude the execution of this article. In order, however, to give some satisfaction to their adversaries, they have inserted in the capitulations of the emperors, a promise to use all their influence to bring the affair of a perpetual capitulation to a conclusion. Some German authors own, that this capitulation limits the emperor's power; but maintain that it does not weaken his sovereignty; though the most part maintain that he is not absolute, because he receives the empire under conditions, which sets bounds to an absolute authority.

(1.) CAPITULUM, in ecclesiastical writers, denoted part of a chapter of the bible read and explained; whence *ire ad capitulum*, to go to such a lecture. Afterwards the place, where such exercises were performed was named *domus capituli*.

(2.) CAPITULUM, in the ancient military art, was a transverse beam, wherein were holes through which passed the strings whereby the arms of huge engines, as balistæ, catapultæ, and scorpions, were played, or worked.

(3.) CAPITULUM. See BOTANY, *Index* and *Glossary*.

* CAPIVI TREE. *n. f.* [*copaiba*, Lat.] This tree grows near a village called Ayapel, in the province of Antiochi, in the Spanish West Indies, about ten days journey from Carthagena. Some of them do not yield any of the balsam; those that do are distinguished by a ridge which runs along their trunks. These trees are wounded in their centre, and they apply vessels to the wounded part, to receive

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ceive the balſam. One of theſe trees will yield five or ſix gallons of balſam. *Miller.*

CAPLE, *n. ſ. obſ.* a horſe. *Chauc.*

CAPNICON, chimney money, a tax which the eaſtern emperors levied for ſmoke, and which of conſequence was due from all, even the pooreſt, who kept a fire. It was firſt exacted by Nicephorus.

CAPNITIS. See CADMIA, § I. i. N° 3.

CAPNOIDES, in botany. See FUMARIA.

CAPNOMANCY, [from καπνος, ſmoke, and μαντια, divination,] a kind of divination by means of ſmoke, uſed by the ancients in their ſacrifices. The general rule was, when the ſmoke was thin, and light, and roſe ſtraight up, it was a good omen: if the contrary, it was an ill one. There was alſo a ſpecies of capnomancy, conſiſting in the obſervation of the ſmoke riſing from poppy and jeſſamin ſeed, caſt upon light coals.

CAPO, or CAPO OF ISTRIA, a conſiderable town of Italy, in Iſtria, on the gulph of Trieſte, lately ſubject to the Venetians, and now compoſing part of the new republic. The air is wholeſome and temperate; its principal trade conſiſts in wine and ſalt. Lon. 40. 0. E. Lat. 45. 48. N.

CAPOC, in commerce, a ſort of cotton ſo fine and ſo ſhort, that it cannot be ſpun. It is uſed in the Eaſt Indies to line palanquins, to make beds, mattraſſes, cuſhions, pillows, &c.

* *To* CAPOCH. *v. a.* I know not diſtinctly what this word means: perhaps to ſtrip off the hood.—

Capoch'd your rabins of the ſynod
And ſnapt the canons with a why not. *Hudibras.*

(1.) CAPO FINO, a large barren rock in the territory of the Genoeſe, which has a caſtle on its eaſtern peak.

(2.) CAPO FINO, a ſmall harbour 15 miles E. by S. of Genoa, near the above rock, N° 1.

(1.) * CAPON. *n. ſ.* [*capo*, Lat.] A caſtrated cock.—

In good roaſt beef my landlord ſticks his knife;
The *capon* fat delights his dainty wife. *Gay's Paſt.*

(2.) CAPON is a cock chicken, gelded as ſoon as left by the dam, or as ſoon as he begins to crow. Capons are of uſe either to lead chickens, ducklings, pheaſants, &c. and defend them from the kites and buzzards; or to feed for the table, being reckoned more delicate than either a cock or a hen.

* CAPPONIERE. *n. ſ.* [Fr. A term in fortification.] A covered lodgement, of about 4 or 5 feet broad, encompaſſed with a little parapet of about 2 feet high, ſerving to ſupport planks laden with earth. This lodgement contains 15 or 20 ſoldiers, and is uſually placed at the extremity of the counterſcarp, having little embraſures made in them, through which they fire. *Harris.*

* CAPOT. *n. ſ.* [Fr.] Is when one party wins all the tricks of cards at the game of picquet.

* *To* CAPOT. *v. a.* [from the noun.] When one party has won all the tricks of cards at picquet, he is ſaid to have *capotted* his antagoniſt.

* CAPOUCH. *n. ſ.* [*capuce*, Fr.] A monk's hood. *Dict.*

CAPPA, a village of Ireland, in Waterford, Munſter, N. of Whitechurch.

CAPPADINE, in commerce, a ſort of ſilk flock, taken from the upper part of the ſilk worm cod, after the true ſilk has been wound off. Slight ſtuffs called LASSIS and CARBASS, are made of it.

CAPPADOCIA, an ancient kingdom of Aſia, comprehending all that country which lies between mount Taurus and the Euxine ſea. It was divided by the Perſians into two ſatrapies or governments; by the Macedonians into two kingdoms; viz.

1. CAPPADOCIA AD PONTUM, more commonly called *Pontus*. See PONTUS.

2. CAPPADOCIA AD TAURUM, } CAPPADOCIA
CAPPADOCIA MAGNA, or } properly ſo called, lies between 38° and 41° Lat. N. It was bounded by Pontus on the N. Lycaonia and part of Armenia Major on the S. Galatia on the W. and by Euphrates and part of Armenia Minor on the E. The firſt king of Cappadocia we read of was Pharnaces, who was raiſed to the crown by Cyrus king of Perſia, who gave him his ſiſter Atoſſa in marriage. He was killed in a war with the Hyrcanians. After him came a ſucceſſion of 8 kings, of whom we know ſcarce any thing but that they continued faithful to the Perſian intereſt. In the time of Alexander the Great, Cappadocia was governed by Ariathes II. who, notwithſtanding the vaſt conqueſts of the Macedonian monarch, contiuued faithful to the Perſians. Alexander was prevented by death from invading his dominions; but Perdiccas marching againſt him with a powerful and well diſciplined army, diſperſed his forces, and having taken Ariarathes himſelf priſoner, crucified him, with all thoſe of the royal blood whom he could get into his power. Diodorus, however, ſays, that he was killed in the battle. He is ſaid to have reigned 82 years. His ſon Ariarathes III. having eſcaped the general ſlaughter, fled into Armenia, where he lay concealed, till the diſſenſions among the Macedonians gave him a fair opportunity of recovering his paternal kingdom. Amyntas, governor of Cappadocia, oppoſed him; but being defeated in a pitched battle, the Macedonians were obliged to abandon all the ſtrong holds. Ariarathes, after a long and peaceable reign, left his kingdom to his ſon Ariaramnes II. He applied himſelf more to the arts of peace than war, in conſequence of which Cappadocia flouriſhed greatly during his reign. He was ſucceeded by his ſon Ariarathes IV. who proved a very warlike prince, and having overcome Arſaces, founder of the Parthian monarchy, conſiderably enlarged his own dominions. He was ſucceeded by Ariarathes V. who marrying the daughter of Antiochus the Great, entered into an alliance with that prince againſt the Romans; but Antiochus being defeated, Ariarathes was obliged to ſue for peace, which he obtained, upon paying a fine of 2000 talents. He afterwards aſſiſted the republic with men and money againſt Perſeus king of Macedon, on which account, he was by the ſenate honoured with the title of the *friend and ally of the Roman people.* He left the kingdom in a very flouriſhing condition to his ſon Mithridates, who on his acceſſion took the name of Ariarathes VI. This prince (ſurnamed *Philopater*, from the filial reſpect and love he ſhowed his father from his infancy) immediately renewed the alliance with Rome. Out of mere goodnature he reſtored Mithrobarzanes ſon to Ladri-

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ades king of the Leſſer Armenia to his father's kingdom, though he foreſaw that the Armenians would lay hold of that opportunity to join Artaxias, who was then on the point of invading Cappadocia. Theſe differences, however, were ſettled before they came to an open rupture, by the Roman legates; and Ariarathes ſeeing himſelf thus delivered from an impending war, by the meditation of the republic, preſented the ſenate with a golden crown, and offered his ſervice wherever they thought proper to employ him. The ſenate in return ſent him a ſtaff, and chair of ivory; which were preſents uſually beſtowed on thoſe only whom they looked upon as attached to their intereſt. Not long before this, Demetrius Soter king of Syria had offered Ariarathes his ſiſter in marriage, the widow of Perſeus king of Macedon: but this offer the king of Cappadocia declined for fear of offending the Romans; who reckoned him among the chief of their allies. Demetrius, incenſed at the ſlight put upon his ſiſter, ſet up a pretender to the throne, one Orophernes, a ſuppoſitious, or natural ſon of the deceaſed king. The Romans ordered Eumenes king of Pergamus to aſſiſt Ariarathes with all his forces: which he did, but to no purpoſe; for the confederates were overthrown by Demetrius, and Ariarathes was obliged to abandon the kingdom to his rival. This happened about A. A. C. 159; and the uſurper immediately diſpatched ambaſſadors to Rome with a golden crown. The ſenate declined accepting the preſent, till they heard his pretenſions to the kingdom; and this Orophernes, by ſuborned witneſſes, made appear ſo plain, that the ſenate decreed that Ariarathes and he ſhould reign as partners; but next year Orophernes was driven out by Attalus brother to Eumenes, and his ſucceſſor in the kingdom of Pergamus. Ariarathes, being thus reſtored, immediately demanded of the Priennians 400 talents of gold which Orophernes had depoſited with them. They honeſtly replied, that as they had been truſted with the money by Orophernes, they could deliver it to none but himſelf or ſuch as came in his name. Upon this, the king entered their territories with an army, deſtroying all with fire and ſword. The Priennians, however, ſtill preſerved their integrity; and though their city was beſieged by the united forces of Ariarathes and Attalus, not only made an obſtinate defence, but found means to reſtore the ſum to Orophernes. At laſt they applied to the Romans for aſſiſtance, who enjoined the two kings to raiſe the ſiege, under pain of being declared enemies to the republic. Ariarathes immediately obeyed; and marching his army into Aſſyria, joined Alexander Balas againſt Demetrius, who, in the very firſt engagement was ſlain, and his army entirely diſperſed, Ariarathes having on that occaſion given uncommon proofs of his courage and conduct. Some years after, a war breaking out between the Romans and Ariſtonicus, who claimed the kingdom of Pergamus in right of his father, Ariarathes joined the former, and was ſlain in the ſame battle in which P. Craſſus proconſul of Aſia was taken, and the Roman army cut in peices. He left ſix ſons by his wife Laodice, on whom the Romans beſtowed Lycaonia and Cilicia. But Laodice, fearing leſt her children, when they came of age, ſhould take the government out of her hands, poiſoned 5 of them, the youngeſt only having eſcaped her cruelty by being conveyed out of the kingdom. The monſter herſelf was ſoon after put to death by her ſubjects, who could not bear her cruel and tyrannical government. She was ſucceeded by Ariarathes VII. who, ſoon after his acceſſion, married another Laodice, daughter of Mithridates the Great, hoping to find in that prince a powerful friend to ſupport him againſt Nicomedes king of Bithynia, who laid claim to part of Cappadocia. But Mithridates inſtead of aſſiſting, procured one Gordius to poiſon his ſon-in-law; and on his death, ſeized the kingdom, under pretence of maintaining the rights of the Cappadocians againſt Nicomedes, till the children of Ariarathes were in a condition to govern it. The Cappadocians at firſt fancied themſelves obliged to their new protector; but, finding him unwilling to reſign the kingdom to the lawful heir, they roſe up in arms, and, driving out all his garriſons, placed Ariarathes VIII. eldeſt ſon of their deceaſed king, on the throne. The new prince found himſelf immediately engaged in a war with Nicomedes; but, being aſſiſted by Mithridates, not only drove him out of Cappadocia, but ſtripped him of a great part of his hereditary dominions. On the concluſion of the peace, Mithridates ſeeking for ſome pretence to quarrel with Ariarathes, inſiſted upon his recalling Gordius, who had murdered his father; which being rejected with abhorence, a war enſued. Mithridates took the field firſt, in hopes of over-running Cappadocia before Ariarathes could be in a condition to make head againſt him; but, contrary to his expectation, he was met on the frontiers by the king of Cappadocia with an army no way inferior to his own. Hereupon he invited Ariarathes to a conference; and, in ſight of both armies, ſtabbed him with a dagger, which he had concealed under his garment. This ſtruck ſuch terror into the Cappadocians, that they immediately diſperſed, and gave Mithridates an opportunity of poſſeſſing himſelf of the kingdom without the leaſt oppoſition. The Cappadocians, however, not able to endure the tyranny of his prefects, ſoon ſhook off the yoke; and recalling the king's brother, who had fled into the province of Aſia, proclaimed him king. He was ſcarce ſeated on the throne, however, before Mithridates invaded the kingdom at the head of a very numerous army, and having drawn Ariarathes to a battle, defeated his army with great ſlaughter, and obliged him to abandon the kingdom. The unhappy prince ſoon after died of grief: and Mithridates beſtowed the kingdom on his own ſon, who was then only 8 years old, giving him at the ſame time the name of *Ariarathes* X. But Nicomedes Philopater king of Bithynia, fearing leſt Mithridates, having now got poſſeſſion of the whole kingdom of Cappadocia, ſhould invade his territories, ſuborned a youth to paſs himſelf for the 3d ſon of Ariarathes, and to preſent to them a petition in order to be reſtored to his father's kingdom. With him he ſent to Rome Laodice, ſiſter of Mithridates, whom he had married after the death of her former huſband Ariarathes. Laodice declared before the ſenate, that ſhe had 3 ſons by Ariarathes, and that the

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the petitioner was one of them; but that ſhe had been obliged to keep him concealed, leſt he ſhould undergo the ſame fate with his brothers: whereupon the ſenate promiſed to reinſtate him in his kingdom. But, Mithridates hearing of theſe tranſactions, diſpatched Gordius to Rome, to undeceive the ſenate, and to perſuade them that the youth to whom he had reſigned the kingdom of Cappadocia was the lawful ſon of the late king, and grandſon to Ariarathes who had loſt his life in the ſervice of the Romans againſt Ariſtonicus. This unexpected embaſſy put the ſenate upon enquiring more narrowly into the matter, whereby the whole plot was diſcovered; upon which Mithridates was ordered to reſign Cappadocia, and the kingdom was declared free. The Cappadocians, however, ſent ambaſſadors to Rome, acquainting the ſenate that they could not live without a king. This ſurpriſed the Romans, who had ſuch an averſion to royal authority: but they gave them leave to elect a king of their own nation. As the family of Pharnaces was now extinct, the Cappadocians choſe Ariobarzanes; and their choice was approved by the ſenate, he having on all occaſions ſhown himſelf a ſteady friend to the Romans. Ariobarzanes had ſcarce taken poſſeſſion of his kingdom when he was driven out by Tigranes king of Armenia; who reſigned Cappadocia to the ſon of Mithridates, in purſuance of an alliance previouſly concluded between the two parties. Ariobarzanes fled to Rome; and, having engaged the ſenate in his cauſe, he returned into Aſia with Sylla, who was enjoined to reſtore him to his kingdom. This was eaſily performed by Sylla, who, with a ſmall body of troops, routed Gordius at the head of a numerous army. Sylla, however, had ſcarce turned his back, when Ariobarzanes was again driven out by Ariarathes the ſon of Mithridates. Upon this Sylla returned to Aſia, where his uſual ſucceſs attended him, and Ariobarzanes was again placed on the throne. After the death of Sylla, he was the 3d time forced by Mithridates to abandon his kingdom; but Pompey, having entirely defeated Mithridates near mount Stella, reſtored Ariobarzanes to his throne, and rewarded him for his ſervices during the war, with the provinces of Sophene, Gordiene, and great part of Cilicia. The king, however, being now advanced in years, and deſirous of ſpending the remainder of his life in eaſe, reſigned the crown to his ſon Ariobarzanes, in preſence of Pompey; and never afterwards troubled himſelf with affairs of ſtate. Ariobarzanes II. proved no leſs faithful to the Romans than his father. On the breaking out of the civil war between Cæſar and Pompey, he ſided with the latter; but after the death of Pompey, he was received into favour by Cæſar, who even beſtowed upon him great part of Armenia. While Cæſar was engaged in a war with the Egyptians, Pharnaces king of Pontus invaded Cappadocia, and ſtripped Ariobarzanes of all his dominions; but Cæſar, having defeated Pharnaces, reſtored the king of Cappadocia, and honoured him with new titles of friendſhip. After the murder of Cæſar, Ariobarzanes, having refuſed to join Brutus and Caſſius, was by them declared an enemy to the republic, and ſoon after taken priſoner and put to death. He was ſucceeded by his brother Ariobarzanes III. who was by Marc Anthony deprived both of his kingdom and life; and in him ended the family of Ariobarzanes. Archelaus, the grandſon of that general of the ſame name who commanded againſt Sylla in the Mithridatic war, was by Marc Anthony placed on the throne of Cappadocia, though nowiſe related either to the family of Pharnaces or Ariobarzanes. His preferment was entirely owing to his mother Glaphyra, a woman of great beauty, but of a looſe behaviour, who, in her return for her compliance with the deſires of Anthony, obtained the kingdom of Cappadocia for her ſon. In the war between Auguſtus and Anthony, he joined the latter; but at the interceſſion of the Cappadocians, was pardoned by the emperor. He afterwards received from him Armenia the Leſſer, and Cilicia Trachæa, for having aſſiſted the Romans in clearing the ſeas of pirates who greatly infeſted the coaſts of Aſia. He contracted a ſtrict friendſhip with Herod the Great, king of Judæa; and married his daughter Glaphyra to Alexander, Herod's ſon. In the reign of Tiberius, Archelaus was ſummoned to appear before the ſenate; for he had always been hated by that emperor, becauſe in his retirement at Rhodes he had paid him no ſort of reſpect. This had proceeded from no averſion in him to Tiberius, but from the warning given Archelaus, by his friends at Rome. For Caius Cæſar, the preſumptive heir to the empire, was then alive, and had been ſent to compoſe the differences of the eaſt, whence the friendſhip of Tiberius was then looked upon as dangerous. But when he came to the empire, Tiberius, remembering the diſreſpect ſhown him by Archelaus, enticed the latter to Rome by means of letters from Livia, who promiſed him her ſon Tiberius's pardon, provided he came in perſon to implore it. Archelaus obeyed the ſummons, and haſtened to Rome; where he was received by the emperor with great wrath and contempt, and ſoon after accuſed as a criminal in the ſenate. The crimes of which he was accuſed were mere fictions; but his concern at ſeeing himſelf treated as a malefactor was ſo great, that he died ſoon after of grief, or, as others ſay, laid violent hands on himſelf. He is ſaid to have reigned 50 years. On the death of Archelaus, Cappadocia was reduced to a Roman province, and governed by thoſe of the equeſtrian order. It continued ſubject to the Romans till the invaſion of the eaſtern empire by the Turks, to whom it is now ſubject. The Turks have four Beglerbeglics in it, called *Siwas*, *Trebizond*, *Maraſch*, and *Cogni*.

CAPPADOCIANS, the ancient inhabitants of Cappadocia. Theſe people, in the time of the Romans, bore ſo bad a character, and were reputed ſo lewd, that, among the neighbouring nations, a wicked man was emphatically called a *Cappadocian*. In after ages, however, their lewd diſpoſition was ſo reſtrained by the pure doctrines of Chriſtianity, that no country whatever has produced greater champions of the Chriſtian religion, or given to the church prelates of more unblemiſhed characters. We have no ſyſtem of the Cappadocian laws, and ſcarce wherewithal to form any particular idea of them. They carried on

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on a conſiderable trade in horſes, and we read of them in Scripture, frequenting the fairs of Tyre with this commodity. As Cappadocia abounded with mines of ſilver, braſs, iron, and alum, and afforded a great ſtore of alabaſter, cryſtal, and jaſper, it is probable that they might ſupply the neighbouring countries with theſe commodities. The religion of the ancient Cappadocians was much the ſame with that of the Perſians. At Comana there was a rich temple dedicated to Bellona; whoſe battles the prieſts and their attendants uſed to repreſent on ſtated days, cutting and wounding each other as if ſeized with an enthuſiaſtic fury. No leſs famous and magnificent were the temples of Apollo Cotanius, and of Jupiter: the laſt of which had 3000 religious votaries. The chief prieſt was next in rank to that of Comana; and, according to Strabo, had a revenue of 15 talents. Diana Perſica was worſhipped in a city called CASTABALLA, where women, devoted to the worſhip of that goddeſs, were reported to tread barefooted on burning coals, without receiving any hurt. The temples of Diana at Dioſpolis, and of Anjas at Zela, were likewiſe held in great veneration both by the Cappadocians and Armenians. In the latter were tendered all oaths in matters of conſequence; and the chief prieſt was equal in dignity, power, and wealth, to any in the kingdom; having a royal attendance, and an unlimited authority over all the officers of the temple. The Romans, who willingly adopted all the ſuperſtitions of the nations they conquered, greatly increaſed the revenues of this and other temples: conferring the prieſthood on ſuch as they thought moſt fit for carrying on their deſigns.—We are told that human ſacrifices were offered at Comana; and that this barbarous cuſtom was brought by Oreſtes and his ſiſter Iphigenia from Taurica Scythia, where men and women were immolated to Diana. But this cuſtom, if ever it obtained in Cappadocia, was aboliſhed in the time of the Romans.

CAPPAGHTAGGEL, a village of Ireland, in the county of Galway, Connaught.

CAPPAH, a town of Ireland, in Tipperary.

CAPPANUS, a name given by ſome authors to a worm that adheres to and gnaws the bottoms of ſhips; to which it is extremely pernicious, eſpecially in the E. and W. Indies: to prevent this, ſeveral ſhips have lately been ſheathed with copper; the firſt trial of which was made on his majeſty's frigate, the Alarm.

* CAP-PAPER. A ſort of coarſe browniſh paper. So called from being formed into a kind of *cap* to hold commodities.—Having, for trial ſake, filtred it through *cap-paper*, there remained in the filtre a powder. *Boyle.*

CAPPARIS, in botany: A genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the polyandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 25th order, Putamineæ. The calyx is tetraphyllous and coriaceous; the petals are 4, the ſtamina are long; the fruit is a berry, carnous, unilocular, and pedunculated, or furniſhed with a foot-ſtalk. There are 7 ſpecies; of which the principal is,

CAPPARIS SPINOSA, or common caper, a low ſhrub, generally growing out of the joints of old walls, the fiſſures of rocks, and among rubbiſh, in moſt of the warm parts of Europe. It has woody ſtalks, which ſend out many lateral ſlender branches; under each of theſe are placed two ſhort crooked ſpines, between which and the branches come out the footſtalks of the leaves, which are ſingle, ſhort, and ſuſtain a round ſmooth entire leaf. At the intermediate joints, between the branches, come out the flowers on long footſtalks; before theſe expand, the bud with the empalement is gathered for pickling. Thoſe which are laſt expand in form of a ſingle roſe, having 5 large white petals, which are roundiſh and concave; in the middle are placed a great number of long ſtamina, ſurrounding a ſtyle which riſes above them, and crowned with an oval germen, which afterwards becomes a capſule filled with kidney-ſhaped ſeeds. This plant is very difficultly preſerved in Britain: it delights to grow in crevices of rocks, old walls, &c. and always thrives beſt in an horizontal poſture; ſo that, when planted either in pots or in the full ground, they ſeldom thrive, though they may be kept alive for ſome years. They are propagated by ſeeds in the warm parts of Europe, but very ſeldom in Britain. The buds, pickled with vinegar, &c. are brought to Britain annually from Italy and the Mediterranean. They are ſuppoſed to excite appetite and aſſiſt digeſtion: and to be particularly uſeful as detergents and aperients in obſtructions of the liver and ſpleen.

CAPPEL-CANON, and CAPPEL, St SILIM, two villages of S. Wales, in Cardiganſh.

* CAPPER. *n. ſ.* [from *cap.*] One who makes or ſells caps.

CAPPERNANE, a town of Ireland, in Mayo.

CAPPOCHIA, *n. ſ.* a fool. *Shakeſp. Aſh.*

CAPPOQUIN, a village of Ireland, in Waterford, Munſter, 97 miles from Dublin.

CAPRA, the GOAT, a genus of quadrupeds belonging to the order of pecora. See *Plates* LVII, LVIII, and LIX. The horns are perſiſtent, hollow, turned upwards, erect, and ſcabrous. There are 8 fore teeth in the under jaw, and none in the upper; and they have no dog teeth. In deſcribing the different ſpecies and varieties of this genus, we have again to complain of that confuſion of names and deſcriptions, which we find among zoologiſts, and which renders it extremely difficult to give a complete, and at the ſame time a diſtinct arrangement of them all. Linnæus and other naturaliſts reckon 14 ſpecies of this genus, under one of which, viz. the DORCAS, (N° VII.) they include moſt of the varieties of the ANTELOPE. Mr Kerr reckons only 11, ſome of which are by others ranked only as varieties of the common ſpecies. But both Mr Kerr and Mr Pennant, as well as Drs Gmelin, Erxleben and Pallas, make the antelope a diſtinct genus, forming a link between the goat, (CAPRA,) and the deer, (CERVUS,) with the former of which the antelopes agree in the texture of their horns, which have a core, and in their never caſting them; and with the latter, in their elegance of form. Of this genus Mr Kerr enumerates 29 ſpecies. Adhering, however, to Linnæus's claſſification of the whole tribe under one genus, (though we by no means diſpute the propriety of dividing the goats from the antelopes,) th-

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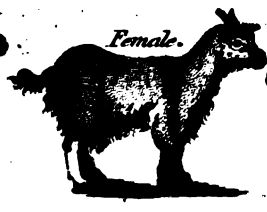
Common Goat.

Male.

Buck of Juda.

Wild Goat.



Syrian Goat.

Female.

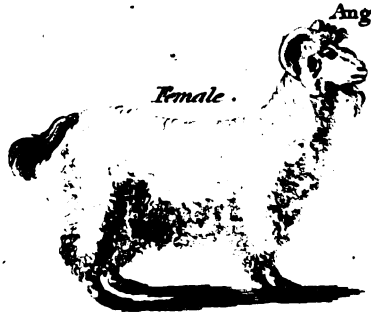
African Goat.

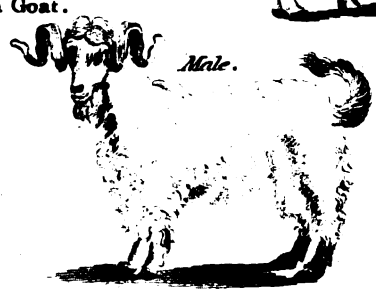
Male.

the Capricorn.

Angora Goat.

Female.





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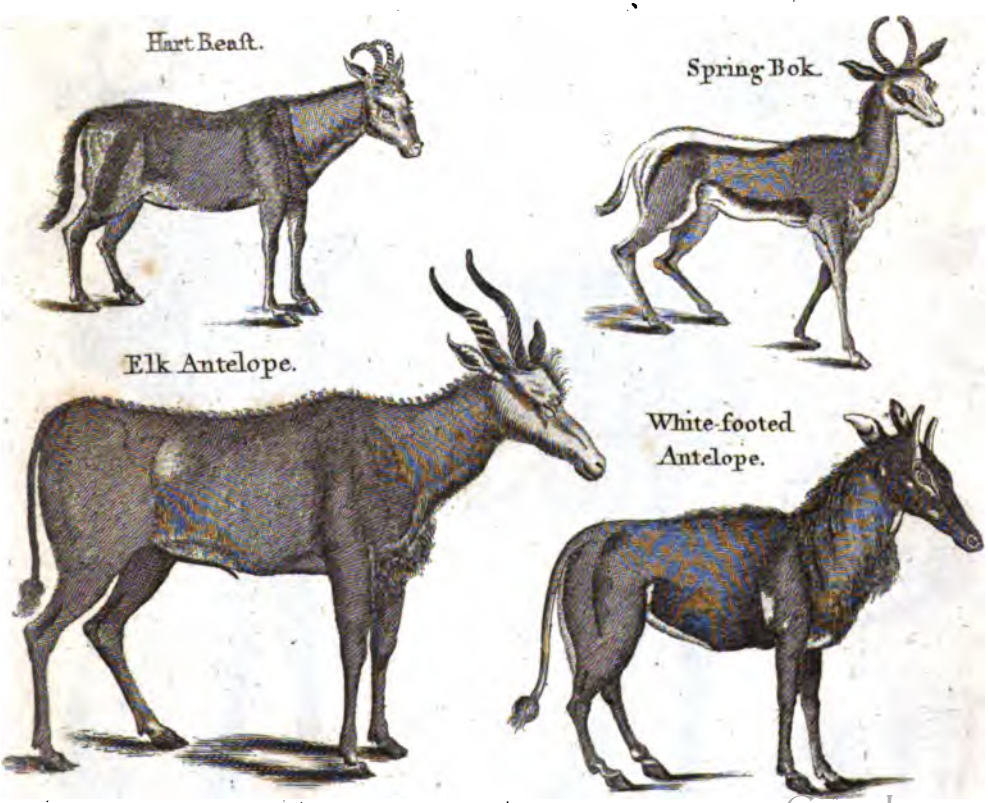

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Caprimulgus
the Goat Sucker

Wood Antelope

The Gnou.

Cochleæ

Cervicapra.

Concha

Capra Picta the Nyl Ghau
or White footed Antelope.

Coral

Concha Margaritifera.

Calamus Indicus.

Cylindri.

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the following is the moſt complete arrangement, we can make out; of theſe animals, from the different zoological authors.

I. CAPRA ÆGAGRUS of Pallas and Gmelin; the *Cervicapra* of Kæmpfer, and the Caucaſian goat of Pennant and Zimmerman, has large ſmooth black horns, ſharply ridged on their upper; and hollowed on their under ſurface. There are no veſtiges of knots or rings, but on the upper ſurface are ſome wavy riſings; they bend much back, and are much hooked at the end, approaching, a little at the points. On the chin is a great beard, duſky, mixed with cheſnut. The fore part of the head is black, the ſides mixed with brown; the reſt of the animal grey, or grey mixed with ruſt colour. Along the middle of the back, from the neck to the tail, is a black liſt; and the tail is black. The female is either deſtitute of horns, or has very ſhort ones. In ſize it is ſuperior to the largeſt he goat, but in form and agility reſembes a ſtag: yet Monardus compares it to the he-goat, and ſays that he has the feet of the goat. They inhabit the lower mountains of Caucaſus and Taurus, all Aſia Minor, and perhaps the mountains of India. They abound on the inhoſpitable hills of Laar and Khorazan in Perſia; and, according to Monardus, are alſo found in Africa. It is an animal of vaſt agility. Monardus was witneſs to the manner of its ſaving itſelf from injury by falling on its horns: He ſaw one leap from a high tower, precipitate itſelf on its horns; then ſpring on its legs and leap about, without receiving the leaſt harm. This is one of the ſpecies, which yields the once much valued alexipharmic, the Bezoar ſtone. See BEZOAR, § I. 2, 3.

II. CAPRA AMMON has ſemicircular, plain, white horns, and no beard. It is about the ſize of a ram, and is a native of Siberia. This animal is called the *wild ſheep* by Mr Pennant, and is accordingly ranked as a ſpecies of OVIS by Mr Kerr.

III. CAPRA BEZOARTICA, the BEZOAR GOAT, is bearded, and has long, wrinkled, ſlender, upright, tapering, ſharp-pointed horns. It is a native of Perſia. The bezoar is found in one of its ſtomachs, called *abomaſus*. See ABOMASIUM, and BEZOAR, § I. 2, 3. It has a red fur, with a white breaſt and belly; and is claſſed among the *antelopes*, by Drs Gmelin, Pallas, Pannant, &c.

IV. CAPRA CAUCASICA, the Caucaſian goat, is deſcribed by Mr Kerr, as quite a different ſpecies from the Caucaſian goat of Mr Pennant. See N° I. "The horns are ſlightly triangular, knobbed on their anterior ſurface and arched backwards, conſiderably divaricating with their extremities turned inwards. It inhabits the bare, ſchiſtic, rocky ſummits of mount Caucaſus, near the origin of the Terek and Chouban rivers. The horns of the male are of a dirty blackiſh colour, and much longer than thoſe of the common goat, (N° IX.) thoſe of the female are browniſh, and much ſmaller. The upper parts of the body are a bright browniſh grey, with a narrow dark brown line along the back; the under parts are whitiſh, with the limbs black. The hair is harſh, ſomewhat ſtiff, aſh-coloured at the roots, and mixed with an aſh-coloured wool. It is about the ſize of a common goat, with which, however, it will not breed; and is rather ſhorter and broader in its general form."

V. CAPRA CERVICAPRA, the LIDMEE, or INDIAN ANTELOPE of Buffon, has long prominently annulated, tapering, plaited, cylindrical horns, and inhabits Barbary. The hair near the horns is longer than in any other part of the body. The females want horns. Mr Haſſelquiſt gives the following account of this ſpecies: "The cervicapra is larger, ſwifter, and wilder, than the common rock goat, and can ſcarcely be taken without a falcon. It is met with near Aleppo. I have ſeen a variety of this, which is common in the Eaſt, and the horns appear different; perhaps it is a diſtinct ſpecies. This animal loves the ſmoke of tobacco; and, when caught alive, will approach the pipe of the huntſman, though otherwiſe more timid than any animal. This is perhaps the only creature, beſides man, that delights in the ſmell of a poiſonous and ſtinking plant. The Arabians hunt it with a falcon *(falco gentilis*, Lin*)*." See HUNTING.

VI. CAPRA DEPRESSA, the African goat, has ſhort thick triangular, depreſſed horns, bent inwards, lying on the head. It is about the ſize of a kid; and the hair is long and pendulous, rough in the male, but ſmooth in the female. The male has alſo two long hairy wattles below the chin.

VII. CAPRA DORCAS, the antelope, has cylindrical annulated horns, bent backward, contorted, and ariſing from the front between the eyes It is a native of Africa and Mexico. Theſe animals are of a moſt elegant and active make; of a reſtleſs and timid diſpoſition; extremely watchful; of great vivacity; remarkably ſwift; exceedingly agile; and their boundings ſo light, and ſo elaſtic, as to ſtrike the ſpectator with aſtoniſhment. What is very ſingular, they will ſtop in the middle of their courſe, for a moment gaze at the purſuers, and then reſume their flight. The chace of theſe animals is a favourite diverſion in the eaſtern nations, and affords proofs of the rapid ſpeed of the antelope tribe. The grey-hound is unequal in the courſe; and the ſportſman is obliged to call in the aid of the falcon trained to the work, to ſeize on the animal and impede its motions, to give the dog time to overtake it. In India and Perſia, a ſort of leopard is made uſe of in the chace: this animal takes its prey, not by ſwiftneſs of foot, but by the greatneſs of its ſprings, by motions ſimilar to that of the antelope; but ſhould the leopard fail in its firſt eſſay, the antelope eſcapes. The fleetneſs of this animal was proverbial even in the earlieſt times; the ſpeed of Aſahel is beautifully compared to that of the TZEBI; and the Gadites were ſaid to be as ſwift as the roes upon the mountains. The ſacred writers took their ſimilies from objects familiar to the people they addreſſed. The diſciple raiſed to life at Joppa was ſuppoſed to have been called *Tabitha* i. e. *Dorcas*, or the *Antelope*, from the beauty of her eyes; and this is ſtill a common compariſon in the eaſt: where *Aine el Ozozel*, i e. you have eyes of an Antelope, is the greateſt compliment that can be paid to a fine woman. Some ſpecies of antelopes form herds of 2000 or 3000, while others keep in ſmall troops of 5 or 6. They generally reſide in hilly countries;

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though ſome inhabit plains: they often browſe like the goat, and feed on the tender ſhoots of trees, which gives their fleſh an excellent flavour. This is to be underſtood of thoſe that are taken in the chaſe; for thoſe that are fattened in houſes are far leſs delicious. The fleſh of ſome ſpecies are ſaid to taſte of muſk, which perhaps depends on the qualities of the plants they feed on. To the diſtinctive marks of the Antelope already given, we may add the following, as peculiarly characteriſtic of theſe animals, viz. that moſt of them have diſtinct lachrymal pits under the eyes; that they all have a plait of the ſkin ſub-divided into ſeveral cells in the groins; bruſhes of hair on the knees, and beautiful black eyes: that in general their fleſh is excellent, that none of the numerous tribe are to be found in America, and only two ſpecies, viz. the *Chamois* and the *Saiga*, (N° XIV, and XV.) in Europe. Mr Kerr, who, as already obſerved, claſſes the antelope as a diſtinct genus, enumerates 29 ſpecies; among which he ranks the BEZOARTICA, CERVICAPRA, GAZELLA, and TARTARICA, of Linnæus. (See N° III, V, VIII, and XV.) But having adopted Linnæus's general claſſification of the whole under CAPRA, we ſhall here deſcribe the remainder of theſe, as varieties of this ſpecies; adopting, however, Mr Kerr's deſcriptions in general, as well as moſt of his ſpecific names; only ſubſtituting the Greek ſynonime, DORCAS, of Linnæus, for the Latin, ANTILOPE, uſed by Mr Kerr.

1. CAPRA DORCAS PUBALIS, the CERVINE ANTELOPE of Pennant, or *Antilope Bubalis* of Pallas, has the horns thick, twiſted ſpirally, annulated, bent in form of a lyre, (*i. e.* receding in the middle, approaching towards the ſummits, and again receding from each other,) almoſt ſtraight and upright at their ends. The head is large, and like that of an ox: the eyes are placed very high, and near the horns: the form of the body is a mixture of the ſtag and heifer; the height to the top of the ſhoulders 4 feet: the tail is rather more than a foot long, aſinine, and terminated with a tuft of hair: the colour a reddiſh brown; white about the rump, the inner ſide of the thighs, and lower part of the belly; a dark ſpace occupies the top of the back, the front of the upper part of the fore legs, and hinder part of the thighs. It inhabits Barbary, and other parts of Africa, being alſo found towards the Cape of Good Hope. It is the *bekker el waſh* of the Arabs, according to Dr Shaw; who ſays, that its young quickly grow tame, and herd with other cattle. Mr Forſkal mentions it among the Arabian animals of an uncertain genus, by the name *bakar waſch*. This is the YACHMUR of the Bible, and the *bubalus* of the ancients; not the *buffalo*, as later writers have ſuppoſed. The Dutch of the Cape call this ſpecies *hart-beeſt*. They go in great herds; a few only are ſolitary. They gallop ſeemingly with a heavy pace, yet go ſwiftly. They drop on their knees to fight, like the NYL-GHAU, (N° 14.) and the *Boſch bok*, (N° 22.) The fleſh is fine grained, but dry. Mr Sparman informs us, that in this animal there is a pore one line in diameter, an inch or an inch and a half below and before the internal angle of the eye. From this pore, which is the aperture of a caruncle that lies below, there is ſecreted a matter almoſt like ear wax, which he obſerved the Hottentots keep in a piece of ſkin as a rare and excellent medicine; on the dried ſkin of the animal, this pore is ſcarcely to be diſcerned. This Mr Sparman ſuppoſes is the reaſon, why ſo great and accurate a zoologiſt as M. Pallas makes no mention of this pore, as he made his deſcriptions chiefly from the dried ſkins of this animal. The uſe of this pore, which is alſo found in the deer, is for affording freer reſpiration, a circumſtance ſo eſſential to beaſts of chaſe. See CERVUS.

2. CAPRA D. CORINNA, the *corine antelope*, has very ſlender, ſhort, ſmooth, horns, ſlightly bent like a lyre, ſix inches long, ſurfounded with circular *rugæ*: on each ſide of the face is a white line; beneath that is one of a black: the neck, body, and flanks are tawny; belly and inſide of the thighs white; on the knees is a tuft of hair. It is leſs than a roe-buck, and inhabits Senegal.

3. CAPRA D. DAMA, the NANGUER of Buffon, or *Swift Antelope* of Pennant, and, in his opinion, the *νεβρις* of Ælian, has round horns, 8 inches long, hooked forwards at the ends. The general colour is tawny; but this ſpecies varies in that particular. It inhabits Senegal, and is eaſily tamed. It is ſo very ſwift, that Ælian compares its flight to the rapidity of a whirl-wind.

4. CAPRA D. GAZELLA, the *Gazelle*, or Barbary antelope of Buffon, and the *Antilope Dorcas* of Kerr, has horns 12 inches long, bent like a lyre, and annulated with 13 prominent rings; the upper parts of the body are reddiſh brown; the under parts and buttocks white; both are divided by a duſky line. Dr Gmelin ſuppoſes this to be the DISCHON of Moſes, or the Roe of the mountains mentioned by Solomon. Shaw reckons it the Tzebi of ſcripture. It goes in large flocks, is very timid and eaſily tamed. It inhabits Barbary, Egypt, Arabia, and Syria.

5. CAPRA D. GRIMMIA, the ANTILOPE GRIMMIA of Gmelin and Pallas, and the Guinea antelope of Pennant, is a very elegant animal about 18 inches high, with horns about 3 inches long. It is the MOSCHUS GRIMMIA, of Linnæus. See MOSCHUS.

6. CAPRA D. GUTTUROSA, the *Tzeiran*, or *Yellow Goat*, of Du Halde, and the *Chineſe Antelope* of Pennant, is of a reddiſh colour, and has lyrated yellow horns, 9 inches long, and ſurrounded with 20 rings. It is about 4 feet 4 inches long, 2½ high, at the ſhoulders. This ſpecies inhabits the deſerts of Mongalia, and thoſe from China to Thibet, and the N. borders of India. They keep in flocks, are very ſwift, extremely timid, and take prodigious leaps. They are equally afraid of woods and waters. They have a large moveable protuberance on the neck, owing to a ſingular conſtruction of the wind-pipe. The female wants horns.

7. CAPRA D. KEVELLA of Pallas, the KEVEL of Buffon, or *flat-horned antelope* of Pennant, has horns 12 inches long, flattened on their ſides, inclining firſt backwards, bending in the middle, and then reverting forwards at their ends, and annulated with from 14 to 18 rings: the upper ſide of the body is reddiſh brown; lower part and buttocks are white: the ſize equal to a roe-buck. They

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They inhabit Senegal, Barbary and Perſia, where they live in great flocks, are eaſily tamed, and are excellent meat.

8. CAPRA D. KOBA, the Senegal antelope of Pennant, has horns 17 inches long; thick, annulated with 18 rings, and lyrated; very cloſe at the roots, and ſmooth, ſharp, and bent backwards at the ends. It is a large ſpecies, Mr Pennant having had a ſkin of one, 7 feet long. The head and body are a light reddiſh brown; the rump a dirty white, and the tail a foot long and blackiſh. Mr Kerr ſuppoſes this to be the *Hart-beeſt* of the Cape.

9. CAPRA D. LERWIA, the ANTELOPE KOB of Erxleben, or *Gambian antelope* of Pennant, is of the ſize of a fallow deer, reddiſh coloured, with a remarkable tuft of hair on the neck; and has horns 13 inches long, 5½ round at the baſe, ſurrounded with 8 or 9 rings; very diſtant in the middle, but approaching very near at the points, which are ſmooth. The Lerwee inhabits Africa.

10. CAPRA D. LEUCOPHÆA, the BLUE ANTELOPE of Pennant, or the BLUE GOAT of Kolben, is larger than a fallow deer, and forms the link between the goat and antelope kinds. The fur is of a fine blue and velvet like appearance: the horns are roundiſh, annulated with 20 prominent rings, and bent backwards in an arch. It inhabits the country N. of the Cape of Good Hope.

11. CAPRA D. LEUCORYX has the noſe thick and broad, like that of a cow; the ears ſomewhat ſlouching; body clumſy and thick: The horns long, very ſlightly incurvated, ſlender, annulated part of the way; black-pointed. The tail is tufted, and reaches to the firſt joint of the legs. The colour is in all parts a ſnowy white, except the middle of the face, inſides of the cheeks, and limbs, which are tinged with red. This ſpecies is about the ſize of a Welch runt; and inhabits Gow-Bahrein, an iſle in the gulph of Baſſora.

12. CAPRA D. OREAS, the ELK-ANTELOPE of Sparman, and the *Indian antelope* of Pennant, has thick ſtraight horns, marked with two prominent ſpiral ribs near two thirds of their length, ſmooth towards their end; ſome above two feet long. The head is of a reddiſh colour, bounded on the cheeks by a duſky line. The fore head is broad; and has a ſtripe of long looſe hairs; and on the lower part of the dewlap, a large tuft of black hair. The noſe is pointed. Along the neck and back, from head to tail, is a black ſhort mane: the reſt of the body is of a blueiſh grey, tinged with red. The tail does not reach to the firſt joint of the leg; is covered with ſhort cinereous hair; and the end tufted with long black hairs. The hoofs are ſhort, ſurrounded at their junction with the legs by a circle of black hairs. The height to the ſhoulders is 5 feet. It is thick bodied and ſtrongly made; but the legs are ſlender. It wants the *ſinus lachrymalis*. The females are horned like the males.—The Caffres call this ſpecies *empoſos* and *poſſo*. The Dutch of the Cape call it the *eland*, or *elk*. Buffon is by ſome accuſed of a miſtake in calling this the *coudous*, a name which it is ſaid, he ought to have beſtowed on his *ondoma*. Mr Kerr follows him, however, in this, and has doubtleſs inveſtigated the ſubject. This ſpecies inhabits India, Congo, and the ſouthern parts of Africa. They live in herds; but the old males are often ſolitary. They grow very fat, eſpecially about the breaſt and heart: ſo that they are eaſily caught; and when purſued, will ſometimes fall dead in the chace. They are ſlow runners: when rouſed, always go againſt the wind, nor can the hunters (even if they front the herd,) divert them from their courſe. The fleſh is fine-grained, very delicious, and juicy. The hide is tough: the Hottentots make tobacco pipes of the horns.

13. CAPRA D. OREOTRAGUS, the African antelope of Schreber, has very ſtraight tapering ſharp-pointed horns, ſlightly wrinkled at the baſes. The head is reddiſh; the upper parts of the body, a greeniſh yellow, and the under parts a light aſh colour. The tail is very ſhort. It inhabits Africa.

14. CAPRA D. PICTA, the NYLGHAU, or *white-footed antelope* of Pennant and Erxleben, has ſhort horns, bending a little forward; ears large, marked with two black ſtripes; a ſmall black mane on the neck, and half way down the back: a tuft of long hairs on the fore parts of the neck; above that, a large ſpot of white; another between the fore legs on the cheſt: one white ſpot on each fore foot; two on each hind foot: the tail is long, tufted with black hairs. The colour of the male is a dark grey. The female is of a pale brown colour; with a mane, tuft, and ſtriped ears, like the male; on each foot 3 tranſverſe bands of black and two of white: It is deſtitute of horns. The height to the top of the ſhoulders is 4 feet, 1 inch; the length, from the bottom of the neck to the anus, 4 feet. The head is like that of a ſtag; the legs are delicate. Theſe animals inhabit the diſtant and interior parts of India, remote from our ſettlements. They are brought down as curioſities to the Europeans, and have of late years been frequently imported into England. In the days of Aureng-Zebe, they abounded between Delhi and Lahor, on the way to Cachemire. They were called *nyl-ghau, i. e. blue* or *grey bills*; and were one of the objects of chace, with that mighty prince, during his journey. They were incloſed by his army of hunters within nets, which, being drawn gradually cloſer, at length formed a ſmall precinct: into this the king, his omrahs, and hunters, entered, and killed the beaſts with arrows, ſpears, or muſkets; and ſometimes in ſuch numbers, that Aureng-Zebe uſed to ſend quarters as preſents to all his great people. They are uſually very gentle, feed readily, and lick the hands which give them food. In confinement they will eat oats, but prefer graſs and hay; are very fond of wheaten bread; and when thirſty, they will drink two gallons at once. They are ſaid to be at times very vicious and fierce. When the males fight, they drop on their knees at a diſtance from one another, make their approaches in that attitude, and when they come near, ſpring and dart at each other. They often, in a ſtate of confinement, fall into that poſture without doing any harm. They ſometimes, however, attack mankind unprovoked. A labourer, who was looking over ſome pales which incloſed a few of them, was alarmed by one of the males flying at him like lightning; but he was ſaved by the intervention of the wood work, which it broke to pieces, and

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at the ſame time one of its horns.—They have bred in England. They are ſuppoſed to go nine months with young, and have ſometimes two at a birth.

15. CAPRA D. PYGARGA, the *white-faced antelope* of Pennant, is about 5 feet 4 inches long, 3 feet high at the ſhoulders, and is of a hoary red colour, with a blood red or bay neck, a deep red band along the ſides, white face and buttocks. In the form of its horns, and diſpoſition of the dark red bands, it reſembles the SPRINGER, whence Mr Kerr ſuſpects it to be the ſame ſpecies. See N° 18.

16. CAPRA D. PYGMÆA, the GUEVEI, of Pallas, the *royal antelope* of Pennant, ſtiled by Boſman *king of the harts*, has very ſhort, conically pointed, twiſted horns, wrinkled at the baſes, and inhabits Senegal, Guinea, and the hotteſt parts of Africa. "This very elegant little animal, ſays Mr Kerr, is only about 9 inches high, and yet is ſo exceedingly agile, that it is ſaid to leap over a twelve-feet wall. It is of a reddiſh brown colour, with jet black horns, about two inches long; the females have none: The ears are broad, and the legs are ſcarcely bigger than gooſe quills. It is eaſily made very familiar, but is ſo extremely tender, as not to bear being tranſported to Europe."

17. CAPRA D. REDUNCA, the NAGOR, or *red antelope* of Pennant, has horns 5½ inches long, bent forwards at the ends; one or two ſlight rings at the baſe; ears almoſt as long as the horns; hair ſtiff and bright; is in all parts of a reddiſh colour, but paleſt on the cheſt; the tail is very ſhort. It inhabits Senegal and the Cape; where it is very frequent, and is a common food. It is 4 feet long, and 2 feet 3 inches high.

18. CAPRA D. SALTANS, the SPRINGER ANTELOPE of Pennant, has ſlender horns, annulated half way, and twice contorted. The ears are very long and duſky. The face, cheeks, noſe, chin, and throat, are white. The whole upper ſide of the neck, part of the lower, the back, ſides, and outſide of the limbs, are of a pale yellowiſh brown. The cheſt, belly, and inſide of the limbs, are white; the ſides and belly divided by a broad band of cheſnut, which runs down part of the ſhoulders. The tail reaches to the firſt joint of the leg; the upper part white; the lower black, and furniſhed with long hair. The buttocks are white; and from the tail half way up the back is a ſtripe of white, expanſible at pleaſure. This elegant ſpecies weighs about 50 lb. and is rather leſs than a roe-buck. It inhabits the Cape of Good Hope, where it is called the *ſpring-bock*, from the prodigious leaps it takes on the ſight of any body. When alarmed, it has the power of expanding the white ſpace about the tail into the form of a circle, which returns to its linear form when the animal is tranquil. Theſe animals migrate annually from the interior parts in ſmall herds, and continue in the neighbourhood of the Cape for 2 or 3 months: then join companies, and go off in troops conſiſting of many thouſands, covering the great plains for ſeveral hours in their paſſage. They are attended in their migrations by numbers of lions, hyænas, and other wild beaſts, which make great havoc among them. They are excellent eating, and with other antelopes are the venſon of the Cape. Mr Malſon informs us, (*Phil. Tranſ.* vol. lxvi. p. 103.) that they alſo make periodical migrations, once in 7 or 8 years, in herds of many hundred thouſands, from, as he ſuppoſes, the interior parts of *Terra de Natal*. They are compelled to it by the exceſſive drought which happens in that region, when ſometimes there does not fall a drop of rain for two or three years. Theſe animals in their courſe deſolate Caffraria, ſpreading over the whole country, and not leaving a blade of graſs.

19. CAPRA D. SCRIPTA, the *barnaſſed antelope* of Pennant, the *gnu* of Buffon, has ſtraight horns 9 inches long, pointing backwards, with two ſpiral ribs. The general colour is cheſnut, but the ſides are moſt ſingularly marked with two tranſverſe bands of white, croſſed by two others from the back to the belly: the rump with three white lines pointing downwards on each ſide; and the thighs ſpotted with white; exhibiting altogether the appearance of harneſs. The tail is ten inches long, covered with long rough hairs.—It inhabits the plains and woods of Senegal, living in large herds. It is frequent at the Cape, where it is called the *bonte-bok*, or *ſpotted goat*. It is 4½ feet long, and 2 feet 8 inches high.

20. CAPRA D. STREPSICEROS, the CONDOMA, or *Cape deer* of Buffon, or the *ſtriped antelope* of Pennant, has ſmooth horns, twiſted ſpirally, and compreſſed ſideways, with a ridge on the one ſide following the wreaths: they conſiſt of 3 bends; and are ſometimes 4½ feet long in a ſtraight line. They are naturally of a duſky colour, and wrinkled; but are generally brought over highly poliſhed. The females are deſtitute of horns. In the upper jaw is a hard horny ſubſtance, diſpoſed in ridges. The length of the animal is 9 feet; the legs are ſlender: the general colour is of a reddiſh caſt, mixed with grey; and from the tail, along the top of the back, to the ſhoulders, is a white ſtripe; from which are 7 others, 4 pointing towards the thighs, and 3 towards the belly; but they vary in number of ſtripes. On the upper part of the neck is a ſhort mane: beneath the neck, from the throat to the breaſt, are ſome long hairs hanging down. It inhabits the Cape of Good Hope, where it is called *coeſdoes*, and is ſaid to leap to a moſt aſtoniſhing height. This ſpecies wants the *ſinus lacrymalis*.

21. CAPRA D. SUBGUTTUROSA, the *Perſian antelope* of Schreber, has horns above 13 inches long, bent like a lyre; the upper parts of the body are of a browniſh aſh colour; the under parts pure white, with a yellowiſh white ſtripe along each ſide. The throat has a protuberance on the fore part. It is the ſize of a roe, and lives in large flocks in Perſia, between the Caſpian and Euxine.

22. CAPRA D. SYLVATICA, the BOSCH-BOK, or wood goat of the Cape, a ſpecies of antelope, according to Mr Sparman, unknown to all the cultivators of natural hiſtory, whether ancient or modern, till he deſcribed it, in the Memoirs of the Swediſh academy for 1780, by the name of *antilope ſylvatica*. This animal has obtained the name it goes by, from its being the only one among the gazels in Africa, which lives in the woods and groves. In ſize, it is ſomewhat above 2½ feet high. The horns are 10½ inches long; the ears

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ears 5 inches. The horns are black, triangular, and wreathed, ſo that both the ſides and angles have ſomewhat of a ſpiral turn. At bottom they are rather rough, in conſequence of a ſet of almoſt innumerable wavy rings; which, however, are not elevated much above the ſurface. At top they are conical and ſharp pointed, and as ſmooth as if poliſhed. It has no fore teeth or *inciſores* except in the lower jaw, where it has 8. It has no *porus ceriferus*. The hairs on the head are very ſhort and fine; farther down more rough and rugged, reſembling goats hair. Forwards on the neck, breaſt, ſides, and belly, they are 1½ or 2 inches long. On the ridge of the neck, and along that of the back, they are 3 or 4 inches in length, ſo as to form a kind of mane, terminating in a tail about a finger's breadth long. On the hind part of the thighs and buttocks, the hairs are 8 inches long; the legs and feet are ſlender, and covered with ſhort hairs; the fetlock joints are ſmall; the noſe and under lip are decorated with black whiſkers about an inch long. The predominant colour is dark brown, which occupies the principal part of the ſides, the back, the upper part of the tail of the cheſt and fore ribs, and the fore part of the belly. A ſtill darker brown, bordering upon black, is diſcoverable on the outſide of the ſhoulders, and ſome part of the fore ribs. The fore part of the noſe, from the eyes to the muzzle, is of a foot colour. The ears are as black as ſoot on the outſide, but on the inſide grey; and both outwards and inwards covered with hairs ſtill ſhorter than thoſe on the head; excepting half the fore part of the lower edge, where the hairs are white and half an inch long. From 9 to 12 ſmall white ſpots are on the haunches and the ſides near them. A narrow line of long white hairs extends from the neck along the back and tail, in the midſt of the long brown hairs. From the chine of the back to the ſides run 5 white parallel ſtreaks, only diſcoverable by a cloſe inſpection. This creature does much miſchief to the vineyards and kitchen gardens of the Cape coloniſts; and it ſhows a great deal of craft and artifice in avoiding the ſnares and traps ſet for it, as well as the ambuſcades of the ſportſmen. As he runs ſlowly, he is ſometimes caught by dogs. When he ſees there is no other reſource, he puts himſelf in a poſture of defence; and when he is going to butt, kneels down, like the white-footed antelope and the hart-beeſt. The coloniſts are not very fond of hunting him in this manner, as on this occaſion he generally ſells his life very dear, by killing ſome of their beſt hounds. This creature's horns, which are its chief defence, ſometimes alſo prove its bane, by being entangled in the buſhes and ſmall branches of trees. To avoid this, it carries its noſe horizontally ſtraight forward while it runs; ſo that they lie directly on its neck: notwithſtanding which the horns are generally worn away a little on the fore part, and thus acquire ſome degree of poliſh. This ſpecies is monogamous, or keeps in pairs. It is ſwifter in woodlands than the dogs, which likewiſe ſooner loſe ſcent of him there. The female, which has no horns, and on that account runs about in the foreſt more free and unimpeded, does not ſuffer herſelf ſo eaſily to be hunted out of the woods, having a more certain defence againſt the dogs in her legs, than the male has in his horns, eſpecially as ſhe is not ſo bulky and heavy as the male. Her breaſt is ſaid to be very plump and fleſhy, but the fleſh in general is not very tender.

23. CAPRA D. TRAGOCAMELUS, the *Biggel* of Mandeſloe, or *Indoſtan antelope* of Pennant, has horns 7 inches long, bent forward; a ſhort mane, a large tufted hump on the ſhoulders, and a tail 22 inches long, terminated with flowing hairs. It inhabits India, is near 5 feet high, and reſembles the camel in the reverſed arch of its neck and its manner of kneeling. The hair is ſoft, ſhort, ſmooth, and light aſh-coloured; in ſome parts duſky; beneath the breaſt and tail white; and on the fore head is a black ſpot of a rhomboid figure. On the lower part of the cheſt the ſkin hangs looſe like the dew-lap of a cow: the hind parts of the body reſemble thoſe of an aſs, and the limbs are ſlender.

VIII. CAPRA GAZELLA, the goat antelope of Linnæus, the ANTILOPE ORYX, or BEZOARTICA of Palias, the *Paſan* of Buffon, or *Egyptian antelope* of Pennant, has ſtraight, ſlender, diſtinctly annulated horns 3 feet long, which taper to a point: The body and ſides are of a reddiſh aſh colour, with a duſky line along the back. It inhabits Syria, Arabia, Perſia, India, Egypt, Ethiopia, and the Cape. It is about the ſize of a fallow deer. Dr Gmelin takes this for the ZEBI of ſcripture.

IX. CAPRA GNOU, has ſcabrous horns, thick at the baſe, bending forward cloſe to the head, then ſuddenly reverting upwards. The mouth is ſquare; the noſtrils covered with broad flaps. From the noſe, half way up the front, is a thick oblong ſquare bruſh of long ſtiff black hairs reflected upwards, on each ſide of which the other hairs are long, and point cloſely down the cheeks. Round the eyes are diſpoſed in a radiated form ſeveral ſtrong hairs. The neck is ſhort, and a little arched. On the top a ſtrong and upright mane, reaching from the horns beyond the ſhoulders. On the chin is a long white beard; and on the gullet a very long pendulous bunch of hair. On the breaſt, and between the fore legs, the hairs are very long and black. The tail reaches to the firſt joint of the legs, and is full of hair like that of a horſe, and quite white. The body is thick; and covered with ſmooth ſhort hair of a ruſſy brown colour tipt with white. The legs are long, elegant, and ſlender, like thoſe of a ſtag. On each foot is only a ſingle ſpurious or hind hoof. It is a ſtrange compound of animals: having a vaſt head like that of an ox; body and tail, like a horſe; legs like a ſtag; and the ſinus lacrymalis of an antelope. Its ordinary ſize is about that of a common galloway; its length being ſomewhat above 5, and height rather more than 4 feet.—Theſe animals inhabit in great numbers the fine plains of the great Namacquas, far N. of the Cape of Good Hope, extending from S. Lat. 25° to 28° 42′, where Africa ſeems at once to open its vaſt treaſures of hoofed quadrupeds. The gnou is an exceedingly fierce animal: on the ſight of any body it uſually drops its head, and puts itſelf into an attitude of offence; and will dart with its horns againſt the pales of the incloſure towards the perſons on the outſide; yet it will afterwards take the

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the bread which is offered. It will often go upon its knees, run ſwiftly in that ſingular poſture, and furrow the ground with its horns and legs. The Hottentots call it *gnou* from its voice. It has two notes, one reſembling the bellowing of an ox, the other more clear. It is called an ox by the Europeans, and is ſtiled accordingly *Bos Gnou* by Zimmerman.

X. CAPRA HIRCUS, the common goat, with arched carinated horns, and a long beard. It is a native of the eaſtern mountains. Goats are animals of more ſagacity than ſheep. Inſtead of having an antipathy at mankind, they voluntarily mingle with them, and are eaſily tamed. Even in uninhabited countries, they betray no ſavage diſpoſitions. In 1098, an Engliſh veſſel having put in at the iſland of Bonaviſta, two negroes came aboard, and offered gratis to the captain as many goats as he pleaſed. The captain expreſſed his aſtoniſhment at this offer. The negroes replied, that there were only 12 perſons in the iſland; that the goats had multiplied to ſuch a degree, that they were become extremely troubleſome; and that, inſtead of having any difficulty in catching them, they followed them wherever they went, and were ſo obſtinately officious, that they could not get quit of them. Goats are ſenſible of careſſes, and capable of a conſiderable degree of friendſhip. They are ſtronger, more agile and leſs timid, than ſheep. They have a lively, capricious, and wandering diſpoſition; are fond of high and ſolitary places, and frequently ſleep upon the very points of rocks. They are more eaſily ſupported than any other animal of the ſame ſize; for there is hardly an herb, or the bark of a tree, which they will not eat. Neither are they liable to ſo many diſeaſes as ſheep; they can bear heat and cold with leſs inconvenience. The actions of animals depend more upon the force and variety of their ſenſations than the ſtructure of their bodies: the natural fanciſulneſs of goats is accordingly expreſſed by the irregularity of their actions: they walk, ſtop ſhort, run, jump, ſhow and hide themſelves, by mere caprice, ariſing from the natural vivacity of their temper. The buck will copulate when he is a year old, and the female when ſhe is 7 months. But as this is rather premature, they are generally reſtrained till they be 18 months or two years. The buck is bald, beautiful, and vigorous; one is ſufficient to ſerve 150 females. A buck for propagation ſhould be large, handſome, and about two years of age; his neck ſhould be ſhort and fleſhy; his head ſlender; his ears pendent; his thighs thick; his limbs firm; his hair black, thick, and ſoft; and his beard long and buſhy. The females are generally in ſeaſon from September to the end of November. At that time the males drive whole flocks of the females from place to place, and fill the whole atmoſphere around them with their ſtrong odour; which, though as diſagreeable as aſafœtida, it is ſuppoſed, may be conducive to prevent many nervous diſtempers. Horſes are ſuppoſed to be much refreſhed by it; on which account many people keep a he-goat in their ſtables. Goats go with young 4½ months, and bring forth from the end of February to the end of April.—They have only two teats, and generally bring forth but one or two young; ſometimes 3, and in good warm paſtures there have been inſtances, though rare, of their bringing forth 4 at a time. They continue fruitful till 7 years of age; but a buck goat is ſeldom kept after he is 5. Both young and old are affected by the weather; a rainy ſeaſon makes them thin, a dry ſunny one makes them fat and blithe: Their exceſſive venery prevents their longevity. In our climate they ſeldom live above 11 or 12 years. Though their food coſts next to nothing, their produce is valuable. The whiteſt wigs are made of their hair; for which purpoſe that of the he-goat is moſt in requeſt: the whiteſt and cleareſt is ſelected from that which grows on the haunches, where it is longeſt and thickeſt: a good ſkin, well haired, is ſold for a guinea; though a ſkin of bad hue, and ſo yellow as to baffle the barber's ſkill to bleach, will not fetch above 18d. or 2s. The Welſh goats are far ſuperior in ſize, and in length and fineneſs of hair, to thoſe of other mountainous countries. Their uſual colour is white: thoſe of France and the Alps are ſhort-haired, reddiſh, and the horns ſmall. Bolſters, made from the hair of a goat, were in uſe in the days of Saul, as appears from 1 Samuel xix. 13. The ſpecies very probably was the Angora goat, whoſe ſoft and ſilky hair ſupplied a moſt luxurious couch. The ſuet of the goat is in great eſteem as well as the hair. The inhabitants of Caernarvonſhire ſuffer theſe animals to run wild on the rocks in winter as well as in ſummer; and kill them in October for the ſake of their fat. The goats killed for this purpoſe are about 4 or 5 years old. Their ſuet makes candles far ſuperior in whiteneſs and goodneſs to thoſe made from that of the ſheep or the ox, and accordingly brings a much greater price in the market; nor are the horns without their uſe, the country people making of them excellent handles for tucks and penknives. The ſkin is peculiarly well adapted for the glove manufactory, eſpecially that of the kid: abroad it is dreſſed and made into ſtockings, bedticks, bed-hangings, ſheets, and even ſhirts. In the army it covers the horſeman's arms, and carries the foot-ſoldier's proviſions. As it takes a dye better than any other ſkin, it was formerly much uſed for hangings in the houſes of people of fortune, being ſuſceptible of the richeſt colours, and when flowered and ornamented with gold and ſilver, became an elegant and ſuperb furniture. The fleſh is of great uſe to the inhabitants of thoſe countries which abound with goats; and affords them a cheap and plentiful proviſion in winter. The haunches are frequently ſalted and dried, and ſupply all the uſes of bacon: this by the Welſh is called *coch yr ŵyden*, or hung veniſon. The meat of a ſplayed goat of 6 or 7 years old (which is called *byſr*) is reckoned the beſt; being generally very fat and ſweet. It makes an excellent paſty; goes under the name of *rock veniſon*; and is little inferior to that of the deer. The milk is ſweet nouriſhing, and medicinal. It is an excellent ſuccedanium for aſs's milk; and has, with a tea-ſpoonful of hartſhorn drunk warm in bed in the morning and afternoon, and repeated for ſome time, proved a cure for phthiſis when not too far gone. In ſome of the mountainous parts of Scotland and Ireland, the milk is made into whey, which has done

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ſome wonders in this and ſimilar caſes; and to many of thoſe places there is as great a reſort of patients of all ranks, as there is in England to the Spas or baths. The milk of this animal muſt be ſalutary, as it browſes only on the tops, tendrils, and flowers, of the mountain ſhrubs, and medicinal herbs; rejecting the groſſer parts. The blood of the he goat dried, was formerly reckoned a ſpecific in pleuriſies, and is even taken notice of by Dr Mead for this purpoſe; but is now deſervedly neglected. Cheeſe made of goat's milk is much valued in ſome of our mountainous countries, when kept to a proper age. It has a peculiar taſte and flavour. There are ſeveral varieties of the common goat: ſuch as,

1. CAPRA HIRCUS ANGORENSIS, the Angora goat, a variety found only in the tract that ſurrounds Angora, Beibazar, and Cougna, in Aſiatic Turky, and about Gomron in Perſia. Strabo ſeems to have been acquainted with this kind; for, ſpeaking of the river Halys, he ſays, that there are goats found near it that are not known in other parts. In the form of their body they differ from the common goat, being ſhorter; their legs too are ſhorter, their ſides broader and flatter, and their horns are ſtraighter; but their moſt valuable characteriſtic is their hair, which is ſoft as ſilk, of a gloſſy ſilvery whiteneſs, and curled in locks of 8 or 9 inches long. This hair is the baſis of our fine camlets, and imported to England in form of thread for the Turks will not permit it to be exported raw, for a reaſon that does them honour; becauſe it ſupports a multitude of poor who live by ſpinning it. Mr Kerr ſays that thoſe of Cougna have brown or black hair. It is ſaid, that by change of climate they loſe their beauty: but whether the deſign of Baron Alſtromer ſucceeded (a patriotic Swede, who imported ſome into his own country, to propagate the breed for the ſake of their hair,) we have not learned.

2. CAPRA HIRCUS CAPRICORNUS, the CAPRICORUS of Buffon has ſhort horns, the ends turned forwards, their ſides annulated, and the rings more prominent before than behind. Mr Kerr ſays, the place, hiſtory, and even figure of this animal are uncertain.

3. CAPRA HIRCUS MUTICA, the Cabonas goat of Pennant, is ranked by Mr Kerr, as a diſtinct ſpecies, although he ſtiles it "a *variety*, reſembling the common domeſtic goat in every thing but the want of horns." Perhaps this deficiency may be accidental, like that of many of our Scots oxen.

XI. CAPRA IBEX, the wild goat, is ſuppoſed to be the ſtock from whence the tame ſpecies ſprung. It has large knotty horns reclined upon its back is of a yelloviſh colour, and its beard is black. The females are leſs, and have ſmaller horns, more like thoſe of a common ſhe-goat, and with few knobs on the upper ſurface: they bring forth one kid, ſeldom two, at a birth. They inhabit the higheſt Alps of the Griſon's county and the Valais; they are alſo found in Crete Italy, the Apennines, Germany, Siberia, and Kamtſchatka. They are very wild, and difficult to be ſhot, as they always keep on the higheſt points. Their chace is exceedingly dangerous: being very ſtrong they often tumble the incautious huntſman down the precipices, unleſs he has time to lie down, and let the animals paſs over him. They are ſaid not to be long-lived. Their fleſh is much eſteemed, and their ſkins are very thin.

XII. CAPRA MEMBRINA, or MAMBRICA, the Syrian goat, has ſhort reclined horns, pendant ears, and a beard. It is a native of the Eaſt. Their ears are of a vaſt length; from one to two feet; and ſometimes ſo troubleſome, that the owners cut off one to enable the animal to feed with more eaſe. Theſe animals ſupply Aleppo with milk. They are larger than the common goats.

XIII. 1. CAPRA REVERSA, the BUCK OF JUDA, has ſhort ſmooth, erect horns, curved a little forwards. It is about the ſize of a kid of a year old. It inhabits Juda or Whidaw in Africa. Mr Kerr deſcribes another variety, viz.

2. CAPRA REVERSA NANA, ſtiled by Buffon, the *other buck of Juda*. It inhabits the ſame country, is likewiſe of a dwarfiſh ſize, and though joined with the preceding by Dr Gemlin, is ſeparated by Mr Kerr, on account of the different figure of the horns; which he deſcribes as "very thick rounded on the upper ſurface, with two ſharp edges below; and bent backwards, with a ſlight ſpiral twiſt, downwards, outwards, and upwards."

XIV. CAPRA RUPICAPRA, the CHAMOIS GOAT, has ſmooth, erect and crooked horns. The body is of a duſky red colour; but the front, top of the head, gullet, and inſide of the ears, are white; the under part of the tail is blackiſh; and the upper lip is a little divided. It inhabits the Alps of Switzerland, Italy, and the ci-devant province of Dauphiny; the Pyrenean mountains; Greece, and Crete: does not dwell ſo high in the hills as the Ibex, and is found in greater numbers. It is of the ſize of a domeſtic goat, and its hair is as ſhort as that of a hind. Its vivacity is delightful, and its agility truly admirable. Theſe animals are very ſocial; they go in little flocks of from 3 to 20; ſometimes from 60 to 100 of them are ſeen diſperſed along the declivity of the ſame mountain. The large males keep at a diſtance from the reſt, except in the rutting ſeaſon, when they join the females, and beat of all their young. At this period, their ardour is ſtill longer than that of the wild bucks. They bleat often, and run from one mountain to another. Their ſeaſon of love is in the months of October and November, and they bring forth in March and April. A young female takes the male at the age of 18 months. The females bring forth one, but rarely two, at a time. The young follow their mothers till October, if not diſperſed by the hunters or the wolves. They live between 20 and 30 years. Their fleſh is very good. A fat chamois goat will yield from 10 to 12 pounds of ſuet, which is harder and better than that of the goat. The blood of the chamois is extremely hot, and is ſaid to have qualities and virtues nearly equal to thoſe of the wild goat. The voice of the chamois is a very low and almoſt imperceptible kind of bleating, reſembling that of a hoarſe domeſtic goat. By this bleating they collect together. But, when alarmed, or when they perceive an enemy, they advertiſe one another by a kind of whiſtling noiſe. The ſight of the chamois is very penetrating, and his ſenſe of ſmelling is acute. When he ſees a man diſtinctly, he ſtops for ſome time, and flys off when he makes a near-

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or

er approach. His ſenſe of hearing is equally acute, for he hears the ſmalleſt noiſe. When the wind blows in the direction of a man, he will perceive the ſcent at the diſtance of more than half a league. Hence, when he ſmells or hears any thing which alarms him, he whiſtles with ſuch force that the rocks and foreſts re-echoe the ſound. All his brethren, that are near, take the alarm. This whiſtling is performed through the noſtrils, and conſiſts of a ſtrong blowing, ſimilar to the ſound which a man may make by fixing his tongue to the palate, with his teeth nearly ſhut, his lips open, and ſomewhat extended, and blowing long and with great force. The chamois is very fond of the leaves and tender buds of ſhrubs, particularly of the *mewn athamanta*. Kramer, in his *Hiſt. Nat. Auſt.* ſuppoſes the balls called *ægagropilæ*, found in his ſtomach, to be occaſioned by this food. See ÆGAGROPILÆ. He ruminates like the common goat. The food he uſes announces the heat of his conſtitution. He is admired for his large round eyes, whoſe ſize correſponds with the vivacity of his diſpoſition. His head is adorned with two ſmall horns, from half a foot to 9 inches in length. Their colour is a fine black, and they are placed on the front nearly between his eyes; and inſtead of being reflected backward like thoſe of other animals, they advance forward above the eyes, and bend backward at the points, which are extremely ſharp. He adjuſts his ears moſt beautifully to the points of his horns. Two tufts of black hair deſcend from his horns to the ſides of his face. The reſt of the head is of a yelloviſh white colour which never changes. The horns of the chamois are uſed for the heads of canes. Thoſe of the female are ſmaller and leſs crooked. The ſkin of the chamois, when dreſſed, is very ſtrong, nervous, and ſupple, and makes excellent riding breeches, gloves, and veſts. Garments of this kind laſt long, and are of great uſe to manufacturers. The chamois goats are ſo impatient of heat, that, in ſummer, they are only to be found under the ſhades of caverns in the rocks, among maſſes of congealed ſnow and ice, or in elevated foreſts on the northern declivities of the moſt ſcabrous mountains, where the rays of the ſun ſeldom penetrate. They paſture in the mornings and evenings, and ſeldom during the day. Their mode of climbing or deſcending inacceſſible rocks is admirable. They neither mount nor deſcend perpendicularly, but in an oblique line. When deſcending, particularly, they throw themſelves down acroſs a rock which is nearly perpendicular, and of 20 or 30 feet in height, without having a ſingle prop to ſupport their feet. In doing this, they ſtrike their feet 3 or 4 times againſt the rock, till they arrive at a proper reſting place below. The ſpring of their tendons is ſo great, that, when leaping about among the precipices, one would imagine they had wings inſtead of limbs. His legs are long; thoſe behind are ſomewhat longer, and always crooked, which favours their ſpringing to a great diſtance; and, when they throw themſelves from a height, the hind legs receive the ſhock, and perform the office of two ſprings in breaking the fall. During winter, they inhabit the lower foreſts, and live upon pine leaves, the buds of trees, buſhes, and ſuch green or dry herbs as they can find by ſcratching off the ſnow with the [illegible]. The foreſts that delight them moſt, are [illegible] which are very full of rocks and precipices. [illegible] hunting of the chamois is very difficult and [illegible] rious. See HUNTING. This ſpecies is ran[illegible] among the *antilopes* by Meſſers Pennant and [illegible], Dr Gemlin, &c.

XV. CAPRA TARTARICA, the SAIGA of Buffon, has cylindrical, ſtraight, annulated horns; the points inclining inward, the ends ſmooth; the other part ſurrounded with very prominent annuli; of a pale yellow colour, and the greateſt part ſemipellucid; the cutting teeth are placed ſo looſe in their ſockets, as to move with the leaſt touch. The male is covered with rough hair like the hegoat, and has a very ſtrong ſmell; the female is ſmoother. The hair on the ſides and throat is long, and reſembles wool: that on the neck and head is hoary; the back and ſides of a dirty white: the breaſt, belly, and inſide of the thighs, of a ſhining white. The females are deſtitute of horns. Theſe animals inhabit all the deſerts from the Danube and Dnieper to the river Irtiſh, but not beyond. Nor are they ever ſeen to the N. of 54° or 56° Lat. They are found in Poland Moldavia, about Mount Caucaſus, the Caſpian Sea, and Siberia, in the dreary open deſerts, where ſalt ſprings abound, feeding on the ſalt, the acrid and aromatic plants of thoſe countries, and grow in ſummer very fat: but their fleſh acquires a taſte diſagreeable to many people, and is ſcarcely eatable, until it is ſuffered to grow cold after dreſſing. The females go with young the whole winter; and bring forth in the northern deſerts in May. The young are covered with a ſoft fleece, like new dropt lambs, and curled and waved. They are regularly migratory. In the rutting ſeaſon, late in autumn, they collect in flocks of thouſands, and retire into the ſouthern deſerts. In the ſpring they divide into little flocks, and return northward. The males feed promiſcuouſly with the females and their young. They rarely lie down all at the ſame time: but by a providential inſtinct, ſome are always keeping watch; and when they are tired, they ſeemingly give notice to ſuch as have taken their reſt, who ariſe inſtantly, and relieve the centinels of the preceding hours. They thus often preſerve themſelves from the attack of wolves, and from the ſurprize of the huntſmen. They are exceſſively ſwift, and will outrun the fleeteſt horſe or grey hound; yet partly through fear, (for they are the moſt timid of animals,) and partly by the ſhortneſs of their breath, they are very ſoon taken. If they are bit by a dog, they inſtantly fall down, nor will they even offer to riſe. In running they ſeem to incline on one ſide. In a wild ſtate they ſeem to have no voice. When brought up tame, the young emit a ſhort ſort of bleating, like ſheep. The males are very libidinous. When taken young they may eaſily be tamed; but if caught at full age, they are ſo wild and obſtinate as to refuſe all food. When they die, their noſes are quite flaccid. They are hunted for the ſake of their fleſh, horns, and ſkins, which are excellent for gloves, belts, &c. See HUNTING. The fat reſembles that of mutton; in taſte, that of a buck: the head is reckoned the moſt delicate part.

END OF THE FOURTH VOLUME.

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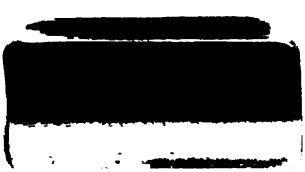

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